

J. D. O'Connor

Better English Pronunciation

NEW EDITION

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This is the new edition of a highly successful and widely-used text on pronunciation. It provides a systematic and thorough introduction to the pronunciation of English to help intermediate and more advanced students improve their production of the spoken language.

After a short introduction to pronunciation problems the author explains how the speech organs work; he then deals with each sound separately before dealing with words in combination, rhythm-patterns and intonation. Practice material is given at intervals throughout the book. The particular difficulties of the speakers of certain other languages are noted, and remedial exercises provided. A recording of all the practice material in the book is available on cassettes.

... can quite safely be said to be the most effective [book] ever written to help the ordinary learner to improve his pronunciation.'

J. Windsor Lewis in *The Times Educational Supplement*

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Better English Pronunciation
Second edition
J. D. O'Connor
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I

Acknowledgements

Every writer of a textbook owes a debt to his predecessors, to his teachers, to his colleagues and to his pupils; I gratefully acknowledge my deep indebtedness to all of these. In addition I wish to express particular thanks to Mrs M. Chan of Hong Kong, Miss Afaf M. E. Elmenoufi of Cairo and Dr R. K. Bansal of Hyderabad for very kindly helping me with regard to the pronunciation difficulties of Cantonese, Arabic and Hindi speakers respectively. Last, but far from least, my very sincere thanks go to my friends Pauline Speller, who typed the whole of a by no means easy manuscript and did it admirably, and Dennis Speller, who drew for me the original illustrations.

The responsibility for the book is mine; any credit I happily share with all those mentioned above.

J. D. O'c.

Foreword to the second edition

Since this book was first published, in 1967, my attention has been drawn by users of it to various errors and omissions, and suggestions have been made for improving its usefulness. In this second edition I have now remedied the errors

and omissions and I have adopted those suggestions which I think improve the book. To all those readers who were kind enough to write to me on these matters I offer my sincere thanks.

My old readers will no doubt consider the greatest change in this edition to be the use of a different phonetic transcription, and I agree. The reason why I decided to change the transcription is this: when the book was first published I used the transcription of Daniel Jones's English Pronouncing Dictionary (Dent), which I considered to be the best guide to English pronunciation for foreign learners (as I still do). The present editor of the dictionary, A. C. Gimson, decided, rightly in my opinion, to change his transcription for the 14th edition of 1977. This meant that my transcription no longer corresponded to any of those found in the major dictionaries commonly used by foreign learners.

I have now rectified this quite unacceptable situation by adopting the Gimson transcription which is also used in the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1978) and the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (4th edition 1980).

There have often been understandable complaints from students that different writers on English pronunciation used different transcriptions. It seems to me that there is at least a movement towards using a standard transcription, namely, the one now used in this book, and this is a wholly welcome development.

The new transcription differs from the old only in the matter of symbols for the English vowels, and for the convenience of old readers I list both old and new forms below:

Old form Key word New form
i: feel i:

i fill ɪ

e fell e

ɪ

Foreword

d: fall d:

u full u

u: fool u:

ei fail ei

ou foal au

ai file ai

au fowl au

Di foil DI

ae cat ae

D cot D

A	cut	A
a:	curt	31
a:	cart	a:
ia	tier	13
ca	tear	ea
ua	tour	ua
a	banana	a

Vowels which were previously differentiated only by the length mark(:) are now distinguished both by the length mark and by letter-shape, e.g. This makes for easier visual recognition and underlines the

fact that the pairs of vowels differ not only in length but also in quality.

A recording of all the practice material is available on cassettes. The symbol ^J in the text indicates exactly what is recorded.

The book has been entirely re-designed and re-set, and the diagrams have been re-drawn; for this and much other help my thanks are due to the Cambridge University Press.

I hope that my book will continue to serve a useful purpose for both teachers and learners of English in helping them towards a better English pronunciation.

x

1 Problems in pronunciation

e c o « r ^

o ® o f* *“

oo '

• c.oo:.o <*>

'ft 2- 2 ' i

BPI V or. r

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this book is very simple: to help you, the reader, to pronounce English better than you do now. Millions of foreign students want to learn English as well as they can; for some it is only a matter of reading and writing it, and they will find no help here. But many students want to be able to speak English well, with a pronunciation which can be easily understood both by their fellow-students and by English people, and it is for them that this book is specially intended.

Written English and spoken English are obviously very different things. Writing consists of marks on paper which make no noise and are taken in by the eye, whilst speaking is organized sound, taken in by the ear. How can a book, which is nothing but marks on paper, help anyone to make their English sound

better? The answer to this is that it can't, not by itself. But if you will co-operate, and listen to English as much as you can, along the lines that I shall suggest to you, then you will find that the instructions given in the following pages will make your ears sharper for the sound of English and when you can hear English properly you can go on and improve your performance.

Language starts with the ear. When a baby starts to talk he does it by hearing the sounds his mother makes and imitating them. If a baby is born deaf he cannot hear these sounds and therefore cannot imitate them and will not speak. But normal babies can hear and can imitate; they are wonderful imitators, and this gift of imitation, which gives us the gift of speech, lasts for a number of years. It is well known that a child often years old or less can learn any language perfectly, if it is brought up surrounded by that language, no matter where it was born or who its parents were. But after this age the ability to imitate perfectly becomes less, and we all know only too well that adults have great difficulty in mastering the pronunciation (as well as other parts) of foreign languages. Some people are more talented than others; they find pronouncing other languages less difficult, but they never find them easy. Why is this? Why should this gift that we all have as

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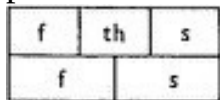
children disappear in later life? Why can't grown-up people pick up the characteristic sound of a foreign language as a child can?

The answer to this is that our native language won't let us. By the time we are grown up the habits of our own language are so strong that they are very difficult to break. In our own language we have a fairly small number of sound-units which we put together in many different combinations to form the words and sentences we use everyday. And as we get older we are dominated by this small number of units. It is as if we had in our heads a certain fixed number of boxes for sounds; when we listen to our own language we hear the sounds and we put each into the right box, and when we speak we go to the boxes and take out the sounds we want in the order we want them. And as we do this over the years the boxes get stronger and stronger until everything we hear, whether it is our own language or another, has to be put into one of these boxes, and everything we say comes out of one of them. But every language has a different number of boxes, and the boxes are arranged differently. For example, three of our English boxes contain the sounds at the beginning of the words *fin*, *thin* and *sin*, that is, /*f* /*th* /*s* (this is one sound, of course) and 5. Like this:

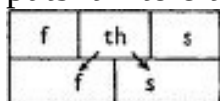
f	th	s
---	----	---

Now, many other languages have boxes which are similar to the English ones

for/ and ʃ, but they do not have a special box for the th-sound. And we can picture this in the following way:



When the foreign listener hears the English th-sound he has to put it in one of his own boxes, his habits force him to do so, and he has no special th box, so he puts it into either the f/box or the s box:



In other words, he 'hears' the th-sound as either /f/ or /s/; a funny /f/ or a funny /s/, no doubt, but he has nowhere else to put it. And in speaking the same thing happens: if he has to say thin, he has no th box to go to so he goes to the nearest box available to him, either the /f/ or the /s/, and

2

Introduction

he says either fin or sin (or it may be tin, if he has a t box in his language).

The main problem of English pronunciation is to build a new set of boxes corresponding to the sounds of English, and to break down the arrangement of boxes which the habits of our native language have so strongly built up. We do this by establishing new ways of hearing, new ways of using our speech organs, new speech habits.

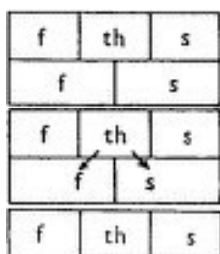
This may sound easy, but it isn't. Unfortunately, it is never easy to establish good habits, it is always the bad ones which come most naturally, and you will need to do a great deal of hard work if you want to build yourself a set of English boxes which are nearly as firm as those of your own language. Anyone who says that you can get a good English pronunciation without hard work is talking rubbish, unless you happen to be one of the very small number of lucky people to whom pronunciation comes fairly easily. Most of us need to work hard at it, and this book is for people who are prepared to work hard. If you work hard and regularly along the lines suggested in this book, you will improve. One of the most important things to remember is that every-one can improve, even if they have no great talent for language. Quite apart from anything else, there is great satisfaction to be got from the development of what talent you have. You may never sound like a native English speaker, but at least you will have got as close to it as you can.

1.2 'Lend me your ears'

If speech depends on hearing, and books don't talk, what are you to do? Fortunately there is a lot of English spoken about the world. On films, on the

radio, on tapes, on gramophone records; most people can get the opportunity of listening to English in some way, and this is what you must do. You must hear English. But just hearing it is not enough; you must listen to it, and you must listen to it not for the meaning but for the sound of it. Obviously when you are listening to a radio programme you will be trying to understand it, trying to get the meaning from it; but you must try also for at least a short part of the time to forget about what the words mean and to listen to them simply as sounds. Take one of the English sounds at a time, it might be the English t, and listen for it each time it comes; concentrate on catching it, on picking it out, on hearing what it sounds like. Don't just be satisfied to hear it vaguely, as if it were a sound of your own language; try and pick out the Englishness of it, what makes it different from the nearest sound in your language. And when you think you have got it,

3



then say it in some of the words that you have heard, and say it aloud.

It is no use practising silently; all of us are much better at pronouncing if we do it silently, inside ourselves. But you can't talk English inside yourself, it has to come out, so practise aloud, even if it puzzles your family or your friends. Later in the book you will find pronunciation exercises to be done; these too must be done aloud.

Films or radio programmes have the disadvantage that you can't stop them and ask for something to be repeated. Gramophone records and tapes do not have this disadvantage. With them you can repeat any part of the text as often as you need, and you must do this: it is much better for your ear if you listen to the same passage six times than if you listen to six different passages; but be careful listen closely each time, don't relax after two or three hearings, try to keep your ears as closely concentrated on the sound of the passage at the sixth hearing as at the first. In this way you will build up a store of sound-memory which will form a firm base for your performance.

Now, performance. When you practise (aloud, of course), you must listen carefully and accurately. If you have listened properly in the first place you will know what the English words and sentences sound like, and you must compare as closely as you can the sounds that come out of your mouth with the sounds that you are holding in your head, in your sound-memory. Don't be satisfied too

easily, try to match your sounds exactly with the sounds that you have listened to.

Some of you may be able to make use of a tape-recorder; if you can, you will be able to hear what you sound like to other people and this is very helpful. If you can, record on the tape-recorder a sentence or a longer passage with which you are familiar through hearing it said by an English speaker. Then listen to it, closely and carefully, and see where your performance does not match the original; mark the places where you are dissatisfied, and practise these bits until you think you have them right; then record the passage, listen critically again, and repeat the sequence. One word of warning a tape-recorder will not do the job for you; it is a useful instrument, but it is not a magic wand which will make your English perfect without any effort from you. It is useful only because it enables you to listen to yourself from the outside, which makes it easier for you to hear what is wrong, but it is you who have to put it right, and the machine cannot do this for you.

In the end it is absolutely essential for you to be able to match what you say with your sound-memory of English. So although a tape-recorder is helpful, this does not mean that if you haven't got one your English will not improve, and, just as important, it does not mean that

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V

'Lend me your ears'

if you have a tape-recorder your English will necessarily be better. Careful listening is the most important thing; and careful matching of performance with listening will bring you nearer to the ideal of a perfect English pronunciation. And make no mistake, your aim must be to acquire a perfect English pronunciation. You will almost certainly not succeed in this aim because it requires, as I have said, a very rare gift; but unless this is your aim you will not make all the progress of which you are capable; keep working towards perfection until you are quite sure that it is neither necessary nor profitable for you to continue. Then you will have done yourself justice.

1.3 Which English?

What do we mean by a perfect English pronunciation? In one sense there are as many different kinds of English as there are speakers of it; no two people speak exactly alike we can always hear differences between them and the pronunciation of English varies a great deal in different geographical areas. How do we decide what sort of English to use as a model? This is not a question which can be decided in the same way for all foreign learners of English. If you live in a part of the world like India or West Africa, where there is a tradition of speaking English for general communication purposes, you should aim to acquire

a good variety of the pronunciation of this area; such varieties of Indian English or African English and the like are to be respected and used as a model by all those who will need their English mainly for the purpose of communication with their fellows in these areas. It would be a mistake in these circumstances to use as a model B.B.C. English or anything of the sort.

On the other hand, if you live in an area where there is no traditional use of English and no body of people who speak it for general communication purposes, then you must take as your model some form of native English pronunciation, and which form you choose does not very much matter. The most sensible thing to do is to take as your model the sort of English which you can hear most often. If you have gramophone records of English speech based on, let us say, an American pronunciation, make American your model; if you can listen regularly to the B.B.C., use that kind of English. But whatever you choose to do, remember this: all these different accents of English have a great deal in common, they have far more similarities than differences, ^) don't worry too much what sort of English you are listening to provided it is English.

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In this book I cannot describe all the possible pronunciations of English that might be useful to you so I shall concentrate on one, the sort of English used by educated native speakers in south-east England, often referred to as Received Pronunciation (R.P. for short), that is 'accepted' pronunciation. R.P. will be the basis; but I am less interested in making you speak with this particular accent of English than in helping you to make the necessary differences between the basic sounds which are found in all kinds of English: these are found in R.P. and because of this it is as useful to describe R.P. as to describe any other native pronunciation, and if you really want to speak with a British accent, then this is as good as any, in the sense that it is widely acceptable.

1.4 The basic sounds

The sounds at the beginning of each of the words in the following list are all different: the letters which stand for these sounds (usually one letter per sound, but sometimes two) are printed in italic type:

*p*ier *v*eer *n*ear
*b*eer *s*heer *w*eir
*t*ier *h*e *a*r *y*ear
*d*eer *l*eer *c*heer
*g*ear *r*ear *j*eer
*/e*ar *m*ere

It is the sound at the beginning of the word, the initial sound, which makes one word different from all the other words in the list. Since this is so, since these

sounds are distinctive, it is obviously necessary to be able to make them sound different: they are basic sounds of English all kinds of English. So are the sounds of the letters in italic type in these lists:

base wra th
baize wrong
ba the
beige
bake

In these lists the sounds at the end of the word are distinctive, the final sounds. If you count up the sounds which are distinctive in initial

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The basic sounds

position and those which are distinctive in final position you will find that there are twenty-four altogether. These twenty-four sounds which occur initially and finally, though they occur in other positions too, are called consonants.

Now look at these lists:

feel cat tier
fill cot tear
fell cut tour
fall curt
f<ll cart
fool
foil
fool
file
fowl
foil

Most of these sounds, represented again by letters in italic type, occur surrounded by consonants, and this is typical, although most of them can also occur initially and finally too. These sounds are called vowels.

NOTICE

1 Five of these words, curt, cart, tier, tear, tour, have a letter r in them.

In many English accents, e.g. American, Canadian, Scottish, Irish, this would be pronounced exactly like the consonant at the beginning of red, but in R.P. and various other accents the letter represents part of a basic vowel unit. There is more detail about this on p. 6i.

2 There is one other vowel, making twenty in all, which occurs in the word banana. This is a very special and very important vowel in English and it is

discussed in full on pp. 82-4.

1.5 Letters and sounds

These must never be mixed up. Letters are written, sounds are spoken.

It is very useful to have written letters to remind us of corresponding sounds, but this is all they do; they cannot make us pronounce sounds which we do not already know; they simply remind us. In ordinary English spelling it is not always easy to know what sounds the letters stand for; for example, in the words city, busy, women, pretty, village, the letters i, y, u, o, e and a all stand for the same vowel sound, the one which occurs in sit. And in banana, bather, man, many the letter a stands

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for five different vowel sounds. In a book which is dealing with pronunciation this is inconvenient; it would be much more useful if the reader could always be certain that one letter represented one and only one sound, that when he saw a letter he would know at once how to pronounce it (or at least what to aim at!). That is why it is helpful to use letters in a consistent way when dealing with English. We have twenty-four consonants and twenty vowels to consider and we give to each of these forty-four units a letter (or sometimes two letters, if this is convenient). In that way we can show without any doubt what the student should be trying to say.

Here again are the words listed on pp. 6-7 and this time beside each word is the letter of the International Phonetic Alphabet which will always be used to represent the sound to which that word is the key, however it may be spelt in other words. Most of the letters will be perfectly familiar to you, others will seem strange for a little while; but not for long.

pier /pi	/ear /f/	rear /r/	cheer
		/tj/	
beer /b/	teer /v/	mere	jeer /dʒ/
		/m/	
tier /t/	sheer /ʃ/	near	
		/n/	
deer /d/	hear /h/	weir	
		/w/	
gear /g/	leer /l/		
base /s/ baize /z/ bathe /s/ beige	wrath /ɒ/ wrong	year /j/	
h/bake /k/	/q/		
feel /i:/	(ail /ei/	cat /æ/	tier /ia/
f /f/	foal /au/	cot /d/	tear /ea/

fell /e/	file /ai/	cut /a/	towr /ua/
fall /d:/	fowl /au/	curt /3:/	
full /u/foal /u:/	foil /a 1/	cart /a:/	banana /a/

The use of the colon (:) with the vowels /i:, a:, u:, a:, 3:/ is to show that they are in general longer than /i, u/ etc. They are also different in their actual sound, as the different letters indicate.

Here are some examples of words written in this way: city siti, busy bizi, women wimin, banana bana:na, bather beida, man maen, many mem, wrong mg, change tjeindj, house haus, thought fo:t, could kud, cough kof, rough rAf, though dau.

Letters and sounds

This way of writing or transcribing makes it possible to show that some words which are ordinarily spelt in the same way sound different; for example, lead, which is pronounced li :d in a phrase like lead the way, but led in lead pipe. It also makes clear that some words which are spelt differently sound the same, for example, rain, rein, reign, which are all pronounced rein.

1.6 Sounds and sound-groups

A sound is made by definite movements of the organs of speech, and if those movements are exactly repeated the result will always be the same sound; it is easy to show that there are more than forty-four sounds in English even in the pronunciation of a single person, without worrying about differences between people. For instance, if you say tea and two ti:, tu: you will notice that the lips are in a rather flat shape for ti: but are made rounder for tu:, and this is true for both the consonant /t/ and for the two vowels. So the organs of speech are not making exactly the same movements for the /t/ of tea and the /t/ of two, and therefore the resulting sounds are not exactly the same. You can prove this to yourself by only saying the consonant sounds of these words: think of the word tea and pronounce the beginning of it but not the vowel. Then do the same for two; think of the word but stop before the vowel: you can hear and feel that the two sounds are different. Obviously most of the movements we make when pronouncing these two sounds are the same, and they therefore sound alike, but not identical.

Take another example, /h/. When we pronounce the words he, hat, who hi:, hast, hu:, the /h/-sounds are different: in pronouncing /h/ we put our mouth into the position needed for the following vowel and then push out air through this position, but since the three different vowels have three different mouth-positions

it follows that the three /h/-sounds must also be different. You can prove this again, as with the /t/-sounds, by saying the beginnings of these words whilst only think-ing the rest.

Each of the letters we use to show pronunciation may stand for more than one sound; but each of the sounds represented by one letter has a great deal of similarity to the other sounds represented by the same letter; they have more similarities than differences: none of the /h/-sounds could be mistaken for an /l/- or an /s/-sound, and none of the /t/-sounds can be confused with a /p/- or a /k/-sound.

These groups of sounds, each represented by one letter of the

8

9

phonetic alphabet, are called phonemes, and the method of representing each phoneme by one symbol is called phonemic transcription. Phonemic transcription may be enclosed in diagonal lines / /. It is neces-

sary to distinguish carefully between phonemes and sounds: the 44 phonemes of English are the basic contrasts which make it possible for us to keep each word or longer utterance separate from every other, fill from fil and pia from bia, etc. But each phoneme may be represented by different sounds in different positions, so the different /t/-sounds in tea and two both represent the /t/ phoneme, and the three /h/-sounds in he, hat, who all represent the single /h/ phoneme.

This suggests two stages in the learning of pronunciation: the first is to be able to produce 44 vowels and consonants which are different, so that the words and longer utterances of English do not at any rate sound the same, so that fill and fil sound different. At this stage the learner will not worry about which of the possible /h/-sounds he is using; any of them will serve to distinguish heat hi:t from eat i:t. If the common feature of each phoneme is reproduced, all the necessary distinctions of words, etc., can be made. But obviously if the learner uses a particular sound in a word where an English speaker uses a different sound belonging to the same phoneme, the effect will be odd; he will not be misunderstood that could only happen if he used a sound belonging to a different phoneme but he will not be performing in an English way, and if this happens with many of the phonemes it will contribute to a foreign accent. So the second stage in learning pronunciation must be to learn to use as many different sounds as is necessary to represent a particular phoneme. In theory a single phoneme is represented by a different sound in every different position in which it occurs, but most of these differences will be made automatically by the learner without instruction. It is only in cases where this is unlikely to happen

that it will be necessary to worry about particular sounds within a phoneme.

There is one other relation between sound and phoneme which is likely to give trouble. Here is an example: in English /d/ and /t/ are different phonemes; in Spanish there are sounds which are similar to those used in English to represent these phonemes - we can write them /d/ and /t/; but in Spanish these two sounds belong to the same phoneme when the phoneme occurs between vowels it is represented by /t/, as in nada 'nothing', but when it occurs in initial position it is represented by /d/, as in dos 'two'. This will cause difficulty for the Spanish speaker because although he has more or less the same sounds as in English he is not able to use them independently, and whenever



Sounds and sound-groups

an English /d / occurs between vowels he will be in danger of using /9/,and confusing breeding briidig with breathing bri:3ig, and wheneverEnglish /3/ occurs in initial position he will be in danger of using /d/,confusing they dei and

day dei In general, if two sounds belong to one phoneme in your language, but to two different phonemes in English there will be danger of confusions until you have learnt to forget the habits of your language and use the sounds independently as in English. This can be done by careful listening and accurate use of the speech organs and a great deal of practice.

1*7 Words and utterances

Most of what I have said so far has been about the pronunciation of short pieces of speech, sounds or single words; it is necessary at first to be sure that the basic sounds of the language are being properly pronounced and the best way of doing that is to practise single words or very short phrases; but we do not talk in single words, and certainly not in single sounds. The sounds and words are connected together with others to make up longer utterances, and these longer utterances have special difficulties of their own.

First, they must be pronounced smoothly, without hesitations and without stumbling over the combinations of sounds. It may be quite easy to pronounce separately the words, library, been, lately, you, to, the, have, but it is much more difficult to pronounce the question Have you been to the library lately? without hesitating and without making mistakes.

Secondly, in a longer English utterance some of the words are treated as being more important to the meaning than others, and it is necessary to know which these words are and how they are treated in speech. And words which are not regarded as being particularly important often have a different pronunciation because of this; for example, the word can which is pronounced kaen if it is said by itself, is often pronounced ksn in phrases like You can have it ju: kan haev it.

Thirdly, the rhythm of English must be mastered. That is, the different lengths which the syllables of English are given and the reasons why these different lengths occur. An example of this would be the following:

The chair collapsed.

The chairman collapsed.

The word chair has the same length as the word chairman, and therefore

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Problems in pronunciation

each of the two syllables in chairman is shorter than the single syllable of chair, so that the chair of chairman is only half as long as the word chair by itself.

Fourthly, and last, the tune of the voice, the melody of speech is different in different languages and it is necessary to learn something of the English way of using tune. For example, when we say thank you, the voice may go from a higher note to a lower one, or it may go from a lower note to a higher one and these two

different tunes show two different attitudes: higher to lower means sincere gratitude; lower to higher means that the matter is purely routine. To confuse the two would clearly be dangerous and it is necessary to learn what tunes there are in English and what they mean.

All these matters will be dealt with in the chapters which follow, and exercises will be given to help the reader to improve his performance at each stage. But the first important thing is to be sure that the basic sound-distinctions are right and this requires knowledge of the working of the speech organs; this is the subject of the second chapter.

1,8 Exercises

(Answers on p 134)

1 How many phonemes are there in the following words (the lists on p. 8 will help you here): write, through, measure, six, half, where, one, first, voice, castle, scissors, should, judge, father, lamb?

2 Bear and bare are spelt differently but pronounced the same, bear. Make a list of other words which are spelt differently but pronounced in the same way.

3 Write the words in Exercise 1 above in phonemic transcription, and then memorize the forty-four symbols needed to transcribe English phonemically so that you can do it without looking at the lists. Now transcribe the following words phonemically: mat, met, meet, mate, might, cot, cut, caught, lick, look, bird, board, load, loud, boys, bars, bears, sheer, sure, copper, green, charge, song, five, with, truth, yellow, pleasure, hallo.

4 Try to make lists like those on p. 8 for your language, and see how many phonemes it uses. For some languages this will be quite easy, for some it will be difficult; if you have difficulty in finding words which are different only in one phoneme, find words which are dissimilar as you can. An English example of this kind is getting, cutting (which shows that /g, k/ and /e, a/ are different phonemes). What phonemes does the pair mother, father separate?

2 How the speech organs work in English

In all languages we speak with air from the lungs. We draw it into the lungs quickly and we release it slowly and then interfere with its passage in various ways and at various places. Figure 1 is a diagram showing a side view of the parts of the throat and mouth and nose which are important to recognize for English.

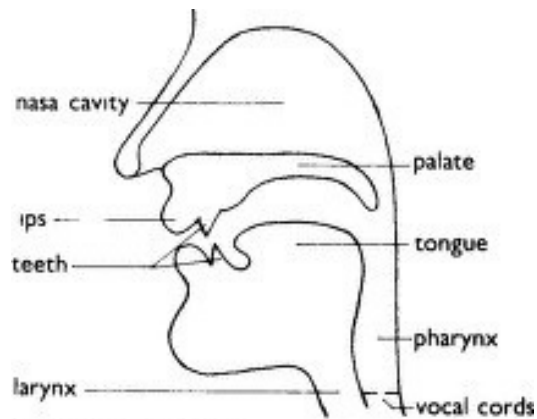


Fig. 1 The speech organs

2.1 The vocal cords

The air released by the lungs comes up through the wind-pipe and arrives first at the larynx. The larynx contains two small bands of elastic tissue, which can be thought of as two flat strips of rubber, lying opposite each other across the air passage. These are the vocal cords.

The inner edges of the vocal cords can be moved towards each other so that they meet and completely cover the top of the wind-pipe, or they can be drawn apart so that there is a gap between them (known as the glottis) through which the air can pass freely: this is their usual position when we breathe quietly in and out.

When the vocal cords are brought together tightly no air can pass

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through them and if the lungs are pushing air from below this air is compressed. If the vocal cords are then opened suddenly the compressed air bursts out with a sort of coughing noise. Try this: open your mouth wide, hold your breath, imagine that you are picking up a heavy weight, holding it for two seconds, then dropping it and suddenly let your breath out. This holding back of the compressed air followed by a sudden release is called the glottal stop, and what you feel as the air bursts out is the vocal cords springing apart. Do this ten times, and get used to the feeling of the 'click' of the vocal cords as they release the air. The compression of the air may be very great, as when we do lift a heavy weight, or it may be quite slight, when the result is like a very gentle cough.

open closed

Fig. 2 The vocal cords

If the vocal cords are brought together quite gently, the air from the lungs will be able to force them apart for a moment, but then they will return to the closed position; then the air will force them apart again, and they will close again, and so on. This is a very rapid process and may take place as many as 800 times per second. It is obviously not possible to hear each individual 'click' of the opening

vocal cords, and what we do hear is a musical note. The height of the note depends on the speed of opening and closing of the vocal cords; if they open and close very quickly the note will be high, if they open and close slowly the note will be low. The note, whether high or low, produced by this rapid opening and closing of the vocal cords is called voice.

Some of the English sounds have voice and some do not. Say a long /m/-sound and put your fingers on your neck by the side of the larynx. You will feel the vibration of the vocal cords. Now keep your lips closed still, but just breathe hard through your nose: no vibration. Repeat this several times, first /m/ then breathe through the nose, and get used to the feeling of voice and no voice. Now say the word moretid:, still with your fingers on your neck. Does the vowel /d:/ have voice? Can you still feel the same vibration for jo:/ as for /m/? Yes, both sounds are voiced. Say a long /s/-sound. Is it voiced? No, it has no vibrations. Try other sounds of your own language and English and see which of them are voiced and which not.



The vocal cords

The sounds which are not voiced voiceless sounds - are made with the vocal cords drawn apart so that the air can pass out freely between them and there is no vibration. The difference between voiced and voiceless can be used to distinguish

between what are otherwise similar sounds. Say a long /s/-sound again, and in the middle of it turn the voice on: this will give you a /z/-sound, buzzing rather than hissing.

But not all the voiced sounds of English have similar voiceless sounds, for example the voiceless /m/-sound which you made just now does not occur in English, and even when there are pairs of similar sounds which are voiced and voiceless this may not be the only difference between them, as we shall see later.

Immediately above the larynx is a space behind the tongue and reaching up towards the nasal cavity: this space is called the pharynx/ˈfærɪŋks/.

2.2 The palate

The palate, as Figure 1 shows, forms the roof of the mouth and separates the mouth cavity from the nose (or nasal) cavity. Make the tip of your tongue touch as much of your own palate as you can: most of it is hard and fixed in position, but when your tongue-tip is as far back as it will go, away from your teeth, you will notice that the palate becomes soft. Figure 3 is a more detailed view of the palate.

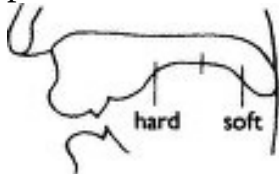


Fig. 3 The soft and hard parts of the palate

You can easily see the soft part of the palate if you use a mirror: turn your back to the light, open your mouth wide and say the vowel /a:/, and move the mirror so that the light shines into your mouth. You will be able to see the soft palate curving down towards the tongue and becoming narrower as it does so until it ends in a point called the uvula/ˈjuːvʊlə/. Behind the soft palate you will be able to see part of the back wall of the pharynx. The soft palate can move: it can be raised so that it makes a firm contact with the back wall of the pharynx (as in Figure 3), and this stops the breath from going up into the nasal cavity and forces

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it to go into the mouth only. You can see this raising of the soft palate in your mirror if you keep your mouth wide open in position for the vowel /a:/ and push out your breath very fast, as if you were trying to blow out a match, still with your mouth open wide. You will see the soft palate move quickly upwards so that the breath all comes out of the mouth and none of it goes up into the nasal cavity. And when you relax after this the soft palate will come down again into its lowered position, shown in Figure 4.

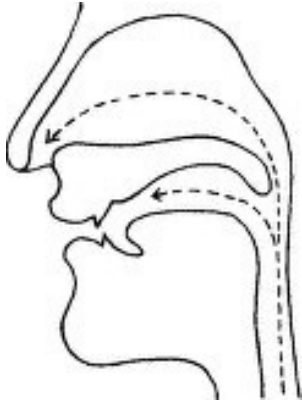


Fig. 4 The soft palate lowered

In this lowered position, the soft palate allows the breath to pass behind itself and up into the nasal cavity and out through the nose, as the dotted line shows. This is the normal position of the soft palate when we are not speaking but breathing quietly through the nose, with our mouth closed. It is also the position for the /m/-, /n/- and /ŋ/-sounds; say a long /m/-sound and nip your nose; this will stop the breath moving, and when you release it, the breath will continue out in a normal /m/-sound. Keep your lips closed and blow breath (without voice) hard through your nose, then draw it in again sharply: this will give you the feeling of breath moving in and out behind the soft palate.

Now say a /p/ but don't open your lips, just hold the breath behind the lips: there is no sound at all; keep your lips firmly closed still and send all the breath sharply out of the nose. Do this several times without opening your lips at all. What you feel at the back of your mouth is the soft palate going up and down; it is raised whilst you hold the /p/ and lowered suddenly when you let the air rush out through your nose.



2.3

2.4

The palate

For most of the sounds of all languages the soft palate is raised, so that the air is forced to go out through the mouth only.

Apart from this important raising and lowering of the soft palate, the whole of

the palate, including the soft palate, is used by the tongue to interfere with the air stream. Say the vowel /a:/ again and watch the tongue in your mirror: it is flat in the mouth. Now add a /k/ after the /a:/ and you will see the back part of your tongue rise up and touch the soft palate so that the breath is completely stopped; then when you lower your tongue the breath rushes out again.



alveolar ridge hard soft palate

Fig. 3 The parts of the palate

The hard, fixed part of the palate is divided into two sections, shown in Figure 5, the alveolar ridge /alveolar ridge/ and the hard palate. The alveolar ridge is that part of the gums immediately behind the upper front teeth, and the hard palate is the highest part of the palate, between the alveolar ridge and the beginning of the soft palate. You can touch the whole of the alveolar ridge and the hard palate with your tongue-tip. The alveolar ridge is especially important in English because many of the consonant sounds like /t d n l r s z ʃ ʒ tʃ dʒ/ are made with the tongue touching or close to the alveolar ridge.

Finally the palate curves downwards towards the teeth at each side.

The teeth

The lower front teeth are not important in speech except that if they are missing certain sounds, e.g. /s/ and /z/, will be difficult to make. But the two upper front teeth are used in English to some extent. Put the tip of your tongue very close to the edge of these teeth and blow: this will produce a sound like the English /θ/ in thin; if you turn on the voice during this /θ/-sound you will get a sound like the English /ð/ in this.

The tongue

The tongue is the most important of the organs of speech because it

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has the greatest variety of movement. Although the tongue has no obvious natural divisions like the palate, it is useful to think of it as divided into four parts, as shown in Figure 6.

blade front back

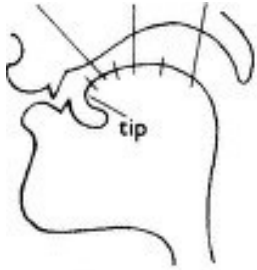


Fig. 6 The parts of the tongue

The back of the tongue lies under the soft palate when the tongue is at rest; the front lies under the hard palate, the tip and the blade lie under the alveolar ridge, the tip being the most forward part of all and the blade between the tip and the front. The tip and blade are particularly mobile and, as we have seen, they can touch the whole of the lips, the teeth, the alveolar ridge and the hard palate. The front can be flat on the bottom of the mouth or it can be raised to touch the hard palate, or it can be raised to any extent between these two extremes. Say the vowel /a:/ again and look into your mirror: the front is flat on the bottom of the mouth; now say /ɜ:/ as in cat: the front rises a little; now say /e/ as in met (still keep your mouth as wide open as you can): the front rises again; and if you go on to say /i:/ as in see you will see that the front rises to a very high position, so high that it is hidden behind the teeth. These positions are shown in Figure 7. For /i:/ the front of

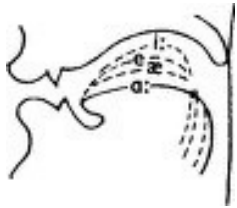


Fig. 7 Tongue positions for /i:/, e, ae, a:/

the tongue comes very close to the hard palate. Put your mouth in this position, for /i:/, and draw air inwards quickly; you will feel cold air on the front of the tongue and on the hard palate just above it.



The tongue

The back of the tongue too can be flat in the mouth, or it can be raised to touch the soft palate, or it can be raised to any position between these two extremes. Say /a:k/ again, as you did earlier, and hold the /k/-sound with your

mouth wide open. You will see in your mirror that the back of the tongue rises from a very flat position for /a:/ to a position actually touching the soft palate for the /k/. Figure 8 shows these two extreme positions. The back of the tongue is in various positions between these two extremes for the vowels /d, d:, u, u:/ in pot, fought, put, boot; say them in that order and feel the back of the tongue rise gradually towards the soft palate: you will not be able to

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BRITISH CCH'NCft,MOSCOW

Fig. 8 Tongue positions for /a:, k /

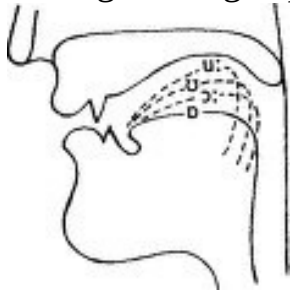
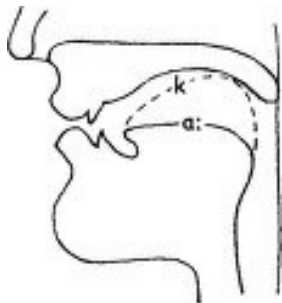


Fig. 9 Tongue positions for /u:, U, DI, D /

see the movement in the mirror because the lips will be in the way, but the position of the back of the tongue for each of these vowels is shown in Figure 9. In /u:/ the back of the tongue is very close to the soft palate; put your mouth in position for /u:/ and draw air inwards quickly: you will feel cold air on the back of the tongue and the soft palate. Now do the same for /i:/ again and feel the difference when the front of the tongue is raised. Go from the /i:/ position to the /u:/ position several

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The speech organs

times whilst drawing breath inwards, and get used to this difference between a high front and a high back position.

The tongue can also change its shape in another way. Say the sound /s/, keep

your mouth in the /s/ position and draw breath inwards; you will feel cold air passing through a narrow passage between the blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge, but no cold air at the sides of the tongue. Now say an /l/-sound and draw air inwards. This time you will feel cold air passing between the sides of the tongue and the sides of the palate, but not down the centre of the tongue. This is because for /s/ the sides of the tongue are pressed firmly against the sides of the palate, so that the breath is forced to pass down the narrow central passage between the blade of the tongue and the alveolar ridge. In /l/ the centre of the mouth is blocked by the tip and blade of the tongue pressed firmly against the alveolar ridge and the air passes instead between the sides of the tongue and the sides of the palate. So the sides of the tongue may be either curved upwards to meet the sides of the palate or left flat so that they do not touch the sides of the palate. Open your mouth wide, use your mirror and try to make your tongue take up a flat shape, as in Figure 10, and then a curved shape, with the sides raised but the centre line lower, as in Figure 11. This last position is very important

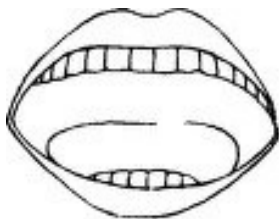


Fig. 10 Front view of flat tongue



Fig. 11 Front view of grooved tongue

for English because many of the consonant sounds are pronounced with the sides of the tongue curved up in this way to meet the sides of the palate.



2.5

The lips

The lips

It is obvious that the lips can take up various different positions. They can be brought firmly together as in /p/ or /b/ or /m/ so that they completely block the

mouth; the lower lip can be drawn inward and slightly upwards to touch the upper front teeth as in the sounds /f/ and /v/. And they can be kept apart either flat or with different amounts of rounding, and they can be pushed forward to a greater or lesser extent.

Of course, the closed position for /p, b, m/ and the lip-teeth position for /f/ and /v/ are used in English, but apart from this the English do not move their lips with very much energy: their lips are never very far apart, they do not take up very rounded shapes, they are rarely spread very much and almost never pushed forward or protruded. Watch English people talk either in real life or on films and notice how little the lips and the lower jaw move; some people make more lip-movement than others, but it is never necessary to exaggerate these movements. Watch people talking your language too, and see whether they move their lips more than the English. If so, you must remember when talking English to use your lips less than you do in your own language. The same is true for movements of the jaw: in normal speech there is rarely more than half an inch between the lips or a quarter of an inch between the teeth even when the mouth is at its widest open. No wonder English can be spoken quite easily whilst holding a pipe between the teeth!

In the chapters which follow we shall see how the movements of the organs of speech combine together in forming the sounds of English. You should study the descriptions of the movements very carefully, because what seems a quite small difference may in fact be very important in producing and recognizing an English sound correctly, and the difference between an English sound and one in your language may seem quite small when it is described, but the small difference in the movement of the speech organs may make all the difference between a result which sounds English and one which does not.

Suppose, for example, that in your language you have a /t/-sound which is made by touching the upper front teeth with the tip of your tongue: this is quite often the case. The difference between this /t/ and the /t/-sound of English is that the English /t/ is generally made with the tip of the tongue touching the alveolar ridge just behind the teeth. This may not seem much of a difference to you, but a /t/ which is made on the teeth sounds foreign to an English ear, and although it will be recognized as /t/, it will not sound correct in English.

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Exercises

The speech organs

When you study the movements of the speech organs for a certain sound of English, try to compare them with the movements for a similar sound in your language. Try to become conscious of what your speech organs are doing. The

exercises which follow will help you to do this.

2.6 Exercises

(Answers, where appropriate, on p. 134)

1 Copy Figures 1, 3 and 6. Label all the different parts of the speech organs. Do this several times, until you can do it without looking at the book.

2 Three different actions take place in the larynx. What are they?

3 Which sounds in your language are voiced, and which are voiceless? Which of these sounds are similar except for a difference of voicing, like /s/ and /z/ in English?

4 Can you sing a voiceless sound? And if not, why not?

5 How does the soft palate affect the direction of the air stream?

6 What sounds in your language are made with the soft palate lowered?

7 Make a /p/-sound and hold it with the lips closed; then, still keeping the lips closed, let the air burst out through the nose. Do the same with /t/ and /k/. Do the same with /b, d/, and /g/ and let voiced air burst out through the nose.

8 Say several /k/-sounds quickly one after the other, /k-k-k-k-k/, and feel the back of the tongue touching and leaving the soft palate.

Do the same with /t/ — first with the tongue touching the alveolar ridge; then with the tongue-tip touching the upper front teeth.

Can you do the same thing with the tongue-tip touching the centre of the hard palate?

9 Make the vowels /i:, ɪ, e, æ/ and feel how the front of the tongue is lowered each time and the jaw opens gradually. Do the same with /u:, u, ʊ, a:/ and feel how the back of the tongue is lowered.

10 What does the tongue do in making the sounds /ai, di, au/?

11 Make the flat and curved shapes of the tongue shown in Figures 10 and 11. Use your mirror.

12 Make a /t/-sound and hold it with the tongue-tip in contact with the alveolar ridge. Now gently bring the teeth together. What happens to the sides of the tongue and why?

13 Put your mouth in an /i:/ position and draw breath in and out. Feel



it on the sides of the tongue. Do the same with /s/ and feel it on the centre of the tongue. Alternate the /s/ and /l/ positions and feel the sides of the tongue rise and lower as you go from one to the other.

Friction consonants

3 The consonants of English

There are two good reasons for beginning with consonants rather than vowels. First, consonants contribute more to making English understood than vowels do. Second, consonants are generally made by a definite interference of the vocal organs with the air stream, and so are easier to describe and understand.

The sentence 'C—Id y— p—ss m— - p—c— -f str ng, pi—s-' is easy for an English reader to understand even though all of the vowel letters have been left out. Similarly, if in actual speaking we could leave out all the vowel sounds and pronounce only the consonants most English would still be fairly easy to understand. But look at the same sentence

with all the consonant letters left out: -ou—ou -a—e a ie-e o i—, —ea-e.' It is impossible to make any sense out of it, and the same would be true in speaking, because the consonants form the bones, the skeleton of English words and give them their basic shape.

Native speakers of English from different parts of the world have different accents, but the differences of accent are mainly the result of differences in the sound of the vowels; the consonants are pronounced in very much the same way wherever English is spoken. So if the vowels you use are imperfect it will not prevent you from being understood, but if the consonants are imperfect there will be a great risk of misunderstanding.

In dealing with the consonants you must first learn how each one is mainly distinguished from the others, the features which it must have so that it will not be mistaken for any other consonant. Then later you will learn about any special sounds of that phoneme which need small changes in their formation in different circumstances, changes which are not essential if you simply want to be understood, but which will make your English sound better.

3.1 Friction consonants

There are nine consonant phonemes whose main sounds all have friction as their most important feature. They are /f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h/.

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For all of them the lungs push air through a narrow opening where it causes friction of various kinds.

/f/ and /v/

For both /f/ and /v/ the speech organs are in the position shown in Figure 12.

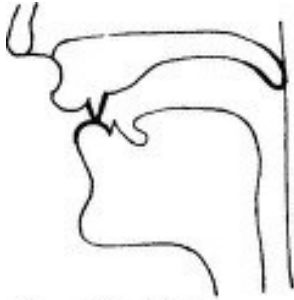


Fig. 12 /f/ and /v/

NOTICE .

1 The soft palate is raised so that no air goes through the nose and it is all forced through the mouth.

2 The bottom lip is very close to the upper front teeth: this forms the narrowing and when air is pushed through this narrowing it causes slight friction. .

3 The tongue is not directly concerned in making these sounds, but it does not lie idle; it takes up the position necessary for the following sound, so in *fi:* it will be in the /i/ position whilst /f/ is being pronounced, and in *fri:* it will be in the /r/ position, and so on.

The difference between /f/ and /v/ is mainly one of strength: /f/ is a strong consonant, /v/ is a weak one. Also /f/ is never voiced, but /v/ may be. And /f/ is rather longer than /v/.

So /f/ is a strong, voiceless, long consonant, /v/ is a weak, perhaps voiced, short consonant.

Put your lower lip and upper teeth close together and blow breath between them quite strongly: continue the sound and listen to the friction it is not very noisy but can be heard quite easily. Now blow the breath through very gently; the friction is much less and must always be much less for /v/ than for /f/. Alternate this strong and weak

feri ferry veri very faet fat vaet vat
 fasn fan vaen van fell fail veil veil

Now try these sounds between vowels. In this position the /v/ will be voiced in English, but the important thing for you is to make it short and weak: if you do this the voicing can take care of itself. (If your language has voiced /v/ anyway, this is fine.) Take special care in this position that the /v/ has some friction, though not too much, and that the friction is caused by lip-teeth action and not by the two lips. Use your mirror to make sure that the upper lip is well clear of the lower one.



SAfa	suffer	kAva	cover
defa	deaf	neva	never
snifii]	sniffing	gwig	giving
pruifiQ proofing	pruivirj proving		
rAfo	rougher	Uva	lover
saufa	sofa	auva	over
seifa	safer	seiva	savour
Dfa	offer	hDva	hover
difaid	defied	divaid	divide
rifjuiz	refuse	rivjuiz	reviews

In phrases we do exactly the same, long strong friction for /f/ and short weak friction for /v/. Try these:

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Friction consonants

verifaist very fast veri vaist very vast

ai fill fain I feel fine ai fi:I vaiI I feel vile

fai n f3: z fine furs fai n V3 is fine verse

faifaenz four fans faivaenz four vans

agudfju: a good few agudvju: a good view

When /f/ and /v/ occur at the end of words, after a vowel, they have an effect on the length of the vowel. The strong consonant /f/ makes the vowel shorter, the weak consonant /v/ makes the vowel longer. This is an important general rule which applies to many other pairs of con-sonants as well: strong consonants at the end of words shorten the preceding vowel, weak consonants lengthen it. In the words safe seif and save seiv, the /f/ and the /v/ have the same features as before: /f/ is stronger and longer, /v/ is weaker and shorter, very short indeed in this position, but the vowels are of very different lengths; in seif the /ei / is quite short and in seiv it is really long.

Say these words, seif and seiv, and be particularly careful to lengthen out the vowel in seiv, drawl it, drag it out, and then add a very short weak /v/ friction at the very end. Don't shorten the /ei/ in seif too much, but do be sure that the /ei/ in seiv is very much longer. Now do the same with the following words:

li if leaf liiv leave laif life laiv live
half half haiv halve straif strife straw strive
kaif calf kaiv carve reif Ralph reiv rave
pruif proof pruib prove weif waif weiv wave
S3 if surf S3 :v serve seif safe sew save



These words all contain vowel phonemes which are naturally long, that is to say longer than the vowels /i e ae d u a/ in similar positions. The short vowels behave like the long ones when followed by /f/ or /v/, that is, they are shortest when followed by strong /f/ and rather longer when followed by weak /v/, although they are never so long as the long vowels when these are followed by the weak consonant.

Try this with the words below: before /f/ make the vowel quite short, and before /v/ make it a little longer, about as long as the long vowels before /f/. And still make /f/ longer and stronger, and /v/ very short and weak in friction.

stif stiff siv sieve Df off dv of
klif cliff liv live rAf rough dAV dove
smf sniff giv give bUf bluff Iav love
gaef gaffe haev have fUf fluff gUv glove
27

Now look at the phrases below, and decide which of the vowels have to be longer and which shorter. Remember that there are three lengths: (1) short vowels (/i e ae d u a/) before the strong consonant, e.g. stif, (2) short vowels before the weak consonant, and long vowels before the strong consonant, e.g. gUv and weif, (3) long vowels before the weak consonant, e.g. seiv. Now say them with good vowel length and good difference between /f/ and /v/.

L^J 9 half smf a half sniff a breiv bUf a brave bluff
astifgUv a stiff glove alaivdAV a live dove
0 briif Iav a brief love a seif muiv a safe move
0 rAf greiv a rough grave a greiv griif a grave grief
0 dwDif st0uv a dwarf stove a klif draiv a cliff drive

Some of the most common English words which contain /f/ are: family, far, fat, father, feel, few, fried, first, for, four. Jive, from, friend, front, before, after, afraid, different, difficult, left, office, perfect, prefer, suffer, awful, often, half, off, knife, life, laugh, self, wife, safe, cough, rough, stiff.

Some of the most common English words which contain /v/ are: very, valve, visit, voice, value, violent, vast, van, view, ever, never, over, river, seven, several, travel, even, every, heavy, live, of give, love, move, prove, receive, believe, save, serve, twelve, wave, five, have.

Sometimes when you are listening to English, listen especially for these words (and others containing /f/ and /v/) and try to fix the sound in your mind.

/θ/ and /ð/

/θ/ and /ð/ are also friction sounds, /θ/ is strong and /ð/ is weak. Both have the position of the speech organs shown in Figure 13.

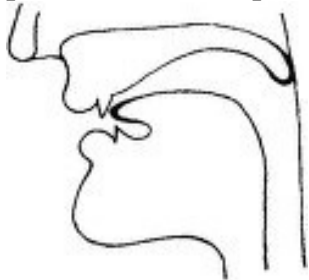


Fig. 13 /θ/ and /ð/

28

Friction consonants

NOTICE

1 The soft palate is raised so that all the breath is forced to go through the mouth.

2 The tip of the tongue is close to the upper front teeth: this is the narrowing where the friction is made.

3 The noise made by the friction for /θ/ and /ð/ is not very great, much less than for /s/ and /z/.

Put the tip of your tongue close to the cutting-edge of your upper front teeth. In a mirror you will be able to see the tip. Blow air through this position so that you get some friction, but not too much, not so much as for /s/. Continue the sound and listen to it. /θ/ should make the same amount of noise as /f/, not more. Try /f/ and /θ/ alternately until you get the friction right for /θ/. Now make less friction for /ð/ by pushing the air more gently. The friction for /ð/ when it is properly made can only just be heard. Now alternate the stronger /θ/ and the weaker /ð/ not too much friction in /θ/ and even less in /ð/.

All that I said about strong and weak consonants on p. 25 is true for /θ/ and /ð/. /θ/ is stronger and longer and always voiceless, /ð/ is weaker and shorter and may be voiced. Confusing /θ/ and /ð/ will scarcely ever lead to misunderstanding because they rarely occur in words which are otherwise similar, but if you do not make the difference properly it will be noticeable.

Try the words given below, and be sure (1) that the air passes between the tongue tip and the teeth, and (2) that the friction is never too strong.

θin thin den then θaerjk thank daet that

θi 13k think dis this θa:t thought dθuz those

θi:f thief diiz these

Some people may confuse /θ/ with /f/ and /d/ with /v/; this is not very important for understanding, since some English speakers do the same, but you should try not to make these confusions because they will be

noticeable. Say these words, and be using a lip-teeth	sure that for /f/; action, and for /θ/ and /d/ a tongue-	and /v/ you are -teeth action.
fin fin	θi n thin	faɪt θɒt it thought
fri: free	θri: three	frɪl frɪl θrɪl thrill
hɪst first	θɜ:st thirst	faɪti θɜ:ti forty thirty
daet that	vast vat	den then vent vent
dei they	veɪn vain	deθ there vi:ə veer
diiz these	vi:l veal	dau vault
		θəʊgh vɒt vote

Now look at the phrases below, and decide which of the vowels have to be longer and which shorter. Remember that there are three lengths: (1) short vowels (like *bit* or *up*) before the strong consonant, e.g. *it* or *up*; (2) short vowels before the weak consonant, and long vowels before the strong consonant, e.g. *play* and *wait*; (3) long vowels before the weak consonant, e.g. *over*. Now say them with good vowel length and good difference between /f/ and /v/.

• bu:faɪnəl	• a:hoʊl saɪf	• kri:z blɛf	• a leɪv blɛf
• a rɒf glɔ:v	• aɪz θlɔ:v	• laɪz ðɔ:v	• lɪv ðɔ:v
• bi: dɪlɪv	• a baɪf sɔ:v	• sɛf mɔ:v	• a sɒf mɔ:v
• rɔ: grɛs	• a rɒf ɡrɛs	• grɛɪ grɛ:f	• a grɛɪ grɛ:f
• θwɜ:f tɔ:v	• a dɪv tɔ:v	• blɛθ grɔ:v	• a dɪθ grɔ:v

Some of the most common English words which contain /f/ are: *locality, far, fat, father, feel, few, final, fan, far, fine, few, firm, final, front, before, after, afraid, different, financial, left, offer, perfect, prefer, suffer, useful, open, half, off, laugh, life, laugh, self, wife, wife, cough, rough, staff*.
Some of the most common English words which contain /v/ are: *very, move, visit, voice, advice, violent, vast, van, vice, even, never, over, river, across, account, travel, even, every, heavy, live, of, give, him, move, please, matter, believe, save, serve, twelve, more, for, have*.
Sometimes when you are learning to English, listen especially for these words (and others containing /f/ and /v/) and try to fix the sounds in your mind.

/f/ and /v/

/f/ and /v/ are also fricative sounds. /f/ is strong and /v/ is weak. Both have the position of the speech organs shown in Figure 13.

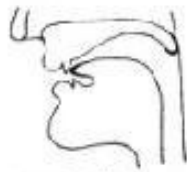


Fig. 13 /f/ and /v/

NOTICE

- 1 The soft palate is raised so that all the breath is forced to go through the mouth.
- 2 The tip of the tongue is close to the upper front teeth (this is the narrowing where the friction is made).
- 3 The noise made by the friction for /f/ and /v/ is not very great, much less than for /θ/ and /ð/.

Put the tip of your tongue close to the cutting-edge of your upper front teeth. In a mirror you will be able to see this up. Blow air through this position so that you get some friction, but not too much, not so much as for /θ/. Consider the sound and listen to it. /θ/ should make the same amount of noise as /f/, not more. Try /f/ and /θ/ alternately until you get the friction right for /θ/. /v/ makes less friction for /v/ by passing the air more gently. The friction for /θ/ when it is properly made can only just be heard. Now increase the strength: /θ/ and the weaker /f/ - not too much friction is /θ/ and even less is /f/.

All that I said about strong and weak consonants on p. 25 is true for /f/ and /v/. /θ/ is stronger and longer and always voiced. /f/ is weaker and shorter and may be voiceless. Confusing /f/ and /v/ will scarcely ever lead to misunderstanding because they usually occur in words which are otherwise similar, but if you do not make the difference proper you will be noticeable.

Try the words given below, and be sure (1) that the air passes between the tongue tip and the teeth, and (2) that the friction is never too strong.

θm this	θm then	θɜ:k θanc	θæt θat
θɜ:k θink	θɜ:k θis	θɜ:θ θrough	θɔ:v θose
θɪθ θief	θɜ:v θese		

Some people may confuse /f/ with /θ/ and /v/ with /f/. This is not very important for understanding, since some English speakers do the same, but you should try not to make these confusions because they will be noticeable. Say these words, and be sure that for /f/ and /v/ you are using a lip-teeth action, and for /θ/ and /ð/ a tongue-teeth action.

fɪn fɪn	θɪn θin	fɪt fɔ:θt	θɪt θought
fri: frie	θri: θree	fri: fri:l	θri: θrɪl
fɜ:z fɜ:z	θɜ:z θions	fɜ:z fɜ:ri	θɜ:z θurs
θæt θat	θæt θat	θæt θen	θæt θent
θe: θey	θe: θey	θe: θere	θe: θere
θiz θese	θɪl θel	θu: θough	θæt θote

Between vowels /d/ is voiced, but the important thing for you is to make it very short and weak, and let the voicing take care of itself. /θ/ is always voiceless. Say these words:

- D:0a author ada other ma:0a Martha riAda mother
 a:0a Arthur ra:da rather nA0ig nothing brAda brother
 3i0i earthy W3idi worthy b3:0a Bertha f3ida further
 Now try to keep /f, v, θ, d/ separate in this position.
 L«J D:0a author Dfa offer a :0a Arthur tAfa tougher
 nA0iQ nothing pAfig puffing tu:0i toothy ru:fig roofing
 brAda brother lAva luvcr leda leather neva never
 faida father kaiva carver hiidan heathen i:van even

At the end of words /θ/ and /d/ affect a preceding vowel in the same way as /f/ and /v/. Try with some long vowels, and make the vowels specially long before /d/.

- LzJ grao0 growth laud loathe
 tu:0 tooth smu:d smooth
 bau0 both klaud clothe
 ri:0 wreath bri:d breathe

fei0 faith beid bathe

mau0 mouth (n.) maud mouth (vb.)

The only word in which /d/ occurs finally after a short vowel is /wid/with, but try keeping the vowel at its shortest in the following:

L^J mo0 moth mi0 myth bre0 breath

de0 death rD0 wrath

Some of the most common English words which contain /θ/ are:thank, thick, thin, thing, thirsty, thousand, f/iree, through, throw, Thursday,thought, thirty, healthy, wealthy, something, anything, bath, breath,

cloth, earth, fourth, etc.,faith, health, month, north, south, path, worth,death.

Some of the most common English words which contain /d/ (and some of these are amongst the commonest in the language) are: t/ie,this, that, these, those, there, their, then, they, them, though, than, other,mother, father, brother, either, neither, further, clothes, leather, together,weather, whether, breathe, with, smooth.

Sometimes when you listen to English listen specially for these

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Friction consonants

words (and others containing /θ/ and /d/) and try to fix the sounds in your mind.

On p. 33 you will find more about /θ/ and /d/ when they are close to /s/ and /z/.

/θ/ and /z/

/s/ is a strong friction sound and /z/ is a weak one. The position of the speech organs for these sounds is shown in Figure 14.

NOTICE

1 The soft palate is raised so that all the breath is forced to go through the mouth.

2 The tip and blade of the tongue are very close to the alveolar ridge. There is a very considerable narrowing at this point, not near the teeth and not near the hard palate.

3 The teeth are very close together.

4 The friction for these sounds, especially for /s/, is much greater than for /f, v, θ/ and /d/.

There will be a sound similar to /s/ in your language: make this sound, then keep your mouth in that position and draw air inwards; make small changes in the position of the tip and blade of the tongue until you can feel that the cold air is hitting the tongue at the very centre of the alveolar ridge, not further forward and not further back, /z/ is the weak sound, so when you are satisfied with the

strong friction for /s/, push air through more slowly so that the friction is weaker. Alternate strong and weak friction.

Once again, as for the other consonants, the strong one, /s/, is longer and always voiceless, the weak one, /z/, is quite short and may be voiced, but again the gentleness of /z/ is the thing to concentrate on.

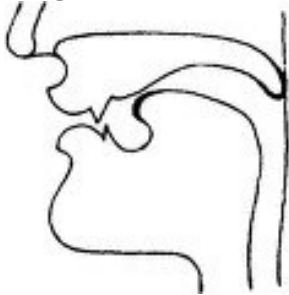


Fig. 14 j si and /z/

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/z/ is not a common sound at the beginning of words, so confusing /s/ and /z/ in initial position will not generally lead to misunderstanding; but English speakers do distinguish them, so you should try to do so too. Try the following words:

siQk sink ziqk zinc su: Sue zu: zoo

sed said zed Zed sill seal zi:l zeal

SDin sawn zaun zone sist cyst zest zest



Between vowels /z/ is voiced, and if you voice this sound naturally in that position that is good; if not, the sound should be made very gently and very short, /s/ is always voiceless. Try these words:

luiss looser lu:za loser ksiss coarser kDiza causer

leisi lacy leizi lazy fAsi fussy fAzi fuzzy

bASiz buses bAZiz buzzes reisig racing reizii] raisifig



At the end of words, after a vowel, /s / makes the vowel rather shorter and /z/ makes it longer, as with /f, v, θ, d/, and in this position /z/ is particularly short and gentle just the faintest touch of a /z/ is sufficient, but the vowel must be good and long. Try the words below and make both the difference of vowel length and of consonant strength:

pleis place pleiz plays ni:s niece ni:z knees

kDis coarse kDiz cause prais price praiz prize

1 u :s loose u:z lose h3is hearse h3iz hers

And now some more with short vowels:

bAS bus bAZ buzz his hiss hiz his

aes ass aez as

For the speakers of many languages (e.g. French, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, etc.) there are not separate phonemes /θ/ and /s/ but only one which is usually more like the English /s/. So there is a danger that /s/ will be used instead of /θ/. The difference between them is that /s/ is made with the tip and blade of the tongue close to the centre of the alveolar ridge and makes a strong friction, whereas /θ/ is made with the tongue tip near the upper teeth and makes much less friction.

Distinguish carefully between all these pairs:

sin sin θin thin SDit sort θo:t thought

sir) sing θnj thing SAm sum θaitj thumb

sirjk sink θir)k think sai sigh θai thigh

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Friction consonants

Now do them again, and be absolutely certain that you do not replace /s/ by /θ/: there is always a danger of replacing the more familiar with the less familiar sound, as well as the reverse. ,1

Now try them at the end of words (the vowel length is the same all the time because both are strong consonants and shorten the vowel), but /s/ must still make much more noise than /θ/.

maus mouse mos moss fo:s force

mauθ mouth moθ moth fo:θ fourth

feis face pa:s pass W3is worse

feiθ faith pa:θ path W3Iθ worth

Repeat this exercise and be sure again that you are not replacing /s/ by

^The same difficulty applies to /z/ and /ʒ/. Both are weak sounds but /z/ makes more noise than /ʒ/. Try these words.

zu: zoo thoufh

bri:z breeze bri:ʒ breathe

raiz rise raiʒ writhe

ti:ziQ teasing ti:ʒii] teething

zoo

breeze

tiiziQ teasing griizan reasoned Zed

klauz closeleiz lays

klauziQ closingmaiza miser
hiidan heathenden then
klaud clotheleid lathe
klsudig clothingnaida neither

Go through these words again and be sure that you are not replacing /a/ by /z/ or /z/ by /fl/.

Those people who speak languages where /©/ and /s/ are not separate phonemes usually have a special difficulty when /s/ and /A/ occur close together in words like *Qks* thinks. Because /\$/ and /9/ are both made with the tongue-tip and because the teeth and the alveolar ridge are rather close together there is a danger of using /s/ in both places or even /©/ in both places, giving *sirjks* or *Qk0*. This must be avoided if possible, /z/ and /»/ give exactly the same difficulty. Try the following words and be careful to make /s/ and /z/ noisy and /©/ and /3/ less noisy: *sau0* south, *Sis* this, *5i:z* these, *Sauz* those, *0aiz* thighs, *smu:S* smooth, *0iqz* things, *Sevan©* seventh, *03:sti* thirsty, *itiaSsz* mothers,

SASan southern, *3eaz* theirs, *0isj* thistle.

Making /s/, /z/ and /0, 3/ sufficiently different from each other is even more difficult when they are next to each other in a word or phrase like *ba:3z* baths or *bau0 saidz* both sides. This happens very often in English.

/z/ is not a common sound at the beginning of words, so confusing /z/ and /z/ in initial position will not generally lead to misunderstanding, but English speakers do distinguish them, so you should try to do so too. Try the following words:

zi:k	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

Between vowels /z/ is voiced, and if you voice this sound naturally in that position that's good; if not, the sound should be made very gently and very short. /z/ is always voiceless. Try these words:

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

At the end of words, after a vowel, /z/ makes the vowel rather shorter and /z/ makes it longer, as with /t, v, θ, ð/, and in this position /z/ is particularly short and /z/ is the fainter touch of a /z/ is sufficient, but the vowel must be good and long. Try the words below and notice both the difference of vowel length and of consonant strength:

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

And now some more with short vowels

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

For the speaker of many languages (e.g. French, German, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Russian, etc.) there are not separate phonemes /z/ and /z/ but only one which is usually more like the English /z/. So there is a danger that /z/ will be used instead of /z/. The difference between the two is that /z/ is made with the tip and blade of the tongue close to the centre of the alveolar ridge and makes a strong friction, whereas /z/ is made with the tongue tip near the upper teeth and makes much less friction.

Distinguish carefully between all these pairs:

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

Now do them again, and be absolutely certain that you do not replace /z/ by /z/ there is always a danger of replacing the more familiar with the less familiar sound, as well as the reverse.

Now try them at the end of words (the vowel length is the same all the time because both are strong consonants and shorten the vowel), but /z/ must still make much more noise than /z/.

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

Repeat this exercise and be sure again that you are not replacing /z/ by /z/.

The same difficulty applies to /z/ and /z/. Both are weak sounds but /z/ makes more noise than /z/. Try these words:

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

Go through these words again and be sure that you are not replacing /z/ by /z/ or /z/ by /z/.

Those people who speak languages where /z/ and /z/ are not separate phonemes really have a special difficulty when /z/ and /z/ occur close together in words like /zi:z/ or /zi:z/. Because /z/ and /z/ are both made with the tongue-tip and because the teeth and the alveolar ridge are rather close together there is a danger of using /z/ in both places, or even /z/ in both places, giving /zi:z/ or /zi:z/. This must be avoided if possible. /z/ and /z/ give exactly the same difficulty. Try the following words and be careful to make /z/ and /z/ noisy and /z/ and /z/ less noisy - and so on. But first, see these: /zi:z/ or /zi:z/, /zi:z/ or /zi:z/, /zi:z/ or /zi:z/.

zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc
zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc	zi:z	zinc

Making /z/ and /z/ sufficiently different from each other is even more difficult when they are next to each other in a word or phrase like /zi:z/ or /zi:z/ or /zi:z/. This happens very often in English.



because /z/ and /z/ are very common at the end of words and /z/ begins some very common words such as the, this, f/i/a/, /tam, etc.

Start with a long /z/-sound, not too much noise, then slide the tip of the tongue gently backwards to the alveolar ridge, which will give the noisy /z/-sound. Do this several times, and be sure that you start with a good /z/; then gradually make the /z/ shorter before you slide the tip back to the /z/ position. Now practise these words and be careful to make a distinct difference each time:

- mD0 moth mDS moss mD0s moths
- mi0 myth mis miss mi0s myths
- fo:0 fourth fois force foi0s fourths



Now do the same with /z/ and /z/; start with a long quiet /z/ and gently slide the tongue back to give the noisier /z/. Gradually shorten the sounds (but be careful to make both, not /z/ or /z/ alone) and then practise making a difference between these words:

- bri:0 breathe briiz breeze briidz breathes
- raiQ writhe raiz rise raidz writhes
- klau0 clothe klauz close klauz clothes



Now try going from /s/ to /θ/; this time gently slide the tongue forward towards the teeth until the noisy /s/ is replaced by the quiet /θ/. Do this several times and be sure that both sounds are heard. Then practise these phrases:

anais θir) a nice thing its θik it's thick
 djasks θin Jack's thin lets θir] k let's think
 jes θae Qks yes, thanks pars θru: pass through



Do the same with /z/ and /ð/ and then practise these phrases:

huiz θis who's this? juiz θaet use that
 az θau as though dj θnz θea John's there
 Iuiz θam lose them weaz θatii where's the tea?



And finally some more phrases in which /s, z, θ, ð/ come together in various orders. Always be careful to make one noisy sound (/s, z/) and one quiet one (/θ, ð/):

WD θs θaet what's that? its θeaz it's theirs
 34
 bau θsaidz both sideswai z θa its wise thoughts
 Friction consonants
 hi:z θiti he's thirty wiðseifti with safety
 bri:θs θftli breathe softly Si:z θri: these three

There are various tongue-twister sentences which are difficult to say - based on the mixing of these four sounds; for example siks θin θisl θstiks six thin thistle sticks and θ θ i i θ pa I i is θis θis θas the Leith θoliced θis θis θ us, but native English speakers find these difficult to say, so there is no need to try to master them. It is much better to concentrate on words and phrases like those above which occur very often in normal conversation.

Some of the very many common words containing /s/ are: same, sing, sit, Saturday, Sunday, save, see, say, second, seem, self, send, six, seven, side, since, sleep, slow, small, so, some, son, sister, soon, start, stay, stop, still, against, almost, beside(s), least, lost, last, listen, message, mister, Mrs, use (n.), face, miss, across, advice, case, cats (etc.), takes (etc.), pass, less, -ness, nice, piece, perhaps, yes.

Some of the very many common words containing /z / are: noisy, busy, reason, easy, lazy, losing, as, his, hers, cause, use (vb.), has, is, lose, was, days, dogs (etc.), does, moves (etc.), noise, please.

θl and /θ/

/θ/ is a strong friction sound and /ð/ is a weak one. The position of the speech

organs for these sounds is shown in Figure 15.



notice

1 The soft palate is raised so that all the breath is forced to go through the mouth.

2 There is a narrowing between the tip of the tongue and the back of the alveolar ridge.

3 The front of the tongue is higher than for /s/ and /z/.

4 The lips are very slightly rounded.

Start from /s/: pull the tip of the tongue backwards a little so that the narrowing is at the back of the alveolar ridge (draw the breath inward to check that you have the tongue in the right place). Keep this position and put the rest of the tongue in position to say the vowel /ɪ/, slightly round the lips, and push the breath through strongly. /ʃ/ is a much noisier sound than /f/ and /G/ and only a little less noisy than /s/. For /ʒ/ the friction is weaker, and shorter.

ʃll does not occur at the beginning of English words but /ʃ/ quite frequently does. Try these: Ji 1 she, Jau show, {Dp shop, {ip ship, Jed shed,

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Consonants

because /t/ and /d/ are very common at the end of words and /θ/ begins some very common words such as *this, that, then*, etc.

Start with a long /θ/ sound, not too much noise, then slide the tip of the tongue gently back towards the alveolar ridge, which will give the noisy /t/-sound. Do this several times, and be sure that you start with a good /θ/: then gradually make the /t/ shorter before you slide the tip back to the /θ/ position. Now practise these words and be careful to make a distinct difference each time:

moθ moth	mo:s mo:s	moθs moθs
moθ myth	mi:t mi:t	moθ: moθs
fo:θ fourth	fo:s fo:s	fo:θs fourth

Now do the same with /θ/ and /ð/: start with a long quiet /θ/ and gently slide the tongue back to give the noisier /ð/. Gradually shorten the sounds (but be careful to make both /θ/ or /ð/ alone) and then practise making a difference between these words:

br:θ breathe	br:ð breathe	br:θð breathe
ra:θ write	ra:ð write	ra:θð write
klə:θ close	klə:ð close	klə:θð close

Now try going from /θ/ to /ð/: this time gently slide the tongue forward towards the teeth until the noisy /θ/ is replaced by the quiet /ð/. Do this several times and be sure that both sounds are heard. Then practise these phrases:

ə ra:θ θi:z a nice thing	ɪθ θi:k i's thick
θrə:θ θi:z θɒk's coin	θɒθ θi:z θi:z let's think
θɪ θɜ:θ θi:z you, thanks	θɒθ θru: θɒθ through

Do the same with /t/ and /d/ and then practise these phrases:

ba:t θu: θu: who's thin?	θu: θu: θu: see that
θrə:θ θu: a: θru:θ through	θrə:θ θu: θu: 'om's there
θu: θu: θu: location	θu: θu: θu: where's the tea?

And finally practise more phrases in which /s, z θ ð/ come together in various orders. Always be careful to make one noisy sound (/θ, z/) and one quiet one (/θ, ð/):

θu: θu: θu: who's that?	θu: θu: θu: both sides
θu: θu: θu: it's thin	θu: θu: θu: was through

Finals consonant

θi:θ θi:z he's thirty	θu: θu: θu: with softness with safety
θrə:θ θu: breathe softly	θu: θu: θu: close these

There are various tongue-twister sentences which are difficult to say – based on the mixing of these four sounds; for example *the fish that stuck to the fisher's face and the fish pulled the fisher out at the last stroke*. But native English speakers find these difficult to say, so there is no need to try to master them. It is much better to concentrate on words and phrases like those above which occur very often in normal conversation.

Some of the very many common words containing /θ/ are: *theatre, sing, sit, Saturday, Sunday, suit, see, say, theatre, steam, stay, send, six, seven, die, dice, city, slow, small, so, soon, see, sister, soon, start, stay, stop, still, against, avoid, blade/s, buzz, less, less, then, manage, matter, Mrs, use (n), use, miss, never, nobody, our, cat(s), asked (etc.), part, less, -ness, size, piece, perhaps, yes*.

Some of the very many common words containing /ð/ are: *they, keep, remove, away, cry, feeling, at, fix, hers, cause, war (vb), but, it, lose, use, days, dog(s), does, never (etc.), voice, please*.

/ʃ/ and /ʒ/

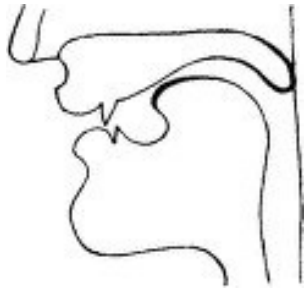
/ʃ/ is a strong friction sound and /ʒ/ is a weak one. The position of the speech organs for these sounds is shown in Figure 15.

NOTICE

- 1 The soft palate is raised so that all the breath is forced to go through the mouth.
- 2 There is a narrowing between the tip of the tongue and the back of the alveolar ridge.
- 3 The front of the tongue is higher than for /s/ and /z/.
- 4 The lips are very slightly rounded.

Start from /s/: pull the tip of the tongue backwards a little so that the narrowing is at the back of the alveolar ridge (draw the breath inward to check that you have the tongue in the right place). Keep its position and put the rest of the tongue in position to say the vowel /ɪ/, slightly round the lips, and push the breath through strongly. /ʃ/ is a much noisier sound than /f/ and /θ/ and only a little less noisy than /s/. For /ʒ/ the friction is weaker, and shorter.

/ʒ/ does not occur at the beginning of English words but /ʃ/ quite frequently does. Try these: *ʃi:θ, ʃu: θu: ʃu: ʃop shop, ʃip ship, ʃed shed*.



% *5 HI hi



J3:t shirt, Ja:p sharp, Jb:t short9 Jea share, Jain shine, Jua rare, jAt shut, Ju:shoe, Jud should.

Between vowels fa/ is voiced and if you voice this sound naturally in that position so much the better; if not, make it very gentle and very short, m is always voiceless. There are almost no cases in which /J/ and /f/ distinguish words which are otherwise the same, but practise these mixed words: prejas precious, treja treasure, aujan ocean, iksplaujan explosion7 neijan nation, inveijan invasion, kandijan condition, dis^andecision, preja pressure, me3a measure, rileijan relation, ake^an occasion.

At the end of words /J/ is quite common but fa/ is very rare and only occurs in a few words borrowed from French: like the other gentle sounds it makes the vowel before it longer, whereas /f/ makes it shorter, Try these /J/ words:

finij finish rAbiJ rubbish kraej crash krAj crush
wdJ wash puj push li:J leash ha:J harsh



And now these /3/ words, making the vowels fully long: gaera:3 garage bei3 beige ru:3 rouge

As you can see, if you confuse /J/ and fa/, not much damage is done, though since native English speakers distinguish them you should try to too. However, it is much more dangerous to confuse /s/ and /J/ because many words are kept separate only by this difference. In some languages (e.g. Spanish, Greek) there is only one phoneme where English has both /s/ and /J/ and if this is so you must take special care with these phonemes. (The replacement of /s/ by /J/ gives a rather drunken effect to one's speech!) In particular the friction of /s/ is sharper and higher than that of /J/ because the tongue-tip is nearer to

Friction consonants



the teeth, so practise the pairs of words below and be sure that you move your tongue to the right positions for the two consonants:

sau	so	Jau	show	sai	sigh	Jai	s
SDk	sock	Jok	shock	si:	see		s
salt	sort	Jait	short	seim	same	Jeim	s
P3:\$an	p3:Jan	Persian	beisan	basin	neijan	nation	
person							
lisan	listen	mijan	mission	misiQ	missing	wijiq	v
li:s	lease	U:J	leash v	ass	ass	aej	a
mes	mess	mej	mesh				

The danger of confusing words with /z/ and /j/ is very small because few pairs of words have only this difference, but to use one of these where the other is usual will make your English sound wrong, so keep the two separate. Try the following:

rizan risen vi3an vision reiza razor irei3a erasure
 reizan raisin inve^an invasion rauza Rosa klau3a closure
 ru:z ruse 01:3 rouge beiz bays bei3 beige

Some of the commonest words containing /J/ are: shape, she, ship, sharp, shop, shall, should, short, shut, shout, show, shoulder, shoe, shoot, shine, shore, sure, anxious, ashamed, machine, patient, position, station, motion, nation, ocean, mention, pressure, precious, bush, crash, crush, fish, flesh, foolish, fresh, greenish (etc.), punish, push, rush, selfish, wash, wish, dish.

Some of the commonest words containing / 3/ are: measure, pleasure, usual, division, revision, collision, invasion, vision, inclusion, illusion, provision, explosion, leisure, garage, barrage, rouge, beige.

N

There are as many /h/-sounds in English as there are vowels, because /h/ always occurs before a vowel and consists of the sound of breath passing between the open vocal cords and out of the mouth which is already prepared for the following vowel. Before /i:/ the mouth is in position for /i:/, before /a:/ it is ready for /a:/, and so on; so in order to make /h/-sounds, the mouth is held ready for the vowel and a short gasp of breath is pushed up by the lungs, /h/ does not make very much noise, but it must not be left out when it should be sounded, for two reasons: (1) many words are distinguished by the presence or absence of /h/, like *here* and *ear*, (2) English speakers consider that the leaving out of /h/ is

/h/ also occurs in the middle of words (although never at the end of words) and should be made in the same way as before. If the vocal cords happen to vibrate and give voice during /h/ this is normal, but there is no need to try especially to voice the sound. Try these words, with a definite /h/, but no scraping:

bihaind behind rih3is rehearse riihauz re-house
enihau anyhow ki:haul key-hole Anhau1i unholy
aelkahol alcohol bifbihaend beforehand



/h/ is especially difficult for those who have no such sound in their own language (for example French, Italian) in phrases where words with /h/ and words without it are close together. If you have this trouble you must practise examples like those below quite slowly at first, and be sure that the words which ought to have /h/ do actually have it, and, equally important, that those without /h/ do not have it. Try them now, slowly:

hauza:0a how's Arthur?
aut av haend out of hand
it s Difli hevi it's awfully heavy
hiz haumzin aialand his home's in Ireland
h el an went aut Helen went out

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Friction consonants

wi: a:l went haum we all went home
ai hit henri in Si: ai I hit Henry in the eye
ai aiskt aen hau Ji: h3:d about it I asked Ann how she heard about it

Say each of those examples several times slowly with the /h / in the right places before you speed up to a normal pace.

A few common words sometimes have /h/ and sometimes do not, for example, he, him, her, have. This is explained on p. 92.

Some of the commonest words which always contain /h/ are: half, hand, hat, head, health, hear, here, heart, heavy, hide, high, history, hit, hold, hole, home, hope, horse, hat, house, how, hundred, husband, behind, before-hand, household, anyhow, greenhouse, manhole, inhale, rehearse, coherent.

3.2 Stop consonants

In stop consonants the breath is completely stopped at some point in the mouth, by the lips or tongue-tip or tongue-back, and then released with a slight explosion. There are four pairs of phonemes containing stops *fp*, *b/*, */t*, *d/*, */k*, *g/* and */tj*, *d3/*, and like the friction consonants one of each pair is strong and the other weak.

/p/and/b/

/p/ is a strong stop consonant and /b / is a weak one. The position of theorgans of speech for these stops is shown in Figure 16.

NOTICE

1 The lips are closed firmly and the soft palate is raised so that thebreath cannot get out of either the nose or the mouth but is trappedfor a short time.

2 When the lips are opened suddenly the breath rushes out with aslight explosion or popping noise.

3 Before the lips are opened, the rest of the mouth takes up the positionfor the following sound, a vowel position if a vowel follows, as in pool, or a consonant position if a consonant follows, as in play.

jpl is a strong sound, like /f/ and /θ/ and /s/ and /ʃ/, but it has a specialfeature which these do not have: it causes the following sound to losesome of the voicing which it would otherwise have. For example, inpu:lpool the first part of the vowel /u:/ has no voice it consists ofbreath flowing through the mouth which is in position for /u:/. In factthis is what happens for /h/, as we saw on p. 37, so that we may write

Consonant

Leaving out /h/ is the biggest danger, but a lesser error is to make /h/-sound too noisy. Some speakers for instance, Spaniards, Greeks, Poles, push the breath to the back of the tongue and the soft palate and make a rasping noise as they speak. This sounds rather unpleasant to English people and you should avoid it if possible. For the words below get your mouth ready for the vowel and push a little gap of breath through your mouth just before the vowel starts:

hart heart hat hat hat hat
 hot hall hu: who hit hit

Say all these words several times and be sure that the /h/-sound is there, but not too noisy – just the sound of breath streaming from the mouth. Now compare the following pairs, one word with /h/ and one without:

harm harm arm arm hit hit it it
 herd herd eddy eddy hit hit it it
 hair hair air air hit hit it it

/h/ also occurs in the middle of words (although never at the end of words) and should be made in the same way as before. The vowel which happens to follow and give voice during /h/ is important, but there is no need to try especially to voice the sound. Try these words, with a definite /h/, but no rasping:

behind behind behind behind behind behind
 behind behind behind behind behind behind
 behind behind behind behind behind behind

/h/ is especially difficult for those who have no such sound in their own language (for example French, Italian) in phrases where words with /h/ and words without it are close together. If you have this trouble you must practise examples like these below quite slowly at first, and be sure that the words which ought to have /h/ do actually have it, and, equally important, that those without /h/ do not have it. Try them now, slowly:

huswagons huswagons
 huswagons huswagons
 huswagons huswagons
 huswagons huswagons

huswagons huswagons
 huswagons huswagons
 huswagons huswagons
 huswagons huswagons

Friction consonants

we all went home we all went home
 it hit them in the eye it hit them in the eye
 it hit them in the eye it hit them in the eye

Say each of these examples several times slowly with the /h/ in the right places before you speed up to a normal pace.

A few common words sometimes have /h/ and sometimes do not, for example, *hit, him, her, here*. This is explained on p. 92.

Some of the commonest words which always contain /h/ are: *half, hand, hat, head, health, hear, here, heart, heavy, high, history, hit, hold, hose, house, hope, horse, hot, hour, how, husband, husband, initial, beforehand, household, instant, important, method, think, theatre, chest*.

2.2 Stop consonants

In stop consonants the breath is completely stopped at some point in the mouth, by the lips or tongue-tip or tongue-back, and then released with a slight explosion. There are four pairs of phonemes containing stops /p, b/, /t, d/, /k, g/ and /ʃ, dʒ/, and like the friction consonants one of each pair is strong and the other weak.

/p/ and /b/

/p/ is a strong stop consonant and /b/ is a weak one. The position of the organs of speech for these stops is shown in Figure 16.

NOTICE

- 1 The lips are closed firmly and the soft palate is raised so that the breath cannot get out of either the nose or the mouth but is trapped for a short time.
- 2 When the lips are opened suddenly the breath rushes out with a slight explosion or popping noise.
- 3 Before the lips are opened, the rest of the mouth takes up the position for the following sound, a vowel position if a vowel follows, as in *pool*, or a consonant position if a consonant follows, as in *play*.

/p/ is a strong sound, like /t/ and /k/ and /s/ and /ʃ/, but it has a special feature which these do not have: it causes the following sound to lose some of the voicing which it would otherwise have. For example, in *pool* the first part of the vowel /u:/ has no voice – it consists of breath flowing through the mouth which is in position for /u:/. In fact this was happen for /h/, as we saw on p. 37, so that we may write

this voiceless period like this: p hu:l, where the h represents a voiceless kind of /u:/. Try making this voiceless /u:/ by itself; it is rather like what you do when you blow out a light. Now put the /p/ in front of it, still with no voice, only strong breath. Now put the vowel /u:/ itself after the breath, p hu:. Do this several times and be sure that the period of breath is there before the /u:/ starts. Do the same thing with other vowels in the words pb:t, pha:t, phaet, phet, phit, phi:t. It is very

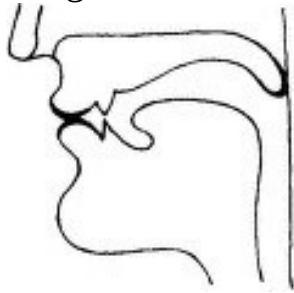


Fig. 16 / p/ and /b/

important that the period of breath (which is called aspiration) should be there each time. It is this aspiration which mainly separates /p/ from /b/.

Now try /p/ with a following consonant, as in /plei/. Keep the lips closed for /p/, and behind them put your tongue in position for /l/; then open the lips and let the breath flow through the /l/ position, with no voice but considerable friction. This gives a voiceless /l/-sound, which is written /l̥/. Do this several times pi, pi, pi still with no voice. Now put the ordinary voiced /l/ after pi pi l and then go onto the vowel, pjlei. Do the same thing with the words prei and pjua, and see that breath flows through the /r/ and /j/ position, giving /r̥/ and /j̥/, with friction, before the voiced /r/ and /j/ are heard.

/b/ is a weak stop, and it never has aspiration. The vocal cords may or may not vibrate whilst the lips are still closed, but they must vibrate for the following sound, whether vowel or consonant. Try the word buk, and make the /b/ very gentle and without any aspiration. Do the same with bDit, ba:, baek, bel, bit, bi:n. A following consonant is prepared for whilst the lips are closed and is voiced as soon as they open. Try brait, b u:, bjuiti with a gentle /b/.

Now try the following pairs of words, and make the / p/ strong and aspirated and the /b/ weak and unaspirated:

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Stop consonants

S3 piik peak bilk beak pit pit bit bi

pack pack baek back pa:k park ba:k bark

pit port bait bought pul pull bul bull

praid pride braid bride pleiz plays bleiz blaze



When /p/ occurs between vowels the aspiration may be less noticeable or even absent, but it will never do any harm to keep the aspiration in this position too. /b/ is of course never aspirated, but in this position it is usually voiced. The most important thing, as with the other weak consonants, is to make it very gentle and short. Try these words:

haepi happy Juebi shabby saP3 supper rAba rubber
peipa paper leiba labour npel repel nbel rebd
simp) simple simbl symbol aplai apply abiald3 oblige



Some learners (e.g. Spaniards) have great difficulty in hearing and making a difference between /b/ and /v/ in this position, so that the words marble and marvel sound the same. They must take great care to close the lips very firmly for /b/, so that the sound makes an explosion and not a friction. Try these words:

maibl marble maivl, marvel nban ribbon nva river
haebit habit haevit have it rAba rubber lAva lover
leiba labour feiva favour beibi baby neivi navy



In final position (before a pause) /p/ is aspirated and shortens the vowel before it, whilst /b/ is particularly weak and makes only very little noise, but lengthens the vowel before it.

In some languages (e.g. Cantonese, Vietnamese) a final stop is not exploded or is replaced by a glottal stop (a stop consonant in which the breath is blocked by the vocal cords, see p. 14)- Speakers of these languages must be very careful to form /p/ and /b/ with the lips, and open the lips and allow the breath to explode out of the mouth before a pause. Try these words:

rip rip rib rib kaep cap kaeb cab
raup rope raub robe traip tripe traib tribe
txp tap taeb tab nep wrap grab grab

Those who have difficulty with /b/ and /v/ must again be sure to close the lips firmly for the /b/ and make a very light explosion but no friction. Try:

4i

this voiceless period like this: p*at, where the * represents a voiceless kind of /t/. Try making this voiceless /t/ by itself: it is rather like what you do when you blow out a light. Now put the /p/ in front of it, still with no voice, only using breath. Now practice vowel /a:/ itself after the breath, p*a:. Do this several times and be sure that the period of breath is there before the /a:/ starts. Do the same thing with other vowels in the words p*ot, p*ot, p*at, p*at, p*at, p*at. It is very



Fig. 16 /p/ and /b/

important that the period of breath (which is called aspiration) should be there each time: it is this aspiration which mainly separates /t/ from /b/.

Now try /p/ with a following consonant, as in /pleɪ/. Keep the lips closed like /p/, and behind them put your tongue in position for /l/, then open the lips and let the breath flow through the /l/ position, with no voice but considerable friction. This gives a voiceless /l/-sound which is written /l/. Do this several times: pl, pl, pl will work no voice. Now put the ordinary voiced /l/ after pl, pl and then go on to the vowel, pleɪ. Do the same thing with the words plum and plea, and see that breath flows through the /t/ and /l/ position, giving /t/ and /l/ with friction, before the voiced /r/ and /j/ are heard.

/b/ is a weak stop, and it never has aspiration. The vocal cord may or may not vibrate while the lips are still closed, but they must vibrate for the following sound, whether vowel or consonant. Try the word bek, and make the /b/ very gentle and without any aspiration. Do the same with bev, beɪ, beɪ, beɪ, beɪ, beɪ. A following consonant is prepared for: while the lips are closed and a voiced consonant is prepared for, while the lips are closed and a voiced consonant is prepared for. Try beɪt, bɪt, beɪt with a gentle /b/.

Now try the following pairs of words, and make the /p/ strong and aspirated and the /b/ weak and unaspirated:

Stop consonants

pitk	yeak	bet	leak	pet	pit	het	hit
pek	yeak	bet	leak	pek	pek	bet	bet
put	port	bet	beight	put	pull	bet	bull
peed	peak	beet	beide	pleat	plays	bleat	blize

When /p/ occurs between vowels the aspiration may be less noticeable or even absent, but it will never do any harm to keep the aspiration in this position too: /b/ is of course never aspirated, but in this position it is usually voiced. The most important thing, as with the other weak consonants, is to make it very gentle and slow. Try these words:

hept	happy	teba	shabby	tepa	upper	teba	rubber
pepa	paper	teba	about	tepa	tepa	teba	teba
temp	simple	teba	symbol	tepa	tepa	teba	teba

Some learners (e.g. Spaniards) have great difficulty in hearing and making a difference between /b/ and /v/ in this position, so that the words *marble* and *marvel* sound the same. They must take great care to close the lips very firmly for /b/, so that the sound makes an explosion and not a friction. Try these words:

teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba
teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba
teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba	teba

In final position (before a pause) /t/ is aspirated and shortens the vowel before it, while /b/ is particularly weak and makes only very little noise, but lengthens the vowel before it.

In some languages (e.g. Cantonese, Vietnamese) a final stop is not exploded or is replaced by a glottal stop (a stop consonant in which the breath is blocked by the vocal cords: see p. 14). Speakers of these languages must be very careful to keep /p/ and /b/ with the lips, and to open the lips and allow the breath to explode out of the mouth before a pause. Try these words:

rip	rip	reb	reb	kep	kep	keb	keb
rop	rop	reb	reb	kep	kep	keb	keb
rap	rap	reb	reb	kep	kep	keb	keb

Those who have difficulty with /b/ and /v/ must again be sure to close the lips firmly for the /b/ and make a very light explosion but not friction. Try:

EE rib rib giv give kaeb cab haev have
traib tribe draiv drive kkb club gUv glove

When / p/ or /b/ are followed immediately by one of the other stop consonants /t, d, k, g/ or by /m/ or /n/ the sound is made a little differently; this is dealt with on p. 67.

Some of the commonest words containing / p/ are: page, pair, paper, pardon, part, pass, pdy, people, perhaps, piece, place, p/dte, p/ay, please, plenty, poor, possible, post, pound, pretty, price, pull, push, put, appear, April, company, compare, complain, beɪt, beɪt, beɪt, complete, copy, expect, happen, happy, important, open, sleep, cheap, cup, drop, group, heap, help, hope, keep, map, rope, shape, sharp, shop, stop, step, top, up, wrap.

Some of the commonest words containing /b/ are: back, bad, bag, bath, be, beautiful, because, become, bed, before, begin, behind, believe, belong, below, besides, best, between, big, black, blue, both, boy, bread, break, break-fast, bring, but, busy, buy, by, brown, able, about, above, September (etc.), February, habit, harbour, husband, neighbour, number, obey, possible, probable, public, remember, table, job, rub, rob, club, slab, grab.

/t/ and /d/

/t/ is a strong stop consonant and /d / is a weak one. The position of the organs of speech for these stops is shown in Figure 17.

NOTICE

1 The tip of the tongue (not the blade) is firmly against the middle of the alveolar ridge, not too near the teeth and not near the hard palate.

2 The soft palate is raised, so the breath cannot escape through either the nose or the mouth, but is trapped for a short time.

3 The sides of the tongue are firmly against the sides of the palate, so that the breath cannot pass over the sides of the tongue.

4 When the tongue-tip is lowered suddenly from the teeth ridge the breath rushes out with a slight explosion or popping noise.

The strong stop /t/ is aspirated in the same way as /p/ and this may be written in a similar way, e.g. *tu:* *too*. Put the tongue tip on the very centre of the alveolar ridge; be sure that only the very point of the tongue is in contact, not the blade; then allow the air to burst out with a voiceless vowel /u:/; do this several times before adding the normal voiced vowel and be sure that when you do add the /u:/ the voiceless period is still there. Do this several times and each time check the exact

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Stop consonants

r

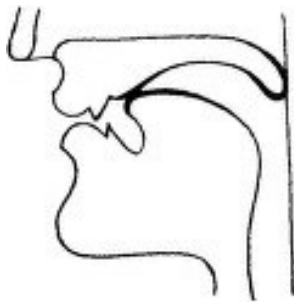


Fig. 17 /t/ and /d/

position of the tongue-tip and the aspiration. Then do the same thing with other vowels: *tbit*, *fop*. *t-m*, *fi:*, *fain*. *t-An*. Then try the word *twin*, where the first part of /w/ comes out voiceless and *tjuin*

where /j/ is also partly voiceless.

/d/ is short and weak and never aspirated; compare the following words:

tu:	two	du:	do
ten	ten	den	den
tAn	ton	dAn	done

tjuin tune djuin dune
tain tom darn dawn
tai tie dai die
taun town daun down
twin twin d wind I dwindle

As with /p/, when /t/ occurs between vowels, the aspiration may be weaker or even absent, but it will never do any harm to keep the aspiration in this position too. /d / in this position is usually voiced, but concentrate mainly on making it very gentle and short, and it is voiced as well so much the better. Try these words:

Q ralta writer raida rider wetii) wetting wedig wedding
1*10 latter laed3 ladder wDita water wo:d0 warder
waitij whitish waidij widish puttrj putting pudig pudding

Speakers who find /b/ and /v/ difficult in this position will also find /d/ and /a/ hard to distinguish. Concentrate on making /d/ with the tip of the tongue firmly against the alveolar ridge, and make sure it is a firm stop rather than a friction sound. Compare.

LED raidig riding raidig writhing
briidiQ breeding briidig breathing
laudiQ loading l3udl0 loathing
laeda ladder I*9* lather

Consonants

rit	rib	giv	give	kab	cab	hav	have
trab	tribe	draiv	drive	klab	club	glav	glove

When /p/ or /b/ are followed immediately by one of the other stop consonants /t, d, k, g/ or by /m/ or /n/ the sound is made a little differently; this is dealt with on pp. 67-73.

Some of the commonest words containing /p/ are: *page, pair, paper, pardon, part, pass, pay, people, perhaps, piece, place, play, please, plenty, poet, possible, post, pound, pretty, price, pull, push, put, appear, April, assembly, compare, complete, copy, expect, happen, happy, impious, iron, ship, chop, way, sleep, group, heap, help, hope, keep, map, eye, shape, sharp, shop, star, stop, top, up, wrap*.

Some of the commonest words containing /b/ are: *back, bad, bag, bath, be, beautiful, because, seven, bed, before, begin, behind, believe, belong, birth, bottle, bet, between, big, black, blue, boat, boy, bread, break, break-fast, bring, but, busy, buy, by, brown, club, about, about, September (etc.), February, hand, harbour, husband, neighbour, number, ship, possible, prohibitive, pullin, recession, odd, job, red, red, class, club, grab*.

/t/ and /d/

/t/ is a strong stop consonant and /d/ is a weak one. The position of the organs of speech for these stops is shown in Figure 17.

NOTES

1. The tip of the tongue (not the blade) is firmly against the middle of the alveolar ridge, not too near the teeth and not near the hard palate.
2. The soft palate is raised, so the breath cannot escape through either the nose or the mouth, but is trapped for a short time.
3. The sides of the tongue are firmly against the sides of the palate, so that the breath cannot pass over the sides of the tongue.
4. When the tongue-tip is lowered suddenly from the teeth/ridge the breath rushes out with a slight explosion or 'popping' sound.

The strong stop /t/ is aspirated in the same way as /p/ and this may be written in a similar way, e.g. t^hate. But the tongue tip on the very centre of the alveolar ridge: be sure that only the very point of the tongue is in contact, not the blade; then allow the air to burst out with a voiceless vowel /u:/ do this several times before adding the normal voiced vowel and be sure that when you do add the /u:/ the voiceless period is still there. Do this several times and each time check the exact

Stop consonants



Fig. 17 /t/ and /d/

position of the tongue-tip and the aspiration. There could be something with other vowels: t^hat, t^his, t^here, t^hen, t^hey, t^hey, t^hey. Then try the word twin, where the first part of /w/ comes out voiceless and /w/ where /j/ is also partly voiceless.

/d/ is silent and weak and never aspirated; compare the following words:

tar	run	dur	do	tar	ten	dar	down
ten	ten	den	doe	tar	tie	dar	die
tar	ton	dar	done	tar	town	dar	down
tjan	tane	djan	dane	twon	twon	dward	twindle

As with /p/, when /t/ occurs between vowels, the aspiration may be weaker or even absent, but it will never do any harm to keep the aspiration in this position too. /d/ in this position is usually voiced, but concentrate mainly on making it very gentle and short, and if it is voiced at all to make the better. Try these words:

rust	writer	rust	rider	wetty	wening	weddy	wodding
lets	letter	lets	ladder	wots	wover	wots	worler
watf	whisk	watf	wicks	putt	putting	putt	putting

Speakers who find /b/ and /p/ difficult in this position will also find /d/ and /t/ hard to distinguish. Concentrate on making /d/ with the tip of the tongue: firmly against the alveolar ridge, and make sure it is a firm stop rather than a friction sound. Compare:

radn	riding	radn	writhing
brn	breeding	brn	breathing
wat	loading	wat	loathing
lad	ladder	lad	lather

In final position /t/ is aspirated and shortens the vowel before it, whilst /d/ is particularly weak and makes only very little noise, but lengthens the vowel before it. However, speakers who tend not to allow /t/ and /d/ to explode in this position should be sure not only to make the difference of vowel length but also to allow the breath to explode out of the mouth. Try these words:

bet bet bed bed ha:t heart ha:d hard
 leit late leid laid sait sight said side
 set set sed said bn:t brought bre:d broad

/d/ and /θ/ may again be difficult to distinguish in this position. Be sure that /d/ is made with the tongue-tip firmly on the alveolar ridge, and that the breath is released with a tiny explosion. Try the words:

bri:d breed bri:θ breathe raid ride raid writhe
 laud load Iauθ loathe said side said scythe

When /t/ and /d/ are followed by any of the other stop consonants,

/p, b, k, g/ or by /m/ or /n/ or /l/, the sounds are made a little differently. This is dealt with on pp. 67-73.

Some of the many common words containing /t/ are: table, take, tell, ten, time, to, today, together, too, top, towards, town, Tuesday, turn, twelve, fuw,

fa/fe, d/ier, tatter, between, city, dirty, hotel, into, matter, notice, particular, protect, quarter, Saturday, water, writer, about, at, beat, bite, boat, but, coat, eat, eight, fat, flat, gate, get, great, hot, it, let, lot, not, ought, might, put, what. (Notice also the past tense of verbs ending with a strong consonant, e.g. missed mist, laughed laift.)

Some of the many common words containing /d / are: day, dead, dear, December, decide, depend, different, difficult, do (etc.), dinner, dog, door, down, during, already, Monday (etc.), holiday, idea, lady, ladder, medicine, body, ready, shoulder, study, today, under, add, afraid, bad, bed, bird, could, would, end, friend, good, had, head, old, read, road, side. (Notice also the past tense of verbs ending with a vowel, a weak consonant, and /t/, e.g. owed zud, failed feid, started staitid.)

/k/ and /g/

/k / is a strong stop consonant and /g/ is a weak one. The position of the organs of speech for these sounds is shown in Figure 18.

NOTICE

1 The back of the tongue is in firm contact with the soft palate, and

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Stop consonants

the soft palate is raised, so **

Thn; ;igstoP

may be shown in a smnkr ££-8^ voiceless Do this

position for /k/ and let the be voiceless one,

several times before adding a normal vowel W

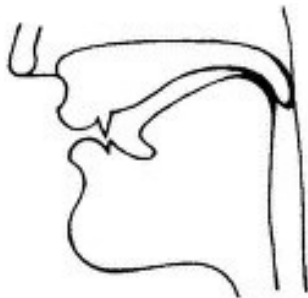


Fig. 18 /k/ and /g/

and be sure that the voiceless /k/ and /g/ are produced with the tongue tip touching the alveolar ridge and the back of the tongue touching the soft palate. * same, beginning with the follow-

LT^nts^tn, krlrm, kwi:n, k,m, where the /t/, /r/, /w/ and /l/ comes out voiceless ^ may form the

The speaker's soft palate is raised against the front of the tongue against stop too far forward in ' , , , not a very

the hard palate, before the vowels /i/ and /e/ so sounds like /kje/ and /kje/ and dangerous mistake, but to /ŋ/ is avoided if possible. If

! ss ^ < ■ « ■* - * -kept ^ k*mm

^ h s^ranT“never aspira.^mpare the Mowing words (and do not forget the aspiration of /k/) -

, geiv gave ka:d card

kerv cave § kud could gud good

k CURl «p gap kaul coal g^l goal

kaEP C»P glass krau crow g™ grow

klais class g,a's Siass

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Consonants

In final position /t/ is aspirated and shortens the vowel before it, whilst /d/ is particularly weak and makes only a very indistinct sound, but lengthens the vowel before it. However, speakers who tend not to allow /t/ and /d/ to explode in this position should be aware not only of the difference of vowel length but also to allow the breath to explode out of the mouth. Try these words:

bat	bet	bad	bed	bat	beat	bad	bed
bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat
bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat

/t/ and /d/ may again be difficult to distinguish in this position. Be sure that /t/ is made with the tongue tip firmly on the alveolar ridge, and that the breath is released with a tiny explosion. Try the words:

bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat
bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat
bat	bat	bat	bat	bat	bat

When /t/ and /d/ are followed by any of the other stop consonants, /p, b, k, g/ or by /m/ or /n/ or /l/, the sounds are made a little differently. This is dealt with on pp. 69-72.

Some of the many common words containing /t/ are: table, take, till, tea, time, to, today, together, too, top, towards, trees, Thursday, two, twelve, two, talk, taste, after, better, between, city, dirty, into, matter, native, particular, protect, quarter, Saturday, water, winter, about, at, last, like, boat, bus, can, can, cycle, fat, fast, gate, get, give, hot, it, let, lot, not, night, single, sit, what. (Notice also the past tense of verbs ending with a strong consonant, e.g. mind, rose, sing, had, left.)

Some of the many common words containing /d/ are: day, dead, dear, December, decide, diploma, different, difficult, so, etc., dance, dog, deer, down, during, already, Monday, let, holiday, sea, say, ladder, machine, body, mostly, double, study, today, under, add, afraid, bad, bed, bird, call, reach, end, friend, good, had, head, old, read, road, side. (Notice also the past tense of verbs in ending with a vowel, a weak consonant, and /t/, e.g. avoid, bad, failed, field, started, started.)

/k/ and /g/

/k/ is a strong stop consonant and /g/ is a weak one. The position of the organs of speech for these sounds is shown in Figure 11.

NOTICE

* The back of the tongue is in firm contact with the soft palate, and

Stop consonants

the soft palate is raised, so that the breath is trapped for a short time.

2. When the tongue is lowered suddenly from the soft palate, the breath rushes out of the mouth with a slight explosion or popping noise.

The strong stop /k/ is aspirated in the same way as /p/ and /t/, and this may be shown in a similar way, e.g. k'ut' red. Put the tongue in position for /k/ and let the breath burst out in a voiceless /v/. Do this several times before adding a normal vowel /a/ after the voiceless one.




Fig. 11 /k/ and /g/

and be sure that in the voiceless period, the aspiration comes before the normal vowel each time. Then do the same thing with other vowels in: k'ut, k'at, k'ee, k'el, k'ip. Now do the same thing with the following consonants in: k'om, k'rim, k'win, k'ut, where the first part of the /k, w/ and /j/ comes out voiceless.

The speakers of some languages (e.g. Greek, Persian) may form the /k/ so far forward in the mouth, with the front of the tongue against the hard palate, before the vowels /a/ and /e/. This is not a very dangerous mistake, but in English such the result sounds like /t/ or /tʃ/ rather than /k/ and /g/, so that it should be avoided if possible. If you have this difficulty, say the words k'at and k'ee out very slowly several times and notice carefully where the tongue touches the soft palate. Then try to keep this position in words such as kept, kept, k'om, k'om, k'om and k'ee, k'ee.

/g/ is short and weak and never aspirated; compare the following words (and do not forget the aspiration of /k/).

kerv	cave	geiv	gave	kud	could	gud	good
kaul	curl	gaul	girl	kaul	coal	gaul	goal
keip	cap	geip	gap	krau	crow	grau	grow
klais	class	glais	glass				

As with /p/ and /t/, when /k/ occurs between vowels the aspiration may be weaker or even absent, but it may be kept in this position too. On the other hand /g/ is normally voiced in this position (and of course never aspirated), but concentrate mainly on making it gentle and short. Speakers who confuse /b/ and /d/ with /v/ and /ð/ in this position will also tend to make /g/ a friction sound instead of the correct stop sound. They must be sure to put the tongue into firm contact with the palate and let the breath out with a definite, though slight,

explosion. Try these words:

likirj

wiika

licking

weaker

maikit market

dlgiQ digging

i:ga eagertaigit target

laekig lacking0ika thickeraegkl ankle

laegiq laggingbiga biggeraeggj angle



In final position /k/ is aspirated and shortens the vowel before it, but /g/ is very, very gentle and lengthens the vowel before it. For both consonants there must be a definite explosion, a strong one for /k/ and a weak one for /g/; a closure without explosion or a simple friction is not correct. Try these words:

pik pick pig pig dok dock dDg dog

baek back baeg bag bk lock bg log

leik lake pleig plague brauk broke raug rogue

When /k/ and /g/ are followed by any of the other stop consonants, / p, b, t, d/, or by /m/ or /n/, the sounds are made a little differently. This is dealt with on pp. 67-73.

Some of the commonest words containing /k/ are: call, can, car, care, carry, case, catch, cause, kind, kitchen, kill, coal, coat, cold, come, cook, corner, count, country, cwp, cwf, because, become, box, breakfast, excuse, pocket, second, secret, walking (etc.), weaker (etc.), local, ask, back, black, book, break, dark, drink, take, like, lock, make, mistake, music, neck, o'clock, quick, take.

Some of the commonest words containing /g/ are: game, garden, gate, get, girl, glass, go, good, grass, great, green, grey, ground, grow, guess, gun, again, against, ago, agree, angry, exact, forget, language, regular,

together, longer, bigger (etc.), tiger, begin, bag, beg, big, dog, fog, leg, rug, plug, flag, drug.

/tj/ and /dʒ/

As the phonetic symbols suggest, /tj/ and /dʒ/ are stop consonants of a

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Stop consonants

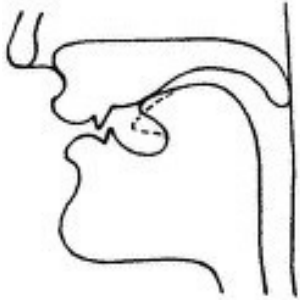


Fig. 19 /tj/ ^ /d3/

The air is trapped as for all the stop consonants, but it is released with definite friction of the /J, 3/ kind. The position of the organs of speech for /tj/ and /d3/ is shown in Figure 19.

The tongue-tip touches the back part of the alveolar ridge and the soft palate is raised so that the breath is trapped for a short time.

The rest of the tongue is in the /J, 3/ position (see Figure 5).

As the tongue moves away from the alveolar ridge a little way see

redo..edtaesmHg»re.9),and.hewhole,o,,g«e.sth»mfc

in the /J, 3/ position, so that a short period of this friction is heard. The friction of /tj/ and /d3/ is not so long as for /J/ and /3/ alone.

Start with /J/: say a long /J/ and then raise the tip of the tongue to the nearest part of the alveolar ridge and cut off the friction; then say /again by lowering the tongue-tip. Do this several times. Now start from the closed position, then release the tongue and “WI-/tf / (English children imitate a steam engine by a series of / J/

Now try the word tjiip ck*. and don't make the /J/ friction too long, it is rather shorter than in Ji:p sheep. Like /J/, /tj/ is a strong sound, but weak o>l. Try W by making the friction very rv.,k

and shorter than for /tj/. Then try these words:

[sl tjin chintjia cheertjDis choice

dxin gin tjbuk choke djauk joke

d3ia ieer tjein chain d3ein Jane

d3Dis Joyce tjest chest djest jest

Between vowels ,d3/ is normally voiced, but the “

keep it weak and to keep the friction short: if you also voice it so much the better, /tj/ is still strong and voiceless. Try these word .

As with /p/ and /t/, when /k/ occurs between vowels the aspirate may be weaker or even absent, but it *must* be kept in this position too. On the other hand /g/ is normally voiced in this position (and of course never aspirated), but concentrate mainly on making it gentle and short. Speakers who confuse /k/ and /t/ with /s/ and /θ/ in this position will also tend to make /g/ a friction sound instead of the correct stop sound. They must be sure to put the tongue into firm contact with the palate and let the breath out with a definite, though slight, explosion. Try these words:

- licky licking eɪgɪ digging lɒkɪg lacking lɒgɪg lagging
- wɪkɪ weaker lɪgɪ rager θɪkɪ thicker bɛgɪ bigger
- mɑ:kɪt market tɑ:gɪt target ɹɒŋkɪ ankle ɹɒŋgɪ angle

In final position /k/ is aspirated and shortens the vowel before it, but /g/ is very, very gentle and lengthens the vowel before it. For both consonants there must be a definite explosion, a strong one for /k/ and a weak one for /g/, a shock without explosion or a simple friction is not correct. Try these words:

- pɪk pick pɪg pig dɒk dock dɒg dog
- bæk back bæg bag lɛk lex lɛg leg
- leɪk lake plɛg plague bræk brack rɒg rug

When /k/ and /g/ are followed by any of the other stop consonants, /p/, /t/, /d/, or by /m/ or /n/ the sounds are made a little differently. This is dealt with on pp. 67-73.

Some of the commonest words containing /k/ are: *ack, act, car, care, carry, cat, catch, case, kiss, kitchen, kit, out, oat, off, some, cook, cover, count, country, cap, cut, bureau, become, bez, breakfast, mouse, pusher, wood, wood, walking (etc.), washer (etc.), wheel, ash, back, black, book, break, dark, drink, lake, like, lock, make, mistake, mast, seek, v'ladik, stick, take.*

Some of the commonest words containing /g/ are: *game, garden, gate, get, gel, glass, go, good, gown, great, green, prep, ground, grow, gun, again, against, age, agree, angry, August, exact, fever, language, require, together, longer, bigger (etc.), tiger, begin, bag, bag, big, dot, job, job, rug, pig, flag, dog.*

/tʃ/ and /dʒ/

As the phonetic symbols suggest, /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ are stop consonants of a

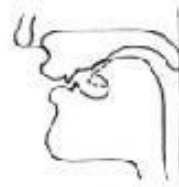


Fig. 19 /tʃ/ and /dʒ/

special kind. The air is trapped as for all the stop consonants, but it is released with definite friction of the /t, d/ kind. The position of the organs of speech for /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ is shown in Figure 19.

NOTICE

- 1 The tongue-tip touches the back part of the alveolar ridge, and the soft palate is raised so that the breath is trapped for a short time.
- 2 The rest of the tongue is in the /t, d/ position (see Figure 15).
- 3 The tongue-tip moves away from the alveolar ridge - sideways (see the dotted lines in Figure 19) and the whole tongue is then in the /t, d/ position, so that a short period of this friction is heard. The friction of /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ is not so long as for /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ close.

Start with /tʃ/: take a long /t/ and then raise the tip of the tongue to the nearest part of the alveolar ridge and cut off the friction, about /t/ again by lowering the tongue-tip. Do this several times. Now start from the closed position, then raise the tongue and say /tʃ/. This is /tʃ/. (English children imitate a steam engine by a series of /tʃ/ sounds.) Now try the word *chip* /tʃɪp/ and don't make the /tʃ/ friction too long; it is rather shorter than in /tʃɪp/. Like /tʃ/, /dʒ/ is a strong sound, whereas /dʒ/ is a weak one. Try /dʒ/ by making the friction very weak and shorter than for /tʃ/. Then try these words:

- tʃɪn chin dʒɪn gin tʃɔ:k choke dʒɔ:k job
- tʃɔ: choice dʒɔ: joe tʃɛ:n chain dʒɛ:n Jane
- tʃɔ: choice dʒɔ: Joe tʃɛ: cheer dʒɛ: jet

Between vowels /dʒ/ is normally voiced, but the important thing is to keep it weak and to keep the friction short; if you also voice it, so much the better. /tʃ/ is still voiceless and voiceless. Try these words:

- ritʃɪz rɪtʃɪskæ:tʃɪg kætʃɪŋfɛ:tʃɪg fɛ:tʃɪŋbæ:tʃɪz bætʃɪz
- Wɒtʃɪŋkɪtʃən kɪtʃɪn
- rɪdʒɪz
- kæ:dʒɪg
- ɛdʒɪg
- bæ:dʒɪz
- ɪdʒɪk
- pɪdʒən
- rɪdʒɪz
- kæ:dʒɪŋ
- ɛdʒɪŋ
- bæ:dʒɪz
- lɒdʒɪŋ
- pɪdʒɪn

In final position /tʃ/ is still strong and voiceless, and it shortens the vowel before it; /dʒ/ is very weak and short, and it lengthens the vowel before it. Try these words:

- rɪtʃ rɪtʃ rɪdʒ rɪdʒ 3 rɪdʒɪ kætʃ kætʃ kætʃ kætʃ kætʃ

S3:tJ* search S3:d3 surge eitj H eid3 age
fetj fetch ed3 edge wotj watch lod3 lodge

There may be a danger for some speakers (e.g. Spaniards) of not distinguishing between /tj/ and /J/, and between /d3/ and /3/. These speakers must be careful to make a definite stop before the friction for /tj/ and /d3/, and no stop at all for /J/ and /3/. Practise with these words:

Ju: shoe

wdJiq washingwij wishIe38 leisureJd p shop

kaejig cashingkaej cashme30 measure

tju: chew

WDtJig watchingwitj witchled 30 ledgertjbp chopkaetjig catchingkaetj
catchmeid30 major

Some of the commonest words containing /tj/ are: chair, chance, change, cheap, chief \ child, choice, choose, church, fortune, future, kitchen, nature, picture, question, catch, each, March, much, reach, rich, speech, stretch, such, teach, touch, watch, which.

Some of the commonest words containing /d^/ are: general, gentleman, January, join, joke, journey, joy, judge, July, jump, June, just, danger, imagine, soldier, subject, age, arrange, bridge, edge, language, large, manage, message, page, strange, village.

3.3 Nasal consonants

There are three phonemes in English which are represented by nasal consonants, /m, n, g/. In all nasal consonants the soft palate is lowered

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Nasal consonants

and at the same time the mouth passage is blocked at some point, so that all the air is pushed out of the nose.

/m/ and /n/

All languages have consonants which are similar to /m / and /n/ in English. The position of the speech organs for these sounds is shown in Figures 20 and 21.

1 The soft palate is lowered for both /m/ and /n/ . ,

2 For H the mouth is blocked by closing the two lips, for /n/ by pressing the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge, and the sides

3 Both /m/ and /n/ are voiced in English, as they are in other languages, and the voiced air passes out through the nose.

Neither of these sounds will cause much difficulty

many languages /n/ is made with the tongue-tip on the teeth themselves

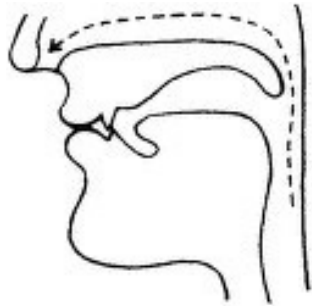


Fig. 20 /m/

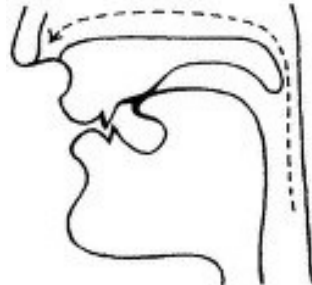


Fig. 21 In/ 49

Consonants

m	ritʃɪn rishes	riʃtʃɪn ridges
	kætʃɪŋ catching	ʃeɪʃɪŋ edging
	fɪʃɪŋ fishing	ɛdʒɪŋ edging
	bɑ:ʃɪz bathes	bɑ:ʃɪz bathes
	wɑ:ʃɪŋ washing	lɔ:ʃɪŋ lodges
	kɪʃɪn kitches	piʃɪn pigeons

In final position /tʃ/ is still strong and voiceless, and it shortens the vowel before it; /ʃ/ is very weak and short, and it lengthens the vowel before it. Try these words:

m	riʃ rich	riʃɪ ridge	ʃeɪtʃ catch	kiʃɪ edge
	si:ʃ search	si:ʃɪ songs	ɪtʃ it	ɛdʒ age
	kiʃ kitch	ɛdʒ edge	wɪtʃ watch	lɔ:ʃ lodge

There may be a danger for some speakers (e.g. Spaniards) of not distinguishing between /tʃ/ and /tʃɪ/ and between /ʃ/ and /ʃɪ/. These speakers must be careful to make a definite stop before the fricative for /tʃ/ and /ʃɪ/, and no stop at all for /tʃɪ/ and /ʃ/. Practice with these words:

m	ʃu: shoe	tʃu: chew
	wɑ:ʃɪ washing	wɑ:ʃɪɪ washing
	wɪʃ wick	wɪtʃ witch
	lɛʃɪn lichen	lɔ:ʃɪn lodges
	ʃɔ:p shop	tʃɔ:p chop
	kætʃɪn catching	kætʃɪɪ catching
	kætʃ catch	kætʃɪ catch
	mɛʃɪn message	mɛʃɪɪ message

Some of the commonest words containing /tʃ/ are: chair, raincoat, change, cheap, chief, child, choice, chance, church, chicken, kitchen, nation, picture, question, catch, each, attack, match, reach, seal, speech, stretch, tick, track, truck, watch, witch.

Some of the commonest words containing /ʃ/ are: general, guarantee, January, jar, job, journey, job, judge, job, just, jar, danger, imagine, soldier, soldier, age, arrange, bridge, edge, language, large, manage, message, page, strange, trifling.

33 Nasal consonants

There are three phonemes in English which are represented by nasal consonants: /m, n, ŋ/. In all nasal consonants the soft palate is lowered

Nasal consonants

and at the same time the mouth passage is blocked at some point, so that all the air is packed out of the nose.

/m/ and /n/

All languages have consonants which are similar to /m/ and /n/ in English. The positions of the speech organs for these sounds is shown in Figures 20 and 21.

NOTICE

1. The soft palate is lowered for both /m/ and /n/.
2. For /m/ the mouth is blocked by closing the two lips, for /n/ by pressing the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge, and the sides of the tongue against the sides of the palate.
3. Both /m/ and /n/ are voiced in English, as they are in other languages, and the voiced air passes out through the nose.

Neither of these sounds will cause much difficulty to most speakers. In many languages /n/ is made with the tongue-tip on the teeth themselves

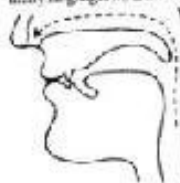


Fig. 22 /m/

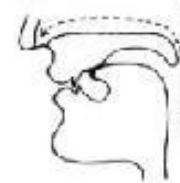


Fig. 23 /n/



rather than on the alveolar ridge, and this should be avoided if possible, but

the use of a dental /n/ in English is hardly noticeable. Speakers of some languages (e.g. Portuguese, Yoruba) may have difficulty with these consonants in final position or before other consonants, for example in the words can kaen and camp kaemp. Instead of making a firm closure with the lips or tongue-tip so that all the breath goes through the nose, they may only lower the soft palate and not make a closure, so that some of the breath goes through the nose but the remainder goes through the mouth. When this happens we have a nasalized vowel. The word can would then be pronounced kae, where ae represents ae pronounced with the soft palate lowered, and camp would be kaep. These speakers must be careful to close the lips firmly for /m/ and put the tongue-tip firmly in contact with the alveolar ridge for /n/ and be sure that the closure is completed every time one of these consonants occurs. Practise these words and make /m/ and /n/ rather long if you have this difficulty:

him him laem lamb ru:m room geim game

limp limp laemp lamp Ump lump geimz games

wAn one tin tin su:n soon main mine

send send sent sent fond fond SA nz sons

When /m/ or /n/ is found before another consonant, as in some of the examples above, the voiced or voiceless nature of the final consonant has an effect on the length of both the vowel and the nasal consonant: this is very similar to the lengthening or shortening of the vowel in examples like seed/seat. In the pairs of words below make the /m/ or /n/ quite long in the first word, before the gentle voiced consonant, and make it short in the second word, before the strong, voiceless con-

sonant:laemz	lambs	laemp	lamp
send	send	sent	sent
djDind	joined	d3Dint	joint
hAmz	hums	hAmp	hump
sinz	sins	sins	since
kampleind	complained	kampleint	complaint



/n/ is often syllabic: that is, it occupies the place at the centre of the syllable which usually is occupied by a vowel. Both the words lesser and lesson have two syllables: in lesser the second syllable is /-sa/, and in lesson the second syllable is often /-sn/ (/n/ means that /n/ is syllabic)

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Nasal consonants

££££

out the vowel the / n/ will have the same length as the final vowel less o. Try

these:

1 1 -i'zn reason i:vn even °^tCn

S P3:sI? Person r ' ■ L ri-dTn region kitjn kitchen

faejn fashion 3kei3n occasion ri.d3n region

L,, word* such as «*».*•*' » Teqoiml

immediately after the « or /d/, that ,s r.tn gotd, Thts requires

special pronunciation of /./ and /d/ and ts deaIt v.tbtonp JO

Eneltsh people sometimes pronounce a syllabic M ■» words UReJZS&Vm*.

r** . b« more often they are pronounced

remember, simple, summer, Some,rose,, woman, cm,

form, from, him, home, room, some, seem,some,sunns, them

“"some of the commonest words containing M are: name, near nearly,

jrxir- ^ ,h" ,htn■

wl

This is the third English nasal consonant and the only one likely to

S. trouble, because many languages do no, b«: —formed like /,/. The position of the speech organs for /,./ shown

Figure 22.

rTheCsEoft palam is lowered and all the air passes on, through the nose,a The mouth is blocked fcy the back of the tongue pressed against die soft palate.

3 The sound is voiced.

Remember firs, of all that the letters ng in words like si,g represent only

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rather than on the alveolar ridge, and this should be avoided if possible, but the use of a dental /n/ in English is hardly noticeable. Speakers of some languages (e.g. Portuguese, Vietnamese) may have difficulty with these consonants in final position or before other consonants, for example in the words *sun* and *complexions*. Instead of making a firm closure with the lips or tongue–lips so that all the breath goes through the nose, they may only cover the soft palate and not make a closure, so that some of the breath goes through the nose but the *voiciness* goes through the mouth. When this happens we have a *nasalised vowel*. The word *sun* would then be pronounced *sʌ̃n*, where *ʌ̃* represents a pronunciation with the soft palate lowered, and *complexions* would be *kəmˈplɛʃ̃n*. These speakers must be careful to close the lips firmly for /m/ and put the tongue-tip firmly in contact with the alveolar ridge for /n/ and be sure that the closure is completed every time one of these consonants occurs. Practise these words and make /m/ and /n/ rather long if you have this difficulty.

hʌm	hɪm	hɛm	lamb	rʌm	room	gɔ:m	gɔ:ɪn
lemp	leɪp	lemp	leɪp	lemp	leɪp	gɔ:m	gɔ:ɪn
wɪn	ɔ:n	ɪn	ɪn	ɪn	ɪn	ɪn	ɪn
send	send	seɪn	seɪt	lənd	fəʊnd	səʊz	səʊn

When /m/ or /n/ is found before another consonant, as in some of the examples above, the voiced or voiceless nature of the final consonant has an effect on the length of both the vowel and the nasal consonant: this is very similar to the lengthening or shortening of the vowel in examples like *real/real*. In the pair of words below make the /m/ or /n/ quite long in the first word, before the gentle voiced consonant, and make it short in the second word, before the strong, voiceless consonant:

leɪm:	leɪmz	leɪp	leɪp
seɪnd	seɪnd	seɪt	seɪt
dʒɔɪnd	ˈdʒɔɪnd	dʒɔɪt	ˈdʒɔɪt
hʌmt	hʌmz	hʌnp	hʌnp
sɪz	sɪz	sɪz	sɪz
kəmplɛnd	ˈkəmplɛnd	kəmplɛnt	ˈkəmplɛnt

/n/ is often syllabic: that is, it occupies the place at the centre of the syllable which usually is occupied by a vowel. Both the words *finger* and *lease* have two syllables: in *finger* the second syllable is /-ɪŋ/, and in *lease* the second syllable is often /-sɪ/ (/ŋ/ means that /n/ is syllabic).

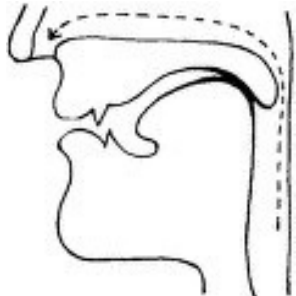


Fig. 22 /rj/

one sound for most English speakers: a few use two sounds and pronounce the word *si gg*, so if you do this it will be perfectly well understood and it is better to pronounce *si Qg* than to confuse this word with *sin*. But it is better still to pronounce *si q* as most English speakers do. Your mirror will be useful: /q/ has the same tongue position as /g/, so start with /g/ and hold this position with the mouth wide open. Notice that the tip of the tongue is low in the mouth and that the back of the tongue is high. Hold this mouth position and at the same time start the humming note that you get with /m/ and /n/. Be sure that the mouth position does not change, and that the tip of the tongue does not rise at all. Continue the sound for three seconds, watching closely, then stop and start again. Keep your mouth wide open each time so that you can see that the tongue is in the right

though the word may also be pronounced *si n*, with a vowel between the /s/ and the /n/. This is true of all the following words, and you may pronounce them with or without the vowel before the /n/. If you leave out the vowel the /n/ will have the same length as the final vowel in *less*. Try these:

past	person	riːp	reason	riːv	even	ɒŋ	often
fɪʃ	fishion	əkeɪp	occasion	stɪdʒ	region	kɪʃn	kitchen

In words such as *action*, *garden* syllabic /n/ is almost always used immediately after /tʃ/ or /dʒ/, that is *ntʃ*, *gdʒ*. This requires a special pronunciation of /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ and is dealt with on p. 75.

English people sometimes pronounce a syllabic /m/ in words like *blower*, *rhythm*, *blower*, *rhythm*, but more often they use pronounced *blower*, *rhythm*, and that is what you should do.

Some of the commonest words containing /m/ are: *make, man, many, many, matter, may, me, meat, me, middle, mind, more, mouth, move, much, mud, my, music, among, common, complete, family, promise, remember, simple, summer, tomorrow, woman, an, arm, because, come, from, form, from, him, home, room, same, seem, soon, sum, them, time, warm, welcome.*

Some of the commonest words containing /n/ are: *name, man, nearly, need, neither, never, new, next, nice, night, nine, no, nose, not, noun, office, now, number, know, knee, and, answer, any, behind, country, dress, through, faith, favour, general, January, name, want, penny, since, an, use, water, again, down, less, legs, between, can, down, down, green, in, job, last, on, out, rain, run, sit, sit, soon, out, then, ten, than, then.*

/ŋ/

This is the third English nasal consonant and the only one likely to cause trouble, because many languages do not have a consonant formed like /ŋ/. The position of the speech organs for /ŋ/ is shown in Figure 12.

- NOTICE
- 1 The soft palate is lowered and all the air passes out through the nose.
 - 2 The mouth is blocked by the back of the tongue pressed against the soft palate.
 - 3 The sound is voiced.

Remember first of all that the letter *ng* in words like *ring* represents only

position. At the end of the sound just let it die away into silence with no suggestion of /g/. When you can do this easily, do the same thing with the teeth closer together in a more normal position, but be sure that the tip of the tongue stays in its low position. Now try the following words: make the final /g/ long and let it die away into silence:

LssJ siq sing saeg sang sdq song sag sung
rig ring raeg rang mg wrong rAg rung

/g / does not occur at the beginning of words in English, but it does occur between vowels, where it is more difficult than in final position. The difficulty is to avoid putting in a /g/ after the /g/, and pronouncing sigga instead of siga. If you do pronounce sigga it does not matter very much because some English speakers also do it; but most do not, so the /g/ should be avoided if possible. Go from the /g/ to the following vowel very smoothly, with no jerk or bang. Try these examples, slowly at first, then more quickly:

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Nasal consonants



sigga singer hxgAp hangupsi gig singing brig it bring itbgig longing
log agau long agom g age n wrong again
haegig hanging
amAgAdaz among others baegig banging



The most important thing is to keep /n/ and /g/ separate and not to confuse them. Try the following pairs and be careful to keep the tongue-tip down for /n/:

sin sin sig sing SAn son SAg sung
raen ran raeg rang sina sinner sigga singer
tAnz tons tAgz tongues

In some words /g/ is normally pronounced after /g/ before a following vowel, for example in aegga anger, fiQg * finger. A useful general rule is that if the word is formed from a verb, no /g/ is pronounced, as with sigga, haegig, but if not, /g/ is pronounced, as in strogga, formed from the adjective stmg strong, and aegga anger, which is not formed out of a shorter word. Notice the difference between logga longer formed from the adjective long, and togig longing formed from the verb long. /g/ is never pronounced before a following consonant, for example: sigzsings, baegd banged.

If you have the tendency to nasalize the vowel instead of pronouncing /ŋ/, mentioned on p. 50, you must be very careful to make a firm contact with the back of the tongue and force all the air to go through the nose. .

Some of the commonest words containing /q/ are: anger, anxious, drink, finger, hungry, language, sink, thank, think, among(st), bring, during, evening, hang, -ing, long, morning, ring, sing, song, spring, string, strong, thing, wrong, young.

3.4 Lateral consonant

One English consonant /l/ - is formed laterally, that is, instead of the breath passing down the centre of the mouth, it passes round the sides of an obstruction set up in the centre. The position of the organs of speech for /l/ as in *live* is shown in Figure 23.

NOTICE

- 1 The soft palate is raised. ,
- 2 The tongue-tip (and the sides of the tongue-blade which cannot be

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Consonants



Fig. 22 /l/

one sound for most English speakers: a few use two sounds and pronounce the word *ring*, to if you do this it will be perfectly well understood it is better to pronounce *ring* than to confuse this word with *sin*. But it is better still to pronounce *ring* as most English speakers do. Your mirror will be useful: /l/ has the same tongue position as /g/, so start with /g/ and hold this position with the mouth wide open. Notice that the tip of the tongue is low in the mouth and that the back of the tongue is high. Hold this mouth position and at the same time start the humming note that you get with /m/ and /n/. Be sure that the mouth position does not change, and that the tip of the tongue does not rise at all. Continue the sound for three seconds, watching closely, then stop, and start again. Keep your mouth wide open each time so that you can see that the tongue is in the right position. At the end of the sound just let it die away into silence with no suggestion of /g/. When you can do this easily, do the same thing with the following words: make the final /l/ long and let it die away into silence:

l sin sing sin sing sin song sin song
ring ring ring ring ring wrong ring wrong

/l/ does not occur at the beginning of words in English, but it does occur between vowels, where it is more difficult than in final position. The difficulty is to avoid putting in a /g/ after the /l/, and you can avoid *ring* instead of *ring*. If you do pronounce *ring* it does not matter very much because some English speakers do it, but most do not, so the /g/ should be avoided as far as possible. Go from the /l/ to the following vowel very smoothly, with no jerk or bang. Try these examples, slowly at first, then more quickly:

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Initial consonants

l sin	sin	ring	ring	sin	sin	sin	song
ring	ring	ring	ring	sin	sin	sin	song
tan	tan	tan	tan	tan	tan	tan	tan

The most important thing is to keep /r/ and /l/ separate and not to confuse them. Try the following pairs and be careful to keep the tongue-tip down for /r/:

l sin	sin	ring	ring	sin	sin	sin	song
ring	ring	ring	ring	sin	sin	sin	song
tan	tan	tan	tan	tan	tan	tan	tan

In some words /l/ is normally pronounced after /r/ before a following vowel, for example in *ring* *anger* *finger*. A useful general rule is that if the word is formed from a verb, no /r/ is pronounced, as with *ring*, *hang*, but if not, /r/ is pronounced, as in *struggle*, formed from the adjective *strong* *strong* and *struggle*, which is not formed out of a shorter word. Notice the difference between *long* *long* formed from the adjective *long*, and *long* *long* formed from the verb *long*. /l/ is never pronounced before a following consonant, for example: *ring* *ring*, *long* *long*.

If you have the tendency to nasalize the vowel instead of pronouncing /l/, mentioned on p. 36, you must be very careful to make a firm contact with the back of the tongue and force all the air to go through the nose.

Some of the commonest words containing /l/ are: *anger*, *anxious*, *drink*, *finger*, *hungry*, *language*, *sin*, *thank*, *think*, *among(st)*, *bring*, *during*, *evening*, *hang*, *-ing*, *long*, *morning*, *ring*, *ring*, *song*, *spring*, *string*, *strong*, *thing*, *wrong*, *young*.

3.4 Lateral consonant

One English consonant /l/ is formed laterally, that is, instead of the breath passing down the centre of the mouth, it passes round the sides of an obstruction set up in the centre. The position of the organs of speech for /l/ as in *live* is shown in Figure 23.

NOTICE

- 1 The soft palate is raised.
- 2 The tongue-tip (and the sides of the tongue-blade which cannot be

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seen in the diagram) are in firm contact with the alveolar ridge, obstructing the centre of the mouth.

3 The sides of the remainder of the tongue are not in contact with the sides of the palate, so air can pass between the sides of the tongue and the palate, round the central obstruction formed by the tip and blade of the tongue and so out of the

mouth.

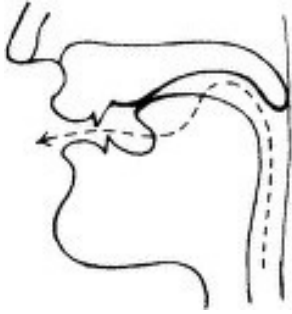


Fig. 23 /l/ as in live

4 The sound is voiced and there is no friction (except when it is immediately after /p/ or /k/ see pp. 40 and 45).

Most languages have a sound like English /l/, at least before vowels, and this can be used in such words as live, last, look, follow. Some languages, however (Japanese, for instance), do not have a satisfactory /l/ and such students must be very careful to make a firm contact of the tongue-tip and the sides of the blade with the alveolar ridge. If this is difficult for you try biting the tongue-tip firmly between top and bottom teeth; this will make a central obstruction and the air will be forced to pass over the sides of the tongue. In passing to the vowel the tongue-tip is removed from the alveolar ridge quite suddenly and the sound ends sharply; it may help to put in a very quick /d/ sound between the /l/ and the following vowel: live, etc.

Practise the following words, making the /l/ long and the central obstruction very firm to begin with:

live leaf letter lost loose

learn late like loud

When you are satisfied with /l/ in this position try these words, and be sure that the contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge is complete :

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Lateral consonant

feel

fellow foolish

holiday believe allow

Once you have a satisfactory /l/ before vowels you can use it in all positions without fear of being misunderstood; but many English people use different /l/ sounds before vowels and in other positions.

For any /l/ the tongue-tip makes the usual firm contact, but before consonants and in final position the remainder of the tongue takes up a shape like that required for the vowel /u/ or /ʊ/; before vowels the remainder of the tongue is placed as for the vowel /i/. So the /l/ has a

different ‘colouring’ in the two cases.

Make the tongue-tip contact firmly, and hold it whilst you say /i/ as in sit the two things must go on at the same time, not one after the other; this is the /I/ before vowels and it is known as the clear /I/. Now hold the contact firmly still and at the same time say the vowel /u/, as in put; this is the /I/ before consonants and in final positions, e.g. in fill and field filled, and it is called the dark /I/. Many English speakers use only a clear /I/ in all positions, and many others use only a dark /I/ which is why it is not very important for you to learn both but most speakers of the kind of English described here do use both kinds of /I/. The words given for practice above would all contain clear /I/, because a vowel immediately follows (and this is true whether the vowel is in the same word or not, so both fill and field have clear /I/)

Whether or not you decide to use the English dark /I/ in the positions mentioned, some of you (e.g. Japanese, Cantonese) will need to be very careful with /I/ before consonants and in final position. The danger, and it is greater here than elsewhere, is that you do not make a firm contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge, the result being either some sort of vowel sound fiu, and fiud for fill and filled, or some sort of /r/-sound fir and fird. The sound in English, whether it is dark or clear, must be a lateral, it must have the firm central obstruction and air escaping over the sides of the tongue. In the words below make the /l/ very carefully and be sure that the tongue tip makes full and firm contact.

Q a:l all	ful	full
bil bill	fill	feel
aul owl	Dll	oil
fuilz fools	belt belt	
mailz miles		
t u il tool sel sell		
teil tail mail mile		
loild called pulz pulls		
fi :ld field kauld cold		

son in the diagram) are in firm contact with the alveolar ridge, obstructing the centre of the mouth.
 3 The sides of the remainder of the tongue are not in contact with the sides of the palate, so air can pass between the sides of the tongue and the palate, round the central obstruction formed by the tip and blade of the tongue and so out of the mouth.



Fig. 23 /j/ or /j/

4 The sound is called a *laryngeal fricative* (except when it is immediately after /g/ or /k/ see pp. 40 and 41).

Most languages have a sound like English /j/, at least before vowels, and this can be used in such words as *few, leave, less, look, follow, follow*. Some languages, however (Japanese, for instance), do not have a satisfactory /j/ and such students must be very careful to make a firm contact of the tongue-tip and the sides of the blade with the alveolar ridge. If this is difficult for you try holding the tongue-tip firmly between top and bottom teeth; this will make a central obstruction and the air will be forced to pass over the sides of the tongue. In passing to the vowel the tongue tip is removed from the alveolar ridge quite suddenly and the sound ends sharply; it may help to put in a very quick /d/-sound between the /j/ and the following vowel: 'few *leav*, etc.

Practise the following words, making the /j/ long and the central obstruction very faint to begin with.

tef leaf	leu leave	lu:k look	wa: wash
li:n lean	le:t late	li:k lice	and loud

When you are satisfied with /j/ in this position try these words, and be sure that the contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge is complete:

f:ly feeling
 fe:lə follow
 tʌ:kj football

ho:ld holiday
 bi:liv believe
 aɪə allow

Once you have a satisfactory /j/ before vowels you can use it in all positions without fear of being misunderstood, but many English people are different. /j/-sound before vowels and in other positions. For any /j/ the tongue-tip makes the usual firm contact, but before consonants and in final position the remainder of the tongue takes up a shape like that required for the vowel /y/ or /ɨ/, before vowel the remainder of the tongue is placed as for the vowel /i/. So the /j/ has a different 'colouring' with two uses.

Make the tongue-tip contact firmly, and hold it while you say /j/ as in (a) the two things must go on at the same time, not one after the other, this is the /j/ before vowels and is known as the *clear /j/*. Now hold the contact firmly until and in the same time say the vowel /i/, as in (b) this is the /j/ before consonants and in final position, e.g. in *feel* and *follow*, and is called the *dark /j/*. Many English speakers use only a clear /j/ in all positions, and many others use only a dark /j/ which is why it is not very important for you to learn both. But most speakers of the kind of English described here do use both kinds of /j/. The words given for practice above would all contain clear /j/, because a vowel immediately follows (and this is true whether the vowel is in the same word or not, so both *feeling* and *football* have clear /j/).

Whether or not you decide to use the English dark /j/ in the positions mentioned, some of you (e.g. Japanese, Chinese) will need to be very careful with /j/ before consonants and in final position. The danger, and it is greater here than elsewhere, is that you do not make a firm contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge, the result being either some sort of vowel sound (as in *feel* and *follow*), or some sort of /j/ sound (as in *feel*). The sound in English, whether it is dark or clear, must be a lateral, it must have the firm central obstruction and air escaping over the sides of the tongue. In the words below make the /j/ very carefully and be sure that the tongue tip makes full and firm contact.

ɔ:l all	hɔ:l full	ru:l real	se:l sell
bi:l bill	fi:l feel	se:l sail	me:l mile
ɔ:l owl	ɔ:l oil	ɔ:l called	po:l pull
hɔ:l football	hɔ:l hold	fi:l field	ke:l cold
me:l milk			

HI is very often syllabic, like /n/ (p. 50), that is, it occurs in a position more usually occupied by a vowel; in words such as parcel, level, puzzle, lethal, ruffle most English people would pronounce pa:sj, levj, pʌzj, li:0j, rʌf j/ with syllabic /j/, but it is also possible to pronounce parssl, etc., so do whichever is easiest.

After the stop consonants, however, as in trouble, apple, bottle, middle, eagle, it is less desirable to have a vowel between the stop and the /j/.

Start with apple /æpl/: as soon as the lips are opened the /j/ is sounded immediately. Do the same with trʌbj. For taekj, hold the /k/ until the tip of the tongue is firmly in position for /j/, then release /k/. Do the same with i:gj. When /l/ follows /t/ and /d/, the stop sounds have a special release, which is dealt with on p. 72. If a vowel creeps in between any of the stop consonants and /j/, you will not be misunderstood, but this is not the usual English habit. Syllabic /l/ is usually dark /l/, but again the most important thing is to make an /l/-sound of some sort. Other examples of words containing syllabic /l/ are:

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------------|-------------|
| bi:tafl beautiful | kaemj camel | |
| Dlf[| awful | kʌpj couple |
| traevj | travel | baibl Bible |

wisl	whistle	tjAkj chuckle
daezl	dazzle	g!g! giggle
tjaenj	channel	

Some students (e.g. Cantonese) may have difficulty in distinguishing between /l/ and /n/ in initial position; this leads to pronouncing laif lifeas naif knife or nDt not as tat lot, and must be avoided. Remember that /n/ is entirely nasal, all the air goes out of the nose; but /l/ is entirely oral, all the air goes out of the mouth. Try this: say a long /n/, and, whilst you are saying it, nip your nostrils so that the air cannot escape from the nose; this will interrupt the sound. Now say /l/ and do the same thing: if you are making /l/ correctly there will be no change at all; if there is a change it means that some air, or perhaps all the air, is passing through the nose, which is wrong for /l/. Do the same thing with a long /s/, and notice that nipping the nose makes no difference to the sound; then try /l/ again, until you are sure that you can always make it without any air going through the nose. It will be helpful to think of a slight /d/-sound in going from the /l/ to the following vowel, as mentioned above I daif, I tat, etc. When you are sure that your /n/ is entirely nasal and your /l/ entirely oral, practise distinguishing these pairs:

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■

Lateral consonant

lau low nau no li'd lead ni.d need|

I ait light nait night leibo labour neibo neighbour

let let net net hp lip niP mP

Some of the commonest words containing /l/ are: lady land language, last, late, laugh, lead, learn, leave, left, less, let, like, listen, little, hue, long, lot, lack, lose, love, low, allow, along, almost, already always, cold, colour difficult, early, eleven, else, fault -ly, help, o'clock, old, self, yellow, able all, beautiful, fall, feel, fill, full, girl, meal, mile, parcel, people, possible, real, school, shall, still, table, tell, until, well.

3.5 Gliding consonants

There are three consonants which consist of a quick, smooth, non-friction glide towards a following vowel sound, the consonants /j/,

w, r/.

1)1



This consonant is a quick glide from the position of the vowel /i:/ or /i/ to any other vowel. We usually transcribe the word yes a, jes, but we might easily transcribe it i:es or ies, on the understanding that the /j/ or /i/ is very short and that we move smoothly and quickly to the following /e/. Try the following words

kampjuita computerkju: queue
akjuiz accuse

Some English people use /tj/ instead of /tj/ and /d 3/ instead of/dj/,pronouncing tjuizdi mstead of tjuizdi Tuesday, and d3u: instead ofdju: due, but this is not generally accepted and should be avoided.

Most American speakers do not use /j/ in words where it wouldfollow/t, d, n, I, s, 0/, pronouncing turn tune, du: due, nu: new,aebsaluit absolute, suit suit, and inGuiziaezam enthusiasm. R.P. speakersalways use /j/ after /t, d, n/ in such words, but some do not use it after/I, s, 0/. If your model is American, donor pronounce/j/ after theseconsonants; if not, it is probably better to use /j/ after all of them, /j/does not occur in final position.

Some of the commonest words containing /j/ are: yard, year, yellow,yes, yesterday, yet, you, young, your, use, usual, useful, Europe, amuse,beautiful, cure, during, duty, educate, excuse, failure, few, huge, January,knew, music, new, suit, Tuesday, value.

M

This consonant consists of a quick glide from the vowel /u:/ or /u/ towhatever vowel follows. It is much more difficult than /j/ becausemany languages do not have an independent /w/. But it is not difficultto learn to say. Start with /u:/ or /u/ and follow this immediately bythe vowel /a:/ this is the word wa: war. The /w/ part must be shortand weak, as with /j/, but the lips must be rounded quite firmly evenEnglish people move their lips noticeably for /w/!

Try these words in the same way, beginning each with a very shortweak/u:/ or /u/ with the lips well rounded:

wotj watch win win wea where
wet wet wi: we wud wood
wait white weit wait wul wool

When /w/ follows a consonant it is made in the same way; but the lipsare rounded ready for /w/ before the previous consonant is finished.

So in swi:t sweet the lips gradually become rounded during the /s/, andwhen it ends they are firmly rounded ready for /w/. This is true for allthe following words; try them:

swiit sweet swim swim swet sweat
swea swear dwelig dwelling

You must remember too that when /w/ immediately follows /t/ or /k/the glide is not voiced, though the hps are again rounded during thestop consonant. Try the following words, round the hps early, andblow out breath through them:

[sD twais twice twenti twenty twelv twelve twin twm
kwait quite kwik quick kwaiat quiet kwim queen



/w/ is particularly difficult for those (like Germans, Dutch, many Indians) who have a sound like English /v/ but none like /w/. These speakers tend to replace /w/ by /v/ and say vel instead of wel well This must be avoided and you can do this by concentrating on pairs like those below. For the /v/ words, keep the lips flat and use the upper teeth to make some friction; for the /w/ words there is no friction and the lips

are well rounded.

V is veal veal vary

W is worse vain vine

will wheel vail vile

weari wary veil veil

wain winewail whilewell wail



When you are able to make /w/ easily, be careful not to use it instead of /v/. It is just as bad to say wen for very as to say vel for well.

Now try the following similar pairs with the /w/ and the /v/ between vowels, taking care to make a good difference:

riw Did reward fbiwad forward awei away haiwei highway

riviil reveal hDvad hovered aveil avail daiva diver

Words such as which, when, where, why (but not who) are pronounced with simple /w/ in R.P.: witj, wen, wea, wai, etc. In some other kind of English (e.g. American, Scottish, Irish) they begin with /hw/. If your model is one of these, you can begin these words with a completely voiceless /w/ instead of the voiced one.

/w/ does not occur in final position.

Some of the commonest words containing /w/ are: one, wait, walk, want, warm, wash, watch, water, way, we, week, well, wet, what, when, why, will, wish, with, woman, word, work, always, away, between, quarter, question, quick, quite, sweet, swim, twelve, twenty, twice.

/w/

This is the third of the gliding consonants, but it does not resemble one

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ʒjʌzɪz Tuesday	kəmˈpjʊtəz computer
tʃʊzɪz sure	kjuːzɪz queue
pʊzɪz pure	akjuːzɪz accuse

Some English people use /tʃ/ instead of /tj/ and /dʒ/ instead of /dj/, pronouncing tʃʌzɪz instead of tjʌzɪz Tuesday, and dʒjuːzɪz instead of djjuːzɪz. Most American speakers do not use /j/ in words where it would follow /t, d, n, l, s, ʃ/. Pronouncing tʃʌzɪz sure, dʒjuːzɪz computer, nɪʃnəlɪz another, tʃʊzɪz sure, and ɪnˈfɔːrmeɪʃnzɪzɪn mɪʃnɪzɪn. B.P.L. speakers always use /j/ after /t, d, n/ in such words, but some do not use it after /l, s, ʃ/. If your model is American, do not pronounce /j/ after these consonants. If not, it is probably better to use /j/ after all of them. /j/ does not occur in final position.

Some of the commonest words containing /j/ are: yard, year, yellow, yes, yesterday, yet, you, young, your, sea, steel, wife, Europe, music, beautiful, can, during, day, dance, eleven, future, five, huge, January, June, music, new, not, Tuesday, value.

/w/

This consonant consists of a quick glide from the vowel /aʊ/ or /ɔ:/ to whatever vowel follows. It is much more difficult than /j/ because many languages do not have an independent /w/. But it is not difficult to learn to say. Start with /w/ or /ɔ:/ and follow this immediately by the vowel /aʊ/ this is the word wɔːt. The /w/ part must be short and weak as with /j/, but the lips must be rounded quite firmly – even English people move their lips noticeably for /w/.

Try these words in the same way, beginning each with a very short weak /w/ or /ɔ:/ with the lips well rounded:

wɔːt watch	wɔːt win	wɔːt where
wet wet	wet we	wet wood
wait white	wait wait	wet wool

When /w/ follows a consonant it is made in the same way: but the lips are rounded ready for /w/ before the previous consonant is finished. So in *swit* /sweɪt/ the lips gradually become rounded during the /s/, and when it ends they are firmly rounded ready for /w/. This is true for all the following words; try them:

swit sweet	swim swim	swet sweat
swat swat	dswɪŋ dwelling	

You must remember too that when /w/ (immediately) follows /t/ or /k/ the glide is not voiced, though the lips are again rounded during the stop consonant. Try the following words, round the lips early, and blow out breath through them:

twat twat	twent twenty	twelv twelve	twit twin
twat quiet	twik quick	twice quiet	twim queen

/w/ is particularly difficult for those (like German, Dutch, many Indians) who have a sound like English /v/ but none like /w/. These speakers tend to replace /w/ by /v/ and say *veɪt* instead of *wɔːt*. This must be avoided and you can do this by concentrating on pairs like those below. For the /v/ words, keep the lips flat and use the upper teeth to make some friction; for the /w/ words there is no friction and the lips are well rounded.

vat vat	vat vote	vam vine	vaw vat
vid veil	wid wheel	vad vic	wad wash
vaw vary	waw wary	vet veil	wet wall

When you are able to make /w/ easily, be careful not to use it instead of /v/. It is just as bad to say *wɔːt* for *veɪt* as to say *veɪt* for *wɔːt*.

Now try the following similar pairs with the /w/ and the /v/ between vowels, taking care to make a good difference:

rwat reward	rwat reward
fwat forward	hwat hawred
awet away	awet avad
hawet highway	dwet drove

Words such as *which, when, where, why* (but not *who*) are pronounced with simple /w/ in B.P. *-wɪt, wɛn, wɛə, wɛə, waɪ* etc. In some other kinds of English (e.g. American, Scottish, Irish) they begin with /hw/. If your model is one of these, you can begin these words with a completely voiceless /w/ instead of the voiced one.

/w/ does not occur in final position. Some of the commonest words containing /w/ are: *net, wait, milk, west, warm, wash, watch, water, way, we, week, well, wet, what, when, why, will, work, woman, word, work, away, away, better, power, quiet, quick, quite, row, row, twelve, twenty, two*.

/r/

This is the third of the gliding consonants, but it does not resemble one

of the English vowels as /j/ and /w/ do. The position of the speechorgans for /r/ is shown in Figure 24.

NOTICE

- 1 The tongue has a curved shape with the tip pointing towards the hard palate at the back of the alveolar ridge, the front low and the back rather high.
- 2 The tongue-tip is not close enough to the palate to cause friction.
- 3 The lips are rather rounded, especially when /r/ is at the beginning of words.
- 4 The soft palate is raised; and voiced air flows quietly between the tongue-tip and palate with no friction.

Foreign learners often replace this sound by the sound which is represented by the letter r in their own language. Sometimes they use a rolled sound in which the tip of the tongue taps very quickly several times against the alveolar ridge (Italian, Arabic, Russian) or the uvula taps against the back of the tongue in a similar way (Dutch, French, German). Sometimes they use a friction sound with the back of the tongue close to the soft palate and uvula (Danish, French, German). Such sounds are perfectly well understood by English people, but of course they sound foreign.

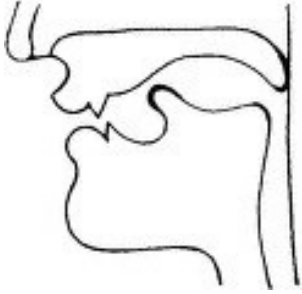


Fig. 24 /r/

Try approaching the English sound from a /w/. Get the speechorgans ready for /w/ (remember that this is a short /u/-or /u:/-sound),and then curl the tip of the tongue back until it is pointing at the hardpalate, quite a long way behind the alveolar ridge. Now changesmoothly and without friction to the following vowel, as in red red.

Be careful, if you have an /r/-sound in your language, not to make it atthe same time as the English sound: try to think of English /r/ as a new

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Gliding consonants



sound altogether. Try these words and be sure that the tongue-tip iswell back in the mouth at the beginning of the glide:

ri:d read red red rAn run ro: raw

ru:d rude reis race raund round re* rare



Between vowels the sound is the same except that the lips are not rounded. Try the following, and concentrate on getting the tongue-tip up and back, then smoothly down and forward again:

veri very maeri marry borau borrow hAri hurry
 araiv arrive karekt correct araud around arest arrest



In R.P. /r/ only occurs before vowels, never before consonants, so words like learn, sort, farm do not contain /r/ (lɜːn, salt, fɑːm). Other varieties of English pronounce /r/ in these words (e.g. American, Irish, Scottish), so if your model is one of these, you will pronounce /r/ before consonants; if it is R.P. you will not. At the end of words R.P. has /r/ only if the immediately following word begins with a vowel; so the word never, if it occurs before a pause or before a word beginning with a consonant (as in never better), is pronounced neva with no /r/ in R.P. But in never again where it is immediately followed by a vowel /r/ is pronounced, neva ɹeɪn. This is called the linking /r/; some R.P. speakers do not use it (and say neva ɹeɪn), so you may do this if you find it easier, but most people do use it.

Try these phrases, either with or without the /r/:

betər ɒf bɛtər ɒf bɪs ɪt ɪz hɪə ɪt ɪz
 foːr dː faɪv fɔːr ɔːr fɪv puːr ɔːld tɒm pɔːr ɔːld tɒm

It is quite usual to hear this linking /r/ following the vowel /a/ even when there is no letter r in the spelling, as in Africa and Asia aɪfrɪkər aɪneɪjə, Linda and Ann lɪndər ən aɪn. Some English speakers dislike this so-called ‘intrusive /r/’ so it is perhaps best for you not to use it. You may also hear it after the vowel /aː/ as in I saw a man aɪ sɑːr ə mæn, but here very many English speakers disapprove of it, and you should not use it.

There is danger of confusing /r/ with /l/ (e.g. for Cantonese and Japanese speakers) and also with /n/ (Cantonese). Remember that for /n/ and /l/ there is a very firm contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge (/n/ being nasal, and /l/ oral, see p. 56), but for /r/ the tongue-tip does not touch the palate at all it is purely a gliding sound, with no sudden change. Try the following, and concentrate on the very firm contact for /l/ and /n/, and a smooth glide (like /w/) for /r/:

of the English vowel as /f/ and /v/. The position of the speech organs for /r/ is shown in Figure 24.

NOTICE

- 1 The tongue has a curved shape with the tip pointing toward the hard palate at the back of the alveolar ridge, the front low and the back rather high.
- 2 The tongue-tip is not close enough to the palate to cause friction.
- 3 The lips are either rounded, especially when /r/ is at the beginning of words.
- 4 The soft palate is raised; and voiced air flows quietly between the tongue-tip and palate with no friction.

Foreign learners often replace this sound by the sound which is represented by the letter r in their own language. Sometimes they use a rhotic sound in which the tip of the tongue taps very quickly several times against the alveolar ridge (Italian, Arabic, Russian) or the uvula tips against the back of the tongue in a similar way (Dutch, French, German). Sometimes they use a friction sound with the back of the tongue close to the soft palate and uvula (Danish, French, German). Such sounds are perfectly well understood by English people, but of course they sound foreign.



Fig. 24 /r/

Try approaching the English sound from a /w/. Get the speech organs ready for /w/ (remember that this is a short /u/-or /ʊ/-sound), and then curl the tip of the tongue back until it is pointing at the hard palate, quite a long way behind the alveolar ridge. Now change smoothly and without friction to the following vowel, as in red /r/. Be careful if you have an /r/-sound in your language, not to make it at the same time as the English sound; try to think of English /r/ as a new

sound altogether. Try these words and be sure that the tongue-tip is well back in the mouth at the beginning of the glide:

r id	road	red	end	PAR	RED	TO: DEW
'red	rude	read	raid	raind	round	row: row

Between vowels the sound is the same except that the lips are not rounded. Try the following, and concentrate on getting the tongue-tip up and back, then smoothly down and forward again:

v ers	very	vers	very	heras	horrow	hurs	hurry
arav	arive	arere	arere	arere	arere	arere	arere

In R.P. /r/ only occurs before vowels, never before consonants, so words like *learn, sort, farm* do not contain /r/ (Am. and form). Other varieties of English pronounce /r/ in these words (e.g. American, Irish, Scottish), so if your model is one of these, you will pronounce /r/ before consonants; if it is R.P. you will not. At the end of words R.P. /r/ only if the immediately following word begins with a vowel; so the word *serve*, if it occurs before a pause or before a word beginning with a consonant (as in *never better*), is pronounced *serva* with no /r/ in R.P. Even *where* again where r is immediately followed by a vowel /r/ is pronounced, never again. This is called the falling /r/, same R.P. speakers do not use it (and say *never again*), so you may do this if you find it easier, but most people do not.

Try these phrases, either with or without the /r/:

b eter	ed	betre	off	hur	it	heretis				
for	a	far	or	five	pose	and	rom	poor	old	Tom

It is quite usual to hear this falling /r/ following the vowel /ə/ even when there is no letter r in the spelling, as in *African* and *Asian* (not *afrikan* or *azijs*, *Liado* and *Asia* under *swan*). Some English speakers dislike this so-called 'intrusive /r/', so it is perhaps best for you not to use it. You may also hear it after the vowel /ɔ:/ as in *four* a *hour* at *two* a *man*, but here very many English speakers disapprove of it, and you should not use it.

There is danger of confusing /r/ with /r/ (e.g. for Cantonese and Japanese speakers) and also with /r/ (Cantonese). Remember that for /r/ and /r/ there is a very firm contact of the tongue-tip with the alveolar ridge /r/ being nasal, and /r/ oral, see p. 56), but for /r/ the tongue-tip does not touch the palate at all: it is purely a gliding sound, with no sudden change. Try the following, and concentrate on the very firm contact: for /r/ and /r/, and a smooth glide (like /w/) for /r/:

Consonants

I ait light nait night rait right

lau low nau no rau row

li:d lead ni:d need ri:d read

Ink lock nDk knock rok rock

The difficulty is greatest between vowels, so be most careful with the following:

Q bell belly beni Bennie beri berry

kail as callus kainaz comers kairas chorus

spilit spill it spin it spin it spirit spirit

tela teller tena tenor tera terror



After /p, t, k/ there is no voice in /r/. The tongue position is the same, but pure breath is pushed through the space between the tongue-tip and the hard palate, causing friction. Try with /p/ first; close the lips for /p/, then put the tongue in position for /r/, and, as the lips open for /p/, push breath strongly over the tongue-tip so that you can hear friction before the following vowel:

prei praypraem pramapruiv approve

praud proudkampres compressdipraiv deprive



Now try /kr/: take up the position for /k/; then put the tongue-tip in position for /r/ and, when the /k/ is released, push breath through to cause friction:

kriim cream kruul cruel

kraek crack igkriis increase

rikruit recruit dikriis decrease

When /t/ occurs before /r/, the tongue-tip for /t/ is placed behind the alveolar ridge, on the front of the hard palate, so that when it is removed the tongue is immediately in position for the friction of /r/. Be sure that in the following words the tongue-tip is a good deal further back than usual for /t/:

LiJ tri: tree trai try tru: true trASt trust

atraekt attract ritriit retreat intruid intrude

This /tr/ combination may be confused with /tj/; notice that the friction of the voiceless /r/ is lower in pitch than that of /J/. Try the

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Gliding consonants



following pairs and be careful to put the tongue-tip in the correct /r/ position for /tr/:

tru: true tju: chew trip trip tjip chip

trem train tfein chain traep trap tjaep chap



In the combination /dr/ too the tip of the tongue is further back than usual for /d/ and there is friction as the voiced air passes over the tongue-tip for the /r/. Try these words.

dri'.m dream drai dry dres dress drop drop

dn: draw dru:p droop adres address



And the following pairs must be distinguished in the same way as /tr/ and /tj/:

drein drain d3ein Jane dn: draw dp: jaw

dru: drew d3u: Jew drAQk drunk d3Ai]k junk

Some of the commonest words containing /r/ are: rain, rather, reach, read, ready, real, red, remember, rest, right, road, roof, room, round, rule, run, write, wrong, agree, already, arrange, borrow, bread, bring, cross, direct, dress, drink, every, foreign, from, great, interest, marry, pretty, price, serious, sorry, story, terrible, true, try, very, worry.

3.6 Exercises

1 Study each section carefully and decide what your difficulties are

Which of these difficulties are phoneme difficulties (e.g. confusing /s/ and /ʒ/)

or /t/ and /d/), and which are purely sound difficulties (e.g. pronouncing /t/ with the tongue-tip on the teeth instead of on the alveolar ridge) ? Which difficulties will you concentrate on:

2 During the time which you give to listening to English, concentrate for a short time on listening to one of your difficulties (perhaps the difference between /s/ and /θ/ or the sound of /h/). When you have really heard the sound(s), go back to the lists of words in the different sections and try to make the sound exactly the same as you heard.

Use a tape-recorder to help you, if you can. . . ,

3 Take any passage of English and mark any one of your difficulties the way through (e.g. underline every / or r or both). Then read the passage aloud, and try to say particular sounds perfectly. Don't worry about the others at that moment. Gradually do this for all your difficulties.

4 Do a little practice each day if you possibly can.

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Consonants

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lit light	mat night	rat right
low low	no no	row row
lid lead	hid head	rid read
lot lock	not neck	rot rock

The difficulty is greatest between vowels, so be most careful with the following:

ball belly	bat battle	bat battle	bat battle
call call	call call	call call	call call
spin spin	spin spin	spin spin	spin spin
spin spin	spin spin	spin spin	spin spin

After /p, t, k/ there is no voice in /t/. The tongue position is the same, but pure breath is pushed through the space between the tongue-tip and the hard palate, causing friction. Try with /p/ first; close the lips for /p/, then part the tongue in position for /t/, and, as the lips open for /p/, push the air in singly over the tongue-tip so that you can hear friction before the following vowel:

pat pat	pat pat
pat pat	pat pat
pat pat	pat pat

Now try /k/: take up the position for /k/, then put the tongue-tip in position for /t/ and, when the /k/ is released, push breath through to cause friction:

krum drum	krum drum
krum drum	krum drum
krum drum	krum drum

When /s/ occurs before /r/, the tongue-tip for /r/ is placed behind the alveolar ridge, on the front of the hard palate, so that when it is released the tongue is immediately in position for the friction of /r/. Be sure that in the following words the tongue-tip is a good deal farther back than usual for /r/:

trill tree	trill tree	trill tree
trill tree	trill tree	trill tree
trill tree	trill tree	trill tree

This /tr/ combination may be confused with /tʃ/; notice that the friction of the voiceless /tʃ/ is lower in pitch than that of /tr/. Try the

Cliding consonants

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following pairs and be careful to put the tongue-tip in the correct /r/ position for /r/:

trill tree	trill tree	trill tree
trill tree	trill tree	trill tree
trill tree	trill tree	trill tree

In the combination /θr/ too the tip of the tongue is further back than usual for /r/ and there is friction as the voiced air passes over the tongue-tip for the /r/. Try these words:

thrill thrill	thrill thrill	thrill thrill
thrill thrill	thrill thrill	thrill thrill
thrill thrill	thrill thrill	thrill thrill

And the following pairs must be distinguished in the same way as /θr/ and /r/:

thrill thrill	thrill thrill	thrill thrill
thrill thrill	thrill thrill	thrill thrill
thrill thrill	thrill thrill	thrill thrill

Some of the commonest words containing /r/ are: rain, rather, reach, read, ready, real, real, remain, set, right, read, roof, room, round, rub, run, verb, wrong, again, already, arrange, answer, head, bring, most, drink, dress, work, very, foreign, first, great, never, many, pretty, price, serious, sorry, story, twelve, one try, very, sorry.

3.6 Exercises

- Study each section carefully and decide what your difficulties are. Which of these difficulties are phonetic difficulties (e.g. containing /θ/ and /θ/ or /r/ and /r/), and which are purely sound difficulties (e.g. pronouncing /s/ with the tongue tip on the teeth instead of on the alveolar ridge)? Which difficulties will you concentrate on?
- During the time which you give to listening to English, concentrate for a short time on listening to one of your difficulties (perhaps the difference between /θ/ and /θ/, or the sound of /h/). When you have really heard the sound(s), go back to the lists of words in the different sections and try to make the sound exactly the same as you heard. Use a tape-recorder to help you, if you can.
- Take any passage of English and mark any one of your difficulties all the way through (e.g. underline every / or r or both). Then read the passage aloud, and try to say particular sounds perfectly. Don't worry about the others at that moment. Gradually do this for all your difficulties.
- Do a little practice each day if you possibly can.

In chapter 3 we saw how single consonants are made, and sometimes how a sequence of two consonants should be said (e.g. /pr, kr, tr/ p. 62), but there are many other cases where two or three or four or even more consonants follow one

after the other. Some examples are:ski:m scheme, kri:m cream, skriim scream, neks necks, nekst next,teksts texts.

Some languages (e.g. Russian, German) have many consonant sequences, and speakers of these languages will not have any difficulty in pronouncing most of the English ones. But other languages do not have sequences of consonants at all, or only very few and very short ones (e.g. Mandarin, Cantonese, Vietnamese, Swahili, Yoruba, Tamil), and speakers of these languages (in which two consonants are usually separated by a vowel) may have difficulty in stringing together two, three or four consonants with no vowel between them. This chapter is to help you, if you have this kind of difficulty.

4.1 Initial sequences

At the beginning of English words there may be either two or three consonants in sequence.

Sequences of two consonants initially

These are of two main kinds:

1 /s/ followed by one of /p, t, k, f, m, n, l, w, j/, e.g. in spy, stay, sky, sphere, small, snow, sleep, swear, suit.

2 One of /p, t, k, b, d, g, f, θ, J, v, m, n, h/ followed by one of /l, r, w, j/. Not all of these sequences are found (e.g. /pw, dl / do not occur). The full list is:

/p/ followed by /, r, j/ play, pray, pure/t/ /r, w, j/ try, twice, tune

/k/ /, r, w, j/ climb, cry, quite, cure

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Initial sequences

/l, r, j/ blow, bread, beauty/r, w, j/ dress, dwell (rare), duty/l, r/ glass, green

/l, r, j/ fly, from, few

/r, w/ throw, thwart (rare)

/r / shriek

j\l view

/j/ music

/h/ /! / huSe

Start with /sp/: say a long /s/, then gradually close the lips for / p/ until they stop the /s-/sound. Keep the /s/ going right up to the moment the lips are closed, and you will not put a vowel between the two consonants. Be careful to start with a long /s/ and do not put a vowel before it. Do this many times until you are sure that there is no vowel sound either before the /s/ or after it. Now add the vowel in words

such as:

3 spat spy spa: spur spia spear spea spare

Do not say aspai or sapai. Start with /s/ and halt it by closing the lips.

/st/ and /sk/ are begun by making a long /s/ and halting it by raising the tongue-tip (for /st/) or tongue-back (for /sk/) to cut off the friction.

Try:

[st] stei stav sta: star sta: store stia steer

skai sky ska: scar ska: score skea scare

Do not say astei or satei, etc.

In /sf/ (which is rare) the long /s/ is ended by the lower lip moving up to the upper teeth for /f/:

sfia sphere sferikal spherical

In /sm/, the /s/ is continued until the lips meet for /m/, and in /sn si/, until the tongue-tip touches the alveolar ridge. (Those of you who have trouble with /l/ and /r/ must be careful not to pronounce srr.p tor

sliip 5/eep (see p. 61).)

S small smile smauk smoke smel smell smia smear

snau snow sna: snore sneik snake sn*k snack

slau slow slat sly slip slip slaek slack

stD: storeskDi score

stia steerskea scare

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4 Consonant sequences

In chapter 3 we saw how single consonants are made, and sometimes how a sequence of two consonants should be said (e.g. /pr, kr, tr/ p. 62), but there are many other cases where two or three or four or even more consonants follow one after the other. Some examples are:

sk am sɪ ʒni, kɒlən ɪzən, ði ʃɪm sɪzən, nɪzənsɪz, nɪkɪt əzɪt, tɛksts ɪvɪz.
 Some languages (e.g. Russian, German) have many consonant sequences, and speakers of these languages will not have any difficulty in pronouncing most of the English ones. But other languages do not have sequences of consonants at all, or only very few and very short ones (e.g. Mandarin, Cantonese, Vietnamese, Swahili, Yoruba, Tamil) and speakers of these languages (in which two consonants are usually separated by a vowel) may have difficulty in stringing together two, three or four consonants with no vowel between them. This chapter is to help you, if you have this kind of difficulty.

4.1 Initial sequences

A. At the beginning of English words there may be either two or three consonants in sequence.

Sequences of two consonants initially

There are of two main kinds:
 1 /s/ followed by one of /p, t, k, m, n, l, w, ʃ/, e.g. /sɒp/, /stɪ/, /skɪ/, /sɒfə/, /smʌl/, /zən/, /slɒp/, /sɔ:z/, /sɒt/.
 2 One of /p, t, k, b, d, g, (tʃ, dʒ, v, n, ŋ)/ followed by one of /f, r, w, /.
 Not all of these sequences are found (e.g. /pʃw, tʃr/ are not found). The full list is:

/p/ followed by	/f, r, /	play, pray, pure
/t/	/r, w, /	try, twice, tone
/b/	/r, w, /	bring, cry, quite, cure

Initial sequences

/b/	/f, r, /	blow, bread, bear*
/d/	/r, w, /	draw, dwell (rare), duty
/k/	/f, r/	glax, green
/t/	/f, r, /	fly, from, few
/ʃ/	/r, w/	throw, down (rare)
/tʃ/	/r/	shock
/r/	/f, /	risk
/w/	/f, /	wash
/v/	/f, /	vase
/θ/	/f, /	theta

Start with /sp/. say a long /s/, then gradually close the lips for /p/ and they stop the /s/-sound. Keep the /s/ going right up to the moment after the lips are closed, and you will not put a vowel between the two consonants. Be careful to start with a long /s/ and do not put a vowel before it. Do this many many times; you remember that there is no vowel sound either before the /s/ or after it. Now add the vowel: a words such as:

spit spy spit spin spit speak spin spare

Don't say aspart or spin. Start with /s/ and finish it by closing the lips.

/tʃ/ and /k/ are begun by making a long /t/ and halting it by raising the tongue to /ʃ/ (/tʃ/) or moving back for /k/ (/tk/) to cut off the friction.

TRY:

stap stay stoat star steat store steat street

skat sky skat seat skat seat skat seat skat seat

Do not say stas or skas, etc.

In /st/ (which is rare) the long /s/ is ended by the lower lip moving up to the upper tooth for /t/.

stap sphere stork optical

In /tw/, the /t/ is continued until the lips meet for /w/, and in /tr, dr/, until the tongue-tip touches the alveolar ridge. (Those of you who have trouble with /t/ and /r/ must be careful not to pronounce /tr/ for /tʃ/ or /dʒ/ (see p. 61).)

swal swale	swat swate	swat swate	swat swate	swat swate
swal swale	swat swate	swat swate	swat swate	swat swate
slow	slow	slow	slow	slow

In /sw/ the lips become rounded during the /sj/ (be careful not to pronounce /sv/) and in /sj/ the /i:/, which is the beginning of the /j/-glide, is reached during the /s/, so that in both cases the glide starts as soon as /s/ ends. Try.

LiJ swiit sweet swei sway swDn swan swu:p swoop
 sjuit suit sju: sue asjuim assume pasju: pursue

In the second group of sequences, the second consonant is most often formed whilst the first one is being pronounced. For example, in /pr/ or /pi/ the tongue is placed in the exact position for /r/ or /I/ whilst the lips are still closed for the /p/, so that as soon as they are open the /r/ or /I/ is heard. In the following examples start with a long first consonant, and during it place the tongue (and for /w/ the lips) in position for the second consonant; then, and only then, release the first consonant:



plei	play	prei	pray	pjua	pure	traɪ	try
twais	twice	tjuɪn	tune	klaim	climb	kraɪ	cry
kwait	quite	kjuɑ	cure	btau	blow	bred	bread
bjuiti	dres	dress	dwel	dwel	dju:ti		
beauty					duty		

gla:s	glass	grim	green	flai	fly	from	from
fju:	few	vju:	view	mjuizik	music	nju:	new

In /Or/ and /Jr/ the second consonant cannot be prepared during the first. Be sure first of all that you can pronounce each one separately; say one, then the other, several times. Then smoothly and continuously make the tongue glide from one to the other so that there is no sudden change between them; try the following, very slowly at first, then gradually quicker:

S Orau throw Ori: three Ored thread Oru: threw

Jri:k shriek Jred shred Jril shrill Jruid shrewd

Sequences of three consonants initially

These are /spr, str, skr, spj, stj, skj, spl, skw/ and are a combination of the /sp/ type of sequence and the /pr/ type. The /s/ at the beginning is cut off by the following stop, and during the stop the following consonant is fully prepared. Try the following examples very slowly at first; cut off the /s/ by the tongue or lips and, whilst holding this stop, get the third consonant ready, then release the stop straight into the third consonant:

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Initial sequences

spred spread stjuipid stupid

streit straight skjua skewer

skru: screw splendid splendid

spjuarias spurious skwea square

The sequence /spj/ is rare.

4.2 Final sequences

Sequences of consonants at the ends of words are more varied than at the beginning mainly because /s/ or /z/ have to be added to most nouns to give their plural forms, as in kaets cats, dDgz dogs, faektsJacts, fhldzfields, etc., and /t/ or /d/ have to be added to most verbs to form their past tense, as in wijt wished, reizd raised, riskt risked, pUr^dplunged, etc. Also /9/ is used to form nouns like strei]0 strength and bred0 breadth and numerals like fif0fifth (and all these can have plurals -streQ0s, bred9s, fif0s!).

Stop+stop

When one stop consonant is immediately followed by another, as in kept kept and aekt act, the closure of the speech organs for the second consonant is made whilst the closure for the first consonant is still in position. In the sequence /pt/ this is what happens: the lips are closed

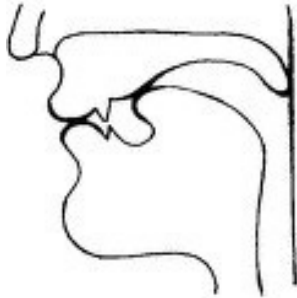


Fig. 25 Double closure in /pt/ for /p/ and air is compressed as usual by pressure from the lungs; then, with the lips still closed, the tongue-tip is placed on the alveolar ridge ready for /t/, so that there are two closures, see Figure 25. Then, and only then, the lips are opened, but there is no explosion of air because the tongue closure prevents the compressed air from bursting out of

Consonant sequences

In /tsw/ the lips become rounded during the /t/ (be careful not to pronounce /tsw/) and in /tj/ the /t/ (which is the beginning of the /tj- glide, is reached during the /t/, so that in both cases the glide starts as soon as /t/ ends. Try.

twit twet twat twaj twan twat twap twop
 tjt tjt tjt tjt tjt tjt tjt tjt

In the second group of sequences, the second consonant is not often formed while the first one is being pronounced. For example, in /pt/ or /pt/ the tongue is placed in the exact position for /t/ or /t/ while the lips are still closed for the /p/, so that as soon as they are open the /t/ or /t/ is heard. In the following examples start with a long first consonant, and during it place the tongue (and /sw/ the lips) in position for the second consonant; then, and only then, release the first consonant:

put play pret pray ptu pure put try
 twat twice tjan tate taw climb taw try
 kwat quite kwat cure ptu blow twat local
 twat beauty twat dance twat dwell twat diary
 ptu glass ptu green twat fly twat from
 twat few twat view twat work twat now

In /pt/ and /pt/ the second consonant cannot be prepared during the first. Be sure first of all that you can pronounce each one separately, say etc. then the other, several times. Then smoothly and continuously make the tongue glide from one to the other so that there is no sudden change between them, try the following, very slowly at first, then gradually quicker:

ptu throw twat three twat thread twat three
 twat drink twat thread twat shell twat thread

Sequences of three consonants (initially)

These are /pt/, /tr/, /ts/, /sp/, /sk/, /spl/, /skw/ and /sps/ a combination of the /sp/ type of sequences and the /pt/ type. The /t/ at the beginning is cut off by the following stop, and during the stop the following consonant is fully prepared. Try the following examples very slowly at first; cut off the /t/ by the tongue or lips and, whilst holding this stop, get the third consonant ready, then release the stop so that it is the third consonant.

Initial sequences

spread spread stje ptid stjeptid
 street straight skje ptid skjeptid
 skirt skirt skje ptid skjeptid
 squeeze squeeze skje ptid skjeptid
 down down skje ptid skjeptid

The sequences /ptj/ and /tj/

4.2 Final sequences

Sequences of consonants at the ends of words are more varied than at the beginning mainly because /t/ or /t/ have to be added to many nouns to give their plural forms, as in *cats cats*, *dogs dogs*, *fields fields*, etc. and /t/ or /t/ have to be added to many verbs to form their past tense, as in *worked worked*, *read read*, *waited waited*, *ploughed ploughed*, etc. Also /t/ is used to form nouns like *strength strength* and *bread bread* and nouns like *fish fish* (and all these can have plural - *strengths, breads, fishes*).

Stop + stop

When one stop consonant is immediately followed by another, as in *kept kept* and *stuck stuck*, the closure of the speech organs for the second consonant is made while the closure for the first consonant is still in position. In the sequence /pt/ this is what happens: the lips are closed



Fig. 25 Double closure in /pt/

for /p/ and air is compressed as usual by pressure from the lungs; then, with the lips still closed, the tongue-tip is placed on the alveolar ridge ready for /t/ so that there are two closures, see Figure 25. Then, and only then, the lips are opened, but there is no explosion of air because the tongue closure prevents the compressed air from bursting out of

Final sequences the mouth; finally, the tongue-tip leaves the alveolar ridge and air explodes out of the mouth. So there is only one explosion for the two stops; the first stop is incomplete. Figure 26 shows a similar position for the sequence /kt/. First the back of the

tongue makes the closure for /k/ then the tip of the tongue makes the closure for /t/, then the back of the tongue is lowered without causing an explosion, and finally the tongue-tip is lowered and air explodes out.

Start with kept. First say kep and hold the air back with the lips, don't open them. Now put the tongue-tip in position for /t/ (lips still closed). Now open the lips and be sure that no air comes out, and then lower the tongue-tip and allow the air out. Do this several times and be sure that the lips are firmly closed (we do not say ket) and that the tongue-tip is ready to hold back the breath before you open the lips. Then do the same with aekt, and be sure that although /k/ is properly formed, its ending is, as it were swallowed, so that there is no explosion until the /t/ is released.

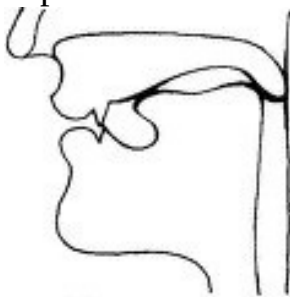


Fig. 26 Double closure in /kt/

Now do exactly the same for /bd/ as in robd robbed and /gd/ as in drasgd dragged. Again there is only one explosion, this time a gentle one for the /d/. If you do make two explosions it will not cause any mis-understanding, but it will sound un-English. What is important is to be sure that the first consonant is properly formed before you take up the position for the second. If you say rod instead of robd or draed instead of draegd, you will be misunderstood.

This 'missing explosion' happens whenever one stop consonant (except /tj/ and /dʒ/) is followed immediately by another (including /tj/ and /dʒ/), not only at the end of words but also in the middle of words, as in aekta actor, or between words, as in red kaut red coat. Here are some examples for practice:



slept	slept
rAbd	rubbed
tDp dDg	top dog
raiptamaitau ripe tomato	
greit kea	great care
kwait gud	quite good
blaekbɜ:d	blackbird
k kb tai	club tie
bob gudwin	Bob Goodwin

baed kauld	bad cold
aid gau	rd go
pigteil	pigtail
lektja	lecture
bigd3auk	bigjoke
faekt	
drAgd	
Jopg3:l	
eitpans	
hot ba:0	
0ik pi:s	
blaekdDg	
sAbkonJas	
red p3:s	
gudbai	
baegpaips	
big bai	
objikt	
tjiptjiiz	
fact	

druggedshop girleightpencehot baththick pieceblack dogs subconsciousred
 pursegoodbyebagpipesbig boyobject (n.)cheap cheese

When /pi is followed by /p/, or /t/ by /t/, and so on, there is again only one explosion, but the closure is held for double the usual time.Examples:

S slip paist slip past

luk keafali look carefullymaed dDg mad dog

WDttaim what time?bob belts Bob Batesbig g3:l big girl

For /tf/ and /d3/ the friction part of the sound is never missing, so mwitj tjea
 which chair? and Ia:d3 large jug the /tj / and ^3/ are complete in both places. ,. r
 n j

When one of the strong/weak pair/p, b/ or /1, d/ or /k, g / is followed

by the other, for example in WDt dex what day or big keik big cake thereh
 only one explosion, but the closure is held for double the usual timeand the
 strength changes during this time. Other examples are:

hip baun hip bonebed taim bed-timeblaekgaut black goat

If three stop consonants come together, as in strikt pearant strictparent, there
 is still only one explosion, that of the third consonantWhat usually happens is
 that the first consonant is formed and held torlonger than usual, the second

consonant disappears altogether, and the third is formed and exploded normally. We might write strict parent asstrik: pearant, where /k:/ represents an unexploded /k/ held for longer than usual. Other examples are:

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the mouth. Finally, the tongue tip leaves the alveolar ridge and air explodes out of the mouth. So there is only one explosion for the two stops; the first stop is incomplete.

Figure 26 shows a similar position for the sequence /kt/. First the back of the tongue makes the closure for /k/, then the tip of the tongue makes the closure for /t/, then the back of the tongue is lowered without causing an explosion, and finally the tongue tip is lowered and air explodes out.

Start with **lips**. First say **top** and hold their back with the lips, don't open them. Now put the tongue tip in position for /t/ (lips still closed). Now open the lips and be sure that no air comes out, and then lower the tongue tip and allow the air out. Do this several times and be sure that the lips are firmly closed (so do not say *top*), and that the tongue tip is ready to hold back the breath before you open the lips. Then do the same with **strik**, and be sure that although /k/ is properly formed, its ending is, as it were, swallowed, so that there is no explosion and the /t/ is released.



Fig. 26 Double closure in /kt/

Now do exactly the same for /bd/ as in **robbed** and /gd/ as in **dragged**. Again there is only one explosion, this time a gentle one for the /d/. If you do make two explosions it will not cause any misunderstanding, but it will sound un-English. What is important is to be sure that the first consonant is properly formed before you take up the position for the second. If you say **rob** instead of **robbed** or **drag** instead of **dragged**, you will be misunderstood.

This 'misfire explosion' happens whenever one stop consonant (except /t/ and /d/) is followed immediately by another (including /t/ and /d/), not only at the end of words but also in the middle of words, as in **sketch** or, or between words, as in **red** **knit** **red** **knit**. Here are some examples for practice:

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stest	stip:	fact	fact
rsbd	rubbed	dragt	dragged
top dog	top dog	fop god	shop gid
rap vawarab	ripe vorarab	estpat:	eightpater
gret kas	great car:	het baθ	hat bath
lowat god	quite good	θak gin	thick pine
elektat	black cat	blak dog	black dog
blabat	club tie	sakkarjəs	subconscious
top gudwin	Bob Goodwin	red pan	red pane
bad k arid	bad call	gudat	goodbye
zid gau	I'd go	bagwaps	bagpipes
piget	pirate	big bot	big boy
lettja	lute	slatjak	object (n)
big dyek	big joke	dʒɪptjɪr	cheap cheese

When /t/ is followed by /p/, or /k/ by /k/, and so on, there is again only one explosion, but the closure is held for double the usual time.

Examples:

stip pait	stip part	wottam	what time?
lʊk kəfəl	look carefully	ɒb bəts	Bob Bates
məd dɒg	mad dog	big gɪl	big girl

For /t/ and /d/ the friction part of the sound is never missing, so in **wet** 'yes which date?' and **body** **big** **big** the /t/ and /d/ are complete in both places.

When one of the strong/weak pair /p, b/ or /t, d/ or /k, g/ is followed by the other, for example in **wet** **det** **what** **big** or **big** **look** **big** **look**, there is only one explosion, but the closure is held for double the usual time and the strength changes during this time. Other examples are:

stip bəts	stip bats
bət tɪm	bat time
blak gɪt	black goat

If three stop consonants come together, as in **strik** **parent** **in** **parent**, there is still only one explosion, that of the third consonant. What usually happens is that the first consonant is formed and held for longer than usual, the second consonant disappears altogether, and the third is formed and exploded normally. We might write **strik** **parent** as **strik** **parent**, where /k:/ represents an unexploded /k/ held for longer than usual. Other examples are:

- ai slept baedli I slept badly
- hi: laegd bihind he lagged behind
- kalakt peniz collect pennies
- dei robd ka:z they robbed cars

/pt/ and /kt/ can be followed immediately by /s/ in words like **aksept** **accepts** and **faekt** **facts**. In these sequences /p/ and /k/ are not exploded but the /t/ explodes straight into the /s/. Be sure to form the first stop firmly. Other examples are:

- intarApts interrupts adopts adopts
- kontaskts contacts pratekts protects
- riaekts reacts
- Stop+nasal

When /t/ or /d/ are followed by a syllabic /n/, as in **bAtn** **button** and **gaidn**

garden, the explosion of the stop takes place through the nose. This nasal explosion happens in this way: the vocal organs form /t/ or /d/ in the usual way, with the soft palate raised to shut off the nasal cavity and the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge, but instead of taking the tongue-tip away from the alveolar ridge to give the explosion we leave it in the same position and lower the soft palate, so that the breath explodes out of the nose rather than out of the mouth. Figure 27 shows

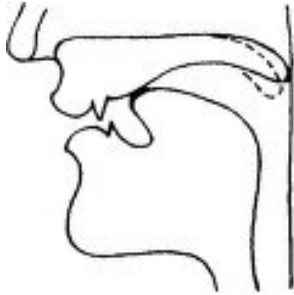


Fig. 27 Nasal explosion in /tn/

that this is the simplest way of passing from /t/ or /d/ to /n/, since the tongue position is the same for all three consonants and the only difference is in the raised or lowered position of the soft palate.

Make a /t/-sound and hold the breath in the mouth, don't let it out; then send all the breath out sharply through the nose (just as in the

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exercise described on p. 16) whilst still holding the tongue-tip firmly against the alveolar ridge. Do this several times without allowing the tongue-tip to move at all and feel the air bursting out behind the soft palate. Now start the voice vibrating for /n/ as the soft palate lowers and again do this several times without moving the tongue-tip. Now do the same thing for /dn/, with the voice vibrating through both /d/ and /n/ but the tongue-tip firmly on the alveolar ridge all the time.

The effect in both /tn/ and /dn/ is to make the explosion of the stop much less clear than when it bursts out of the mouth; if you do make the explosion by taking the tongue-tip away from the alveolar ridge or if you put the vowel /o/ between the /t/ or /d/ and the /n/ it sounds rather strange to English ears, but you will not be misunderstood. Try these other similar words:

ritn written britn Britain
 hidn hidden bsidn burden
 ssitn certain fraitn frighten
 pa:dn pardon wudn wooden



Both /tn/ and /dn/ may be followed by /s/ or /z/ or /t/ or /d/, in words like
importance, curtains, important and frightened.
When the third consonant is /l/ or /d/ the tongue does not
move at all the soft palate is simply raised again to make the stop
complete. For /s/ or /z/ the tongue-tip is lowered very slightly from
the alveolar ridge to make the necessary friction. Try the following:

pitns pittance a:tnt oughtn t
paidnd pardoned ridns riddance
wudnt wouldn't bAtnz buttons
ga:dnz gardens Jbitnd shortened



In words where the /n/ is not syllabic, such as brightness
and goodness, the explosion is also nasal, and this is also true when the
stop is found at the end of one word and the /n / at the beginning of the next, as in
late night and bad news. Try the following examples, and be
sure that the tongue-tip stays firmly on the alveolar ridge through both /t/ and
/n/:

waitnis whiteness sadnis sadness at night goodnight
witnis
kidn
witness
kidney
what next?
red nose

at slept back I slept badly
 ki legd behind he lagged behind
 kolek: peniz collect pennies
 dea robd soiz they robbed cars

ps/ and /ts/ can be followed immediately by /k/ in words like akseptes, optis and faktis factis. In these sequences /p/ and /t/ are not exploded but the /k/ explodes straight into the /s/. Be sure to form the first stop firmly. Other examples are:

ps:araps internos	odops adops
kunakras cozacas	prekivas prekos
mekter reseti	

Stop – nasal

When /t/ or /d/ are followed by a syllabic /ŋ/, as in *patŋ* *batŋ* and *gocŋ* *gocŋ*, the explosion of the stop takes place through the nose. This *nasal explosion* happens in this way: the vocal organs form /t/ or /d/ in the usual way, with the soft palate raised to close off the nasal cavity and the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge, but instead of taking the tongue-tip away from the alveolar ridge to give the explosion we leave it in the same position and lower the soft palate, so that the breath explodes out of the nose rather than out of the mouth. Figure 27 shows



Fig. 27 Nasal explosion in /tŋ/

that this is the simplest way of passing from /t/ or /d/ to /n/, since the tongue position is the same for all three consonants and the only difference is in the raised or lowered position of the soft palate.

Make a /t/ sound and hold the breath in the mouth. don't let it out: then raise all the vocal organs sharply through the nose (just as in the

exercise described on p. 15) whilst still holding the tongue-tip firmly against the alveolar ridge. Do this several times without allowing the tongue-tip to move at all and feel the air bursting out behind the soft palate. Now start the voice vibrating for /ŋ/ as the soft palate lowers and again do this several times without moving the tongue-tip. Now do the same thing for /dŋ/, with the voice vibrating through both /d/ and /ŋ/ but the tongue-tip firmly on the alveolar ridge all the time. The effect in both /tŋ/ and /dŋ/ is to make the explosion of the stop much less clear than when it bursts out of the mouth; if you do make the explosion by taking the tongue-tip away from the alveolar ridge or if you put the vowel /ŋ/ between the /t/ or /d/ and the /ŋ/ it will sound rather strange in English ears, but you will not be misunderstood. Try these other similar words:

kan wiktos	brup Britis
bedy hidden	neep burden
stip certain	frap frighten
paizo purzo	wedz wooden

Both /tŋ/ and /dŋ/ may be followed by /s/ or /z/ in /tŋs/ or /dŋz/ in words like *imposites impostor*, *kunpa certain*, *stipstip impostor* and *brupd figurat*. Unless the third consonant is /s/ or /z/ the tongue does not move at all – the soft palate is simply raised again to make the stop complete. For /s/ or /z/ the tongue-tip is lowered very slightly from the alveolar ridge to make the necessary friction. Try the following:

gipis palisce	over ought't
paidd pardosed	reit ridance
wudnt woudn't	kwre kwrens
gudst gudstos	ʃudʃ shortend

In words where the /tŋ/ is not syllabic, such as *krakras brighten* and *gocŋ goscŋos*, the explosion is like *nosŋ*, and this is done when the stop is found at the end of one word and the /tŋ/ at the beginning of the next, as in *let nat let nat* and *led nat led nat*. Try the following examples, and be sure that the tongue-tip stays firmly on the alveolar ridge through both /t/ and /ŋ/.

wakras whakeses	wkris witnes
sudnis sudnes	kidet kidsey
ot nat ok nat	woknot whoknot
gud nat good night	red notz rednoz

paitns partner laudms loudness
 start nau start now bred naif bread knife



Nasal explosion also happens when /m/ follows /t/ or /d/: the soft palate is lowered whilst the tongue-tip is firmly on the alveolar ridge and the lips are then quickly closed for /m/. It is usually more difficult in this case to keep the tongue-tip position until after the breath has exploded through the nose, so you must take care to hold it there. Try the following:

Atmaust utmost astmasfia atmosphere
 iksaitmant excitement admaia admire
 admit admit Ddmant oddment
 a bit ma: a bit more wait mais white mice
 eit men eight men sasd mjuizik sad music
 agudmeni a good many braid maindid broad-minded

When you can do this well, you will not find much difficulty with /p, b, k, g/ followed by /m/ or /n/, in words like *heipni* halfpenny *orsiknis* sickness, or in phrases like *teik main* take mine or *big masn* bigman, where the explosion is also nasal. The secret is to hold the stop until the breath has exploded through the nose and only then to change the tongue or lip position for the nasal (if any

change is needed). Try the following:

raipnis ripeness tDpmaust topmost
akno!id3 acknowledge fraegmant fragment
stDp nau stop now help mi: help me
daik nait dark night teik main take mine
kUb nautis club notice big nauz big nose
big mau0 big mouth
/t/or/d/+l/

/t/ and /d/ are made with the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge and the sides of the tongue firmly touching the sides of the palate; /l/ is made with the tongue-tip touching the alveolar ridge, but the sides of the tongue away from the sides of the palate so that the breath passes out laterally. The simplest way to go from /t/ or /d/ to /l/ is to leave the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge and only lower the sides, and that is what we do. It is called lateral explosion.

Make the closure for /d/ and hold it; then immediately change to /l/

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Final sequences



but be sure that the tongue-tip does not leave the alveolar ridge even for a moment. If you find this difficult try biting the tip of your tongue so that it cannot move and then changing to /l/, until you have got the feeling of the breath exploding over the lowered sides of the tongue; then try it with the tongue-tip in its normal position. Do this several times, and then try the same action for /t/. When you are satisfied that the tongue-tip does not move, try the following:

midj middle mAdj muddle ^

baetj battle litj little

The plural ending /z/ and the past tense ending /d/ can be added to /t/ and /dl/. For /tld/ and /d|d/, as in bDtjd bottled and mAdld muddled, the tongue-tip does not move at all; the sides are lowered for /j/ and raised again for /d/. For /t|z/ and /djz/, as in bDtlz bottles and n :djz needles, the tongue-tip is lowered slightly from the alveolar ridge to give the necessary friction at the same time as the sides are raised to touch the sides of the palate, which they must do for /z/. Try the following:

Q hAdj huddled k3idjd curdled

mDdlz models pedjz pedals

taitjd titled mntld mottled

taitjz titles baetj z battles



In all the examples above /l/ is syllabic (see p. 56), but in words such

assaedli sadly and 0Ditlis thoughtless and in phrases like baed lait bad light and streit lain straight line, where the /l/ is not syllabic, the explosion takes place in the same way, with the tongue-tip kept firmly on the alveolar ridge. Try the following:

- baedli badly niidlis needless
- haitlis heartless leitli lately
- 9t laist at last laif short life
- red lait red light gud Uk good luck

Notice, by the way, that in changing from /n/ to /l/ in words liketjaenj channel and maenli manly and in phrases like grim liif^rm* leaf the tongue-tip also stays on the alveolar ridge whilst the sides of the tongue are lowered. Try the following:

- LTM1 paenj panel finland Finland
- tAnj' tunnel t3in left turn left
- Anles unless WAn les one less
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Continuant expansion

pa:tra - pa:trae
start into start now
laedna - laednae
bread safe bread knife

Nasal explosion also happens when /n/ follows /t/ or /d/: the soft palate is lowered whilst the tongue-tip is firmly on the alveolar ridge and the lips are then quickly closed for /m/. It is usually more difficult in this case to keep the tongue-tip position until after the breath has exploded through the nose, so you must take care to hold it there. Try the following:

- atruost - utruost
astonish excitement
adnu - adnu
a lot more a lot more
et men - eht men
a gut more a good sorry
- atruofa - atruofa
oeman - admie
odemaat - odimeat
van man - whit track
szed muzak - sad music
br'd maadid - broad-minded

When you can do this well you will not find much difficulty with /p, b, k/ followed by /m/ or /n/, i.e. words like *baepa kopmepoe* *aknu adnu*, or in phrases like *taek man ude meht big meht big man*, where the explosion is also nasal. The secret is to hold the stop until the breath has exploded through the nose and only then to change the tongue or lip position for the nasal (if any change is needed). Try the following:

- rapert - rapert
ekadit y - adkaon/dig
stop into stop now
ca:k nort - dart night
klob naorta - club noice
big maob - big mouth
- tepmuht - tepmuht
fragmuht - fragmuht
help me - help me
tak man - take mine
big nose - big nose

/l/ or /d/ + /l/

/l/ and /d/ are made with the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge and the sides of the tongue fully touching the sides of the palate; /l/ is made with the tongue-tip touching the alveolar ridge, but the sides of the tongue away from the sides of the palate so that the breath passes out laterally. The simplest way to go from /l/ or /d/ to /l/ is to leave the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge and only lower the sides, and that is what we do. It is called *lateral explosion*.

Make the closure for /d/ and hold it, then immediately change to /l/

Final repetition

but be sure that the tongue-tip does not leave the alveolar ridge even for a moment. If you find this difficult try using the tip of your tongue so that it cannot move and then changing to /l/, until you have got the feeling of the breath exploding over the lowered sides of the tongue; then try it with the tongue-tip in its normal position. Do this several times, and then try the same set on for /d/. When you are satisfied that the tongue-tip does not move, try the following:

- maej - middle
baej - little
maej - middle
laej - little

The plural ending /s/ and the past tense ending /t/ can be added to /l/ and /d/. For /d/ and /d/, as in *traid boid* and *modid modid*, the tongue-tip does not move at all, the sides are lowered for /l/ and raised again for /d/. For /t/ and /d/, as in *baejt boid* and *n:je nede*, the tongue-tip is lowered slightly from the alveolar ridge to give the necessary friction at the same time as the sides are raised to touch the sides of the palate, which they must do for /s/. Try the following:

- hadid - hadidid
modie - modie
tardid - tardid
:saeje - saes
- baejd - curled
pedie - pedie
muje - mused
baejt - banties

In all the examples above /l/ is syllabic (see p. 50), but in words such as *uak* and *uak* and *baet* and *baet* and in phrases like *baed lait bad light* and *traek man straight line*, where the /l/ is not syllabic, the explosion takes place in the same way, with the tongue-tip kept firmly on the alveolar ridge. Try the following:

- baedli - badly
haedli - headless
at lait - at lait
red lait - red light
- stelt - needless
leht - lately
:9t laif - short life
gud lak - good luck

Notice, by the way, that in changing from /n/ to /l/ in words like *etnaej* *channel* and *maenli* *manly* and in phrases like *grim liif^rm leaf*, the tongue-tip also stays on the alveolar ridge whilst the sides of the tongue are lowered. Try the following:

- paenj - panel
tAnj' - tunnel
Anles - unless
- finland - Finland
tAn lef - turn left
les one - less

Try also the following:
paenlz panels tAnlz tunnels

tjaenjɔ channeled tAnjɔ tunneled

Consonant +/s, z, t, d/

Because of the way in which regular plurals are formed in English there are very many sequences of a consonant followed by /s/ or /z/, for example lips lips, bɜ:dz birds, sneiks snakes, henz hens. And because of the way in which regular past tenses are formed there are also very many sequences of a consonant followed by /t/ or /d/, for example, kɪst kissed, Uvɔɪn vɔɪndʒ la:ft laughed, jɜ:zɔɪndʒ When you make these sequences, be sure always to form the first consonant firmly and then to put the tongue into position for the /s/ or /z/ or the /t/ or /d/ whilst you are still continuing the first consonant. For example, in kʌps cups the lips are closed firmly for /p/ and then behind them the tongue-tip is placed in position for /s/, so that when the lips are opened for the release of /p/ the /s/ is heard immediately. The sounds flow into each other; there must never be an interval or hesitation or vowel between them. Try the following:



kʌps	cups	kæts	cats
wi:kz	weeks	la:fs	laughs
dʒɔbz	jobs	gudz	goods
dæmz	dams	tɜ:nz	turns
egz	eggs	draɪvz	drives
sɔŋz	songs	welz	wells
laɪft	laughed	mɪst	missed
wɔʃt	washed	wɔtʃt	watched
pru:vɔd	proved	bri:ʒd	breathed
si:mɔd	seemed	aʊnd	owned
geɪzɔd	gazed	dʒʌdʒd	judged
bæɪɪd	banged	fɪld	filled

Seven of these sequences /ps, ks, nz, ft, st, nd, lɪd/ occur in words which are not plurals or past forms; these sequences may then have yet another consonant added to them to form plurals and past forms, for example fɪkst fixed or gɛstsgɛsts. For these the tongue-tip must be either raised to make contact with the alveolar ridge to make /t/ or /d/, or it must be lowered slightly from the alveolar ridge to make the friction of /s/ or /z/. Be sure that the first two consonants are firmly but smoothly formed before adding the third. Try the following:

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Final sequences

læpst lɪpsɪd brɔnzɪd brɔnzɪd

taekst taxed lifts lifts
rests rests fhldz fields
bendz bends

The sequence /ksts/ occurs in the word teksts texts; the last /s/ is again added by lowering the tongue slightly from the /t/ position to give the /s/ friction.

Also, the more common word siks0 sixth has /9/ added to /ks/. This needs a smooth but definite movement of the tongue-tip from its position close to the alveolar ridge to a position close to the upper teeth; this will not be difficult if you have mastered the exercises on pp. 33-4-



Consonant + /0/



The consonants /t, d, n, l/ are followed by /9/ in the words eit0 eighth, bred0 breadth, ten0 tenth and hel0 health. Normally /t, d, n/ and /l/ are made with the tongue-tip on the alveolar ridge, but when followed by /0/ they are made with the tongue-tip touching the back of the upper teeth. It is then pulled away slightly to give the dental friction of /9/.

In the words fifQfifth and leQ0 length the tongue-tip is placed in position for /0/ during the previous consonant, so that again there is no gap between them. There are only a few other words like these wid0 width, hAndrad0 hundredth, nain© ninth, 03:ti:n0 thirteenth, etc., wel0 wealth, strei]0 strength. Practise these and those given above until you can go smoothly from the first consonant to the /©/•

All of these words may then have a plural /s/ added, giving eit0seighths,

breadths, etc. The added /s/ should not be difficult if you have mastered the exercises on p. 34. The secret is a smooth but definite movement of the tongue-tip from the dental position of /θ/ to the alveolar position of /s/. Practise the plurals of all the words given above.

Notice also the word twelve, where /θ/ has /I/ before it.

Make sure that the /I/ is properly formed, and then during the /I/ raise the lower lip up to the upper teeth for /f/ and then go on to /θ/. This word also has the plural form twelves. Once again move the tongue-tip smoothly but firmly from the /θ/ to the /s/ position.

/I/ 4- consonant

Various consonants may follow /I/; we have already dealt with /lz/

/θ/ and /d/ on p. 74 and the remainder are not very difficult if you have mastered /I/ by itself. Before any consonant the /I/ will be dark (see p. 55)

and the following consonant is formed whilst the /I/ is being pronounced. Try the following:

help help felt fault milk milk felt shelf
else else well Welsh felt shelves bulge
film film

Plural and past forms lengthen some of these sequences as before. Try:

helps helps helped belts belts milks milks
milked felt shelves bulged filmz films
filmed filmed

Nasal -f consonant



On earlier pages we have dealt with nasal consonants followed by /z/, /d/ and /θ/. Other sequences in which a nasal consonant is followed by another consonant are found in words like sense, punchy revenge, want, jump, thank. In all these cases the vocal organs are in exactly or almost exactly the same position for the nasal as for the second consonant; in

sens the tongue-tip is lowered slightly at the same time as the soft palate is raised to give the /s/friction; in all the other cases the tongue and lips remain in the same position in passing from the nasal to the following consonant. Be sure that the nasal consonant is firmly formed and not replaced by nasalizing the previous vowel (see p. 50).

In the word *traiamf* triumph the /m/-sound may be formed with the lower lip against the upper teeth, rather than with the two lips, but it is not necessary to do this unless you find it helpful.

There are plural or past forms of all the examples given above, e.g. *senst* sensed, *pAntJtpunched*, *rivendjd* revenged, *wonts* wants, *djAmptjumped*, *d^Amps* jumps, *0aegkt* thanked, *0aegks* thanks, *traiamfs* triumphs. Remember that with /pt/ and /kt/ the first stop is not exploded (see p. 67). Practise at these examples until you get a smooth change between the consonants.

4.3 Longer consonant sequences

In phrases one word may end with a consonant sequence and the next word may begin with one, so that longer sequences such as /gkskl/ quite commonly occur, for example in 6a *baegks klauzd* the bank's closed. As always there is a smooth passage from each consonant to the

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Longer consonant sequences

next, with no gap. If you have mastered the initial and final sequences, the only difficulty will be to pass smoothly from the last consonant of the final sequence to the first of the initial sequence, with no vowel or interval between. This is done, as before, by putting the vocal organs in position for the following consonant during the previous one. The examples below will give you practice in sequences of increasing length

Three consonants

best maen best man

fiks 61s fix this

0aegk ju: thank you

WDtJ krikrit watch cricket *nais tju:n* nice tune

log sk3:t long skirt

Four consonants

nekstSAndi next Sunday

bDtjd wain bottled wine

va:st skeil vast scale

streindj dri:m strange dreams *mo:l skwea* small square

bigspl?ej big splash

Five consonants

LsJ milks fri: milk's free

mikstswi:ts mixed sweetsbentspriq bent spring

bentskru: bent screw

Six consonants

pahaeps nDt perhaps nothelp mi: help me

t Jei n 3 wa n change onetadtri: tall tree

laud kraai loud crypeid3twenti page twenty

twelf 0 nait twelfth nighthi: Gaegkt 5am he thanked them3xtstru: that's true

fif0fb: fifth floor

tag stri:t long street

gud stj u :d nt good student

prompt stait prompt startplaintsjrivj plants shrivelaekt stjurpidli act
stupidly6aets splendid that's splendid

S nekst sprit] next Spring hind3d skriin hinged screen

hi: Sinks streit he thinks straight ai helpt stjuat I helped Stuart

a fenst skwea a fenced square twelfGstrkt Twelfth Street

Seven consonants

1^1 6a teksts stjuipid the text's stupid

Ji: tempts streindjaz she tempts strangers

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misses /j/ by itself. Before any consonant the /j/ will be dark (see p. 51) and the following consonant is formed whilst the /j/ is being pronounced. Try the following:

- help help hit hit milk milk felt felt
- ch: ch: well well felt felt boldy boldy
- film film

Platonic past forms lengthen some of these sequences as before. Try:

- helps helps helps helped hits hits milks milks
- milks milked felt felt boldy bolded films films

Nasal + consonant

On earlier pages we have dealt with nasal consonants followed by /z/, /f/ and /θ/. Other sequences in which a nasal consonant is followed by another consonant are found in words like *sentence*, *partly*, *reach*, *recently*, *evening*, *went west*, *strong jump*, *they thank*. In all these cases the vocal lips are in exactly or almost exactly the same position for the nasal as for the second consonant; in *sent* the tongue tip is lowered slightly at the same time as the soft palate is raised to give the /n/ friction; in all the other cases the tongue and lips remain in the same position as passing from the nasal to the following consonant. Because the nasal consonant is firmly formed and not replaced by making the previous vowel (see p. 50).

In the word *transmission* the /n/ sound may be formed with the lower lip against the upper teeth, rather than with the two lips, but it is not necessary to do this unless you find it helpful.

- There are plural or past forms of all the examples given above, e.g. *sent* *sent*, *partly* *partly*, *reach* *reached*, *recently* *recently*, *evening* *evenings*, *went* *went*, *strong* *strongly*, *jump* *jumped*, *they* *they*, *thank* *thanked*, *they* *they*, *transmission* *transmissions*. Remember that with /nt/ and /kt/ the first stop is not exploded (see p. 67). Practise at these examples until you get a smooth change between the consonants.

4.3 Longer consonant sequences

In phrases one word may end with a consonant sequence and the next word may begin with one, so that longer sequences such as /tʃkɪk/ quite occasionally occur, for example as in *the bank: the end of bank's class*. As always there is a smooth passage from each consonant to the

next, with no gap. If you have mastered the initial and final sequences, the only difficulty will be to pass smoothly from the last consonant of the final sequence to the first of the initial sequence, with no vowel or interval between. This is done, as before, by putting the vocal organs in position for the following consonant during the previous one. The examples below will give you practice in sequences of increasing length.

Three consonants

- best men best men perhaps not perhaps not
- fix this fix this help me help me
- thank you thank you change one change one
- watch cricket watch cricket tall tree tall tree
- nice one nice one local city local city
- long skirt long skirt pretty town pretty town

Four consonants

- next Sunday next Sunday twelfth one twelfth night
- looked with looked with he thanked them he thanked them
- strange dream strange dream fifth floor fifth floor
- small square small square long street long street
- big splash big splash good student good student

Five consonants

- milk's fine milk's fine prompt start prompt start
- best spring best spring plants should plants should
- best centre best centre act stupidly act stupidly
- that's splendid that's splendid that's splendid that's splendid

Six consonants

- next Spring next Spring hinged screen hinged screen
- he thinks straight he thinks straight helped seven helped seven
- the twelfth square the twelfth square twelfth Street twelfth Street

Seven consonants

- the over-camp the over-camp
- she attempts straight she attempts straight

Consonant sequences

4.4 Exercises

1 Does your language have sequences of two, three, four or more consonants? If so, list the ones which are similar to English sequences.

2 Does your language have stop+stop sequences? Practise again the examples on p. 69.

3 Be sure that you can distinguish the following: spy, espy; state, estate; scape, escape; support, sport; succumb, scum; polite, plight; terrain, train; below, blow; strange, estrange; ascribe, scribe; esquire, squire; astute, stewed; ticket, ticked; wrapped, rapid, wrap it.

4 Does your language have nasal explosion (p. 70) or lateral explosion (p. 72)? Practise those examples again.

5 Practise again all the other examples in this chapter, being very careful to follow the instructions given. Finish with the longer sequences on p. 77.

S The vowels of English

Vowels are made by voiced air passing through different mouth-shapes; the differences in the shape of the mouth are caused by different positions of the

tongue and of the lips. It is easy to see and to feel the lip differences, but it is very difficult to see or to feel the tongue differences, and that is why a detailed description of the tongue position for a certain vowel does not really help us to pronounce it well.

Vowels must be learned by listening and imitating: I could tell you that the English vowel /d:/ as in saw is made by rounding the lips and by placing the back of the tongue in a position mid-way between the highest possible and the lowest possible position, but it would be much more helpful if I could simply say the sound for you and get you to imitate me. Since I cannot do this I must leave the listening and imitating to you. So spend some of your listening time on the vowels.

As I said at the beginning of chapter 3 English speakers vary quite a lot in their vowel sounds; the vowels used by an Australian, an American and a Scotsman in the word see are all different, but they are all recognized quite easily as /i:/. So the actual sounds that you use for the English vowels are not so important as the differences that you make between them. There must be differences between the vowels, and that is what we will concentrate on

5.1 Simple vowels

e/

In your language you will have a vowel which is like the English /i:/ in see, and one which is like the English /a/ in sun, and almost certainly one which is like the English /e/ in get. They may not be exactly the same as the English vowels you hear in listening to English, but they will do for a starting-point. Say the words bid bead and bed bed several times and listen carefully to the sound of the vowels; then try to say a vowel which is between the other two, and different from both, not bird and not bed, but... bid - that will be the vowel in bid. You need

4.4 Exercises

- 1 Does your language have sequences of two, three, four or more consonants? If so, list the ones which are similar to English sequences.
- 2 Does your language have stop + stop sequences? Practise again the examples on p. 69.
- 3 Be sure that you can distinguish the following: spy, spy; raw, estate; scape, escape; support, sport; scorch, scum; polite, plight; certain, train; below, blow; strange, outrage; scribe, scribe; squirt, square; arate, steved; tickle, tickle; wrapped, rapid, wrap it.
- 4 Does your language have nasal explosion (p. 70) or lateral explosion (p. 72)? Practise those examples again.
- 5 Practise again all the other examples in this chapter, being very careful to follow the instructions given. Finish with the longer sequences on p. 77.

5 The vowels of English

Vowels are made by voiced air passing through a different mouth-shape: the difference in the shape of the mouth are caused by different positions of the tongue and of the lips. It is easy to see and to feel the lip-differences, but it is very difficult to see or to feel the tongue differences, and that is why a detailed description of the tongue position for a certain vowel does not really help us to pronounce it well.

Vowels must be learned by listening and imitating. I could tell you that the English vowel [i:] as in sea is made by rounding the lips and by placing the back of the tongue in a position mid-way between the highest possible and the lowest possible position, but it would be much more helpful if I could simply say the sound for you and get you to imitate me. Since I cannot do this I must leave the listening and imitating to you. So spend some of your listening time on the vowels.

As I said at the beginning of chapter 3 English speakers vary quite a lot in their vowel sounds, the vowels used by an Australian, an American and a Scotswoman in the words are all different, but they are all recognized quite easily as /i/. So the actual sounds that you use for the English vowels are not so important as the difference that you make between them. There must be differences between the vowels, and that is what we will concentrate on.

5.1 Simple vowels

/i:, i, ɪ/

In your language you will have a vowel which is like the English [i:] in sea, and one which is like the English [i] in sit, and almost certainly one which is like the English [ɪ] in get. They may not be exactly the same as the English vowels you hear in listening to English, but they will do for a starting-point. Say the words bid and bed and list several times and listen carefully to the sound of the vowels, then try to say a vowel which is between the other two, and different from both, not bid and not bed, but... bed - that will be the vowel [ɪ]. You need

three different vowels for the three words bead, bid and bed. Be sure that the middle vowel is different and between the other two: one thing which will help you to distinguish /i:/ from /i/ is that /i:/ is longer than /i/ as well as different in the quality of the sound. Practise those three words (and listen for them in English) until you are sure that you can keep them separate. The most likely difficulty is that you will confuse /i:/ with /i/, so be sure that /i/ is nearer in quality to /e/ and that it is always shorter than /i:/.

Remember that when the vowels are followed by a strong consonant they are shorter than when they are followed by a weak consonant, so that beat, bit and bet all have shorter vowels than bead, bid and bed, but even so the vowel /i:/ is always longer than the vowels /i/ and /e/ in any one set. Now practise the following sets and pay attention to both the length of the vowels and their quality:

- Li: I i id lead lid lid led led
- wi:t wheat wit wit wet wet
- bi:n been bin bin ben Ben
- tjirk cheek tjik chick tjek check
- fi:l feel fil fill fel fell

ri:tj reach ritj rich retj wretch

/e, ae, a/

Now you need another vowel between jeɪ and /a/, that is the vowel /æ/. Say the words bed bed and bAd bud several times and be sure that your mouth is quite wide open for the vowel of bAd. Listen to the vowels carefully and then try to say a vowel which is between those two, a vowel which sounds a bit like /e/ and a bit like /a/ but which is different from both. You must have different vowels in bed, bad and bud. Practise those three words until you can always make a difference between them; they all have comparatively short vowels so that length differences will not help you here.

Practise the following sets and be sure that each word really sounds different:

ten ten	taen tan	tAn ton
bet bet	bast bat	bAt but
pen pen	paen pan	pAn pun
seks sex	saeks sacks	SAks sucks
ded dead	daed Dad	dAd dud
mej mesh	maej mash	mAj mush



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Simple vowels



li:, i, e, ae, a/

Now try all five of these vowels in the sets given below: you will see that there are gaps in some of the sets, where no word exists, for instance there is no word lek; but for practice you can fill in the gap too. Some of the words are rather uncommon, but don't worry about the meanings just be sure that the vowel sounds are different:

biid bead bid bid bed bedliik leak lik lick

hi:l heel hil hill hel hell

tiin teen tin tin ten ten

niit neat nit knit ret net

liist least list list lest lest

rirm ream rim rim

• . 1 I a. 1- 1 i- k. of- K t

baed badlaek lackhael Hal

bAd budUk luckhAl hull

ten ten taen tan tAn ton

naet gnatraem ram

nAt nutI a st lustrAm rum
/a.cu.d/

In England when the doctor wants to look into your mouth and examine your throat he asks you to say Ah, that is the vowel /a:/, because for this vowel the tongue is very low and he can see over it to the back of the palate and the pharynx. So if you have no vowel exactly like /a:/ in your language you may find a mirror useful keep your mouth wide open and play with various vowel sounds until you find one which allows you to see the very back of the soft palate quite clearly; this will be similar to an English /a:/, but you must compare it with the /a:/ vowels that you hear when you listen to English and adjust your sound if necessary. Remember that /a:/ is a long vowel. The short vowel /d/ is a bit like /a:/ in quality though of course they must be kept separate. For /n/ the lips may be slightly rounded, for /a:/ they are not. Try the following sets:

GsD Uk luckkAd cuddAk duckI ASt lustbAks buckskAp cup

lark lark lok lock

kard card kDd cod

daik dark dok dock

larst last lost lost

barks barks boks box

karp carp kop cop

/d.d:, u, u:/

In your language there will be a vowel which is similar to the English

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three different vowels for the three words bid, bid and bid. Be sure that the middle vowel is different and that the other two are the same thing which will help you to distinguish /i:/ from /ɪ/ it that /i:/ is longer than /ɪ/ as well as different in the quality of the sound. Practice these three words (and listen for them in English) until you are sure that you can keep them separate. The most likely difficulty is that you will confuse /i:/ with /ɪ/, so be sure that /ɪ/ is never in quality to /e/ and that it is always shorter than /i:/.

Remember that when the vowels are followed by a strong consonant they are shorter than when they are followed by a weak consonant, so bid, bid, bid and bid all have shorter vowels than bid, bid and bid, but even so the vowel /i:/ is always longer than the vowels /ɪ/ and /e/ in any one set. Now practice the following sets and pay attention to both the length of the vowels and their quality:

Table with 3 columns of words: bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid. Includes words like bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid.

/e, ɛ, e/

Now you need another vowel between /e/ and /ɛ/, that is the vowel /ɛ/. Say the words bed, bed and bed but several times and be sure that your mouth is quite wide open for the vowel of bed. Listen to the vowels carefully and then try to say a vowel which is shorter than /e/, a vowel which sounds a bit like /e/ and a bit like /ɛ/ but which is different from both. You must have different vowels in bed, bed and bed. Practice these three words until you can always make a difference between them; they all have comparatively short vowels so that length differences will not help you here.

Practice the following sets and be sure that each word really sounds different:

Table with 3 columns of words: bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed. Includes words like bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed; bed, bed, bed.

/i:, ɪ, e, ɛ, e/

Now try all five of these vowels in the sets given below; you will see that there are gaps in some of the sets, whereas a word exists, for instance there is no word bid; but for practice you can fill in the gaps too. Some of the words are rather uncommon, but don't worry about the meanings - just be sure that the vowel sounds are different.

Table with 5 columns of words: bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid. Includes words like bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid; bid, bid, bid.

/ɔ:, ɒ, ɔ/

In English when the doctor wants to look into your mouth and examine your throat he asks you to say 'Ah', that is the vowel /ɑ:/. Because for this vowel the tongue is very low and he can see over it to the back of the palate and the pharynx. So if you have no vowel exactly like /ɑ:/ in your language you may find a mirror useful - keep your mouth wide open and play with various vowel sounds until you find one which allows you to see the very back of the soft palate quite clearly; this will be similar to an English /ɑ:/, but you must compare it with the /ɑ:/ vowel when you hear when you listen to English and adjust your sound if necessary. Remember that /ɑ:/ is a long vowel. The short vowel /ɒ/ is a bit like /ɑ:/ in quality though of course they can be kept separate. For /ɔ:/ the lips may be slightly rounded, for /ɑ:/ they are not. Try the following sets:

Table with 5 columns of words: bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak. Includes words like bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak; bak, bak, bak.

/ɒ, ɒ, ɒ, ɒ/

In your language there will be a vowel which is similar to the English

/u:/ in two. The /u:/ in English, like /i:/ and /a:/, is always longer than the other vowels. Between /d/ and /u:/ you need to make two other vowels, /a:/, a long one, as in /Id:/ /aw, and /u/, a short one, as in putpttf. For /d:/ the mouth is less open than for /d/ and the lips are more rounded, but /a:/ is nearer in quality to /d/ than to /u:/. For /u/ the lips are also rounded, but the sound is nearer in quality to /u:/. All four vowels, /o, a:, u, u:/, must be kept separate, and the differences of length will help in this. Try the following sets:

- Lɛj Jod shod jDɪd shored Jud should Ju:d shoed
kod cod ka:d cord kud could ku:d coed
WDd wad wa:d ward wud would wu:d wooed
Ink lock luk look I u:k Luke
pDl Poll poll Paul pul pull pu:l pool
/3i,a:/

The vowel /3:/ as in / h3:/ her is a long vowel which is not very close in quality to any of the other vowels and usually sounds rather vague and indistinct to the foreign learner. You must listen to the vowel especially carefully and try to imitate the indistinctness of it (though to an English listener it sounds quite distinct!). Two things will help: keep your teeth quite

close together and do not round your lips at all -smile when you say it! The two commonest mistakes with /ɜ:/ are, first, to replace it by /er/ or by some vowel in your own language which has lip-rounding but which is not likely to be confused with any other English vowel, and second, and more important, it is replaced by /a:/ by Japanese speakers and speakers of many African languages and others. In the first case there is no danger of misunderstanding although the vowel will sound strange; in the second case there is danger of mis-understanding, since words like hit hurt and hat heart will be confused.

In your listening-time pay special attention to /ɜ:/ and experiment (always with teeth close together and a smile on your face) until you approach the right quality; then make sure that you can distinguish it from /a:/ which has the teeth further apart in the following pairs:

pɜ:s purse hɜ:d heard pɜ:tjt perched

pɑ:s pass bɜ:n burn hard fɜ:m firm pɑ:tjt parched talks lurks

bɑ:n bam farm fɑ:lks larks

M

The vowel /a/ in banana is the commonest of the English

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Simple vowels

vowels and is a short version of /a:/. It is particularly short and indistinct when it is not final, e.g. in again, icantem « p

man. In final position, that is before a pause, as in better el^sla'

kola collar, the vowel sounds more like /a/, though it is not usually so

CI There are two main difficulties with this vowel: first, to identify it, that is to know when it is this vowel you should be aiming at, and second, to get the right quality. In the first case, do not be deceived by English spelling: there is no single letter which always stands for this vowel, so rely on your ear listen very carefully and you will hear dozens of examples of /a/ in every bit of English you listen to. In the second case, it is often useful to think of leaving out the vowel altogether in words such as condemn, Saturday, gentleman, where /a/ comes between consonants. Of course, you will not really leave out the vowel, but you will have a minimum vowel and that is what /a/ is. Then in initial position, as in attempt, account, observe, you must again keep it very short and very obscure. But in final position it need not be so short and it may be more like /a/, with the mouth a little more open than in other positions.

Try the following examples:

In medial position

perhaps

entatein entertaindinaz dinners

32mat3: amateur

ka mfata bj comfortableignarant ignorantAndastaend understandpail at pilot

p3imanant permanent

kantein

imbaeras

hindad

glaemaras

kampaunant

kaeraktaz

menas

terabj

kareid3as

contain

embarrass

hindered

glamorous

component

characters

menace

terrible

courageous

In initial position

L^l abei obeyalau allowamaunt amountada: adore

anai annoyapruiv approve

atend attend

abstrAkt obstructatjiiv achieve

akaunt account

asaid aside

agri: agree

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/u:/ in two. The /u:/ in English, like /i:/ and /ɜ:/, is always longer than the other vowels. Between /ɜ:/ and /i:/ you need to make two other vowels, /ɛ:/, a long one, and /e:/, a short one, and /ɔ:/, a long one, and /o:/, a short one. For /ɜ:/ the mouth is less open than for /ɛ:/ and the lips are more rounded, but /ɜ:/ is nearer in quality to /ɔ:/ than to /i:/. For /ɛ:/ the lips are also rounded, but the sound is nearer in quality to /u:/. All four vowels, /ɜ:/, /ɛ:/, /ɔ:/, and /o:/, must be kept separate, and the differences of length will help in this. Try the following sets:

ʊd shod	ɔ:ʃ shoed	ʊd should	ʊd shed
led ead	eʃ ead	led could	led wood
ved vad	wood voad	wood would	wood vood
tek lek	box lek	buk luk	Like
pu: Pol	ɔ:ʃ Pau	pu: pall	pu: pool

/a: eɪ/

The vowel /a:/ and /æ:/ here is a long vowel which is not very close in quality to any of the other vowels and usually sounds rather vague and indistinct to the foreign learner. You must learn to hear the vowel, especially carefully and try to imitate the indistinctness of it (though to an English listener it sounds quite distinct). Two things will help: keep your teeth quite close together and do not round your lips at all while you say it! The two commonest mistakes with /a:/ are, first, to replace it by /æ:/ or by some vowel in your own language which has lip-rounding but which is not likely to be confused with any other English vowel, and second, and more important, it is replaced by /ɜ:/ by Japanese speakers and speakers of many African languages and others. In the first case there is no danger of misunderstanding although the vowel will sound strange; in the second case there is danger of misunderstanding, since words like *hat* and *bat* will be confused.

In your listening-time psychophysical attention to /a:/ and /æ:/ (always with teeth close together and a smile on your face) until you approach the right quality, then make sure that you can distinguish it from /ɑ:/ which has the teeth further apart in the following pairs:

pa: paice	pa: pa	ba: ba	ba: ba
ha: ha	ha: ha	fa: fa	fa: fa
pa: pa	pa: pa	ka: ka	ka: ka

/ə/

The vowel /ə/ is between /a:/ and /ɜ:/ and is the commonest of the English

vowels and is a short version of /i:/. It is particularly short and indistinct when it is not final, e.g. in *ages ago*, *listen again*, *patience patient*. In final position, that is before a pause, as in *best love, so's a lot*, in a scalar, the vowel sounds more like /i:/, though it is not usually so close.

There are two main difficulties with this vowel: first, to identify it, that is, to know when it is this vowel you should be hearing it, and second, to get the right quality. In the first case, do not be deceived by English spelling: there is no single letter which always stands for this vowel, so rely on your ear. Listen very carefully and you will hear dozens of examples of /ə/ in every bit of English you listen to. In the second case, it is often useful to think of leaving out the vowel altogether in words such as *listen*, *again*, *patience*, *patient*, *listen again gentleman* where /ə/ comes between consonants. Of course, you will not really leave out the vowel, but you will have a minimum vowel and that is what /ə/ is. Then in initial position, as in *attempt*, *attempt*, *attempt*, *attempt*, you must again keep it very short and very obscure. But in final position it need not be so short and it may be more like /i:/ with the mouth a little more open than in other positions.

Try the following examples:

In medial position

pa:pa	pa:pa	ka:ken	ka:ken
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em

In initial position

em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em
em:em	em:em	em:em	em:em

apia appear ad 33 m adjourn
afens offence

In final position

sums	sooner	sell a	sailor
me38	measure	kola	collar
sAlfa	sulphur	Jaufa	chauffeur
aefrika	Africa	amerika	America
paija	Persia	kaenada	Canada
flaetara	flatterer	admaiara	admirer
kAla	colour	zefa	zephyr
piktja	picture	tjaina	China
rmidara murderer	kampauza	composer	

More examples of /a/ will be found in the next chapter when we consider the weak forms of certain words, such as at and for in at taim z attimes and fa ju: for you.

5.2 Diphthongs

A diphthong is a glide from one vowel to another, and the whole glide acts like one of the long, simple vowels; so we have bi:, ba:, bo: and also bei, bau, bai,

bau, boi, bia, bea, bua. The diphthongs of English are in three groups: those which end in /u/, /au, au/, those which end in /i, /ei, ai, oi/, and those which end in /a/, /ia, ea, ua/.

/au, au/



Both these diphthongs end with /u/ rather than /u:/ although you will not be misunderstood if you do use /u:/. To get /au/ as in sau so, start with /sɜ:/ and then glide away to /u/ with the lips getting slightly rounded and the sound becoming less loud as the glide progresses. Be sure that the first part of the diphthong is /ɜ:/ (a real English jɔ:!) and not /a:/ or anything like it, and be sure that the sound is a diphthong, not a simple vowel of the /a:/ type, /au/ and /a:/ must be kept quite separate. Try the following:

lau low la: law sau so so: saw

snau snow sna: snore baut boat bait bought

klauz close kla:z claws kauk coke ka:k cork

kaul coal kail call

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Diphthongs



For /au/ start with /a/. Say un ton, and then after the /a/-sound add an /, /; this should give taun town, /au/ is not difficult for most people. Be sure that /au/ and /a:/ are different. Try the following:

nau now nɜu bɜw

laud loud lɜud lɜfd ,

faund found fsund Phonf .

rau row (quarrel) rau row (line)

daut doubt daut dote

taunz towns tɜunz tones

Remember when you practise these examples that diphthongs are shorter before strong consonants and longer before weak ones, just like the other vowels, so baut boat has a shorter diphthong than klauz dose and daut doubt a shorter one than laud loud. Go back over all those examples and get the lengths right. When no consonant follows, as in lau low, the diphthong is at its longest.

/e i, ai, ai /

These diphthongs all end in /i/, not /I:/ (though it is not serious if you do use /i:/ finally). /e/ begins with /e/ as in men Say men and then add /i/ after /e/, gliding smoothly from /e/ to /i/ and making the sound less loud as the glide progresses this will give me main. The most common mistake is to use a long, simple vowel so try to be sure that there is a glide from /e/ to /i/; however, if you

do use a simple vowel for /ei/ it will not be misunderstood some accents of English (e.g. Scottish) do the same. But /æ/ and /e/ must be quite separate. Try the following-

S leit late let let sell sail sel seU
 peipa paper peP3 pepper treid trade tred tread
 reik rake rek wreck fell fail fe'



/ai/ elides from /a/ to /i/, and the loudness becomes less as the glide progresses. Say fAn fun, and then add /i/ after the /a/, with a smooth glide; this will give you fain fine. Be sure that /ai/ is separate from /e /.

wait white weit wait laid lied leid laid
 rais rice reis race raiz rise reiz raise
 lark like l«k lake fail file fell fad

/M/ glides from /d:/ to /i/, and as usual the loudness becomes less during

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Pairs

appa appear	edga in adjourn
afina chance	

in final position

tuwa sooner	reko ruler
meqa measure	kefo collar
talfo sulphur	fofo chaffeur
afrika Africa	amarka America
piya Paris	kanada Canada
flutara fluturer	admarara admurer
kalo colour	refo zephyr
pikto peccant	ijama China
murde murder	komposo composition

More examples of /ə/ will be found in the next chapter when we consider the weak form of certain words such as *at* and *for* in *at times* and *to for you*.

5.1 Diphthongs

A diphthong is a glide from one vowel to another, and the whole glide acts like one of the long, simple vowels; so we have *bit*, *bat*, *bit* and also *bat*, *bat*, *bat*, *bat*, *bat*, *bat*. The diphthongs of English are in three groups: those which end in /ɔ/, /ə/, /ɪ/, those which end in /e/, /ə/, /ɪ/, /ɪ/, and those which end in /ɔ/, /ɪ/, /ɪ/, /ɪ/.

/əu, əɪ/

Both these diphthongs end with /ɪ/ rather than /i/ although you will not be misunderstood if you do use /i/. To get /əu/ or /əɪ/ in use, start with /ə/ and then glide away to /u/ or /ɪ/ with the lips getting slightly rounded and the tongue becoming less low as the glide progresses. Be sure that the first part of the diphthong is /ə/ (a real English /ə/) and not /ɛ/ or anything like it, and be sure that the sound is a diphthong, not a simple vowel of the /ɔɪ/ type; /əu/ and /əɪ/ must be kept quite separate. Try the following.

lən law	lən law	lən law	lən law
snə snow	nə more	hən boat	hən boogie
kəz close	kɪz claws	kəz coke	kɪz cork
kəʊ cod	kɪʊ call		

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the glide. Say dp: jaw and then add /i/, as before. This will give you /dpi/ joy. The /d:/ sound is not as long in /di/ as it is when it is alone, as in /dp:/. /di/ is not a very common diphthong and it is not likely to be confused with any other vowel

Diphthongs

For /əɪ/ start with /ə/. Say *TAI TEN*, and then after the /ə/ sound add an /ɪ/; this should give *TAIN TEN*. /əɪ/ is not difficult for most people. Be sure that /əu/ and /əɪ/ are different. Try the following:

noʊ now	noʊ know
ləʊ loud	ləʊ lead
foʊ found	foʊ found
noʊ now (quarrel)	noʊ now (line)
doʊ doo	doʊ doo
soʊ sooo	soʊ sooo

Remember when you practice these examples that diphthongs are shorter before strong consonants and longer before weak ones, just like the other vowels, so *boat* has a shorter diphthong than *door*, *doe* and *doat* do not have a shorter one than *lane* and *land*. Go back over all these examples and get the lengths right. When no consonant follows, as in *lee* and *loa*, the diphthong is at its longest.

/əɪ, əɪ, əɪ/

These diphthongs all end in /ɪ/, not /i/; (though it is not serious if you do use /i/ finally). /əɪ/ begins with /ə/ as in *ten*. Say *ten* and then add /ɪ/ after /ə/, gliding smoothly from /ə/ to /ɪ/ and making the sound less loud as the glide progresses - this will give *ten* again. The most common mistake is to use a long, simple vowel, so try to be sure that there is a glide from /ə/ to /ɪ/, however. If you do use a simple vowel, *ten* /tɛn/ it will not be misunderstood - some accents of English (e.g. Scottish) do the same. But /tɛ/ and /tɪ/ must be quite separate. Try the following:

lən law	lən law	lən law	lən law
pepa paper	pepa pepper	reik rake	reik rake
reik rake	reik wreck	leɪ fail	leɪ fail

/əɪ/ glides from /ə/ to /ɪ/, and the loudness becomes less as the glide progresses. Say *lee* and *loa*, and then add /ɪ/ after the /ə/, with a smooth glide; this will give you *fain* fine. Be sure that /əɪ/ is separate from /əɪ/.

wait white	wait wait	leɪ lead	leɪ lead
reɪ rice	reɪ race	leɪ fail	leɪ fail
leɪ like	leɪ lake	leɪ fail	leɪ fail

/əɪ/ glides from /ə/ to /ɪ/, and as usual the loudness becomes less during

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or diphthong. Try these words:

bDi boy tDi toy anDi annoy nDiz noise
oil oil djDinjoin avDid avoid bDilz boils
vdis voice hDist hoist d3Dint joint bita loiter
/ia, ea, ua/

These are all glides to the sort of /a/-sound found in final position, as described on p. 83. /ia/ glides from /i/ (not /i:/) to this /a/ in words like *hear*, *near*, etc. If you do use /i:/ at the beginning of the glide it will sound a bit strange but you will not be misunderstood. Try the following:

fia fearkarian Koreanriali really
jia yearrial realfias fierce
bia beer klia clear
biad beard aidiaz ideas
pias pierce niara nearer



Words such as *fAnia* funnier and *gbirias* glorious, where /ia/ is the result of adding an ending /a/ or /as/ to a word which ends with /i/, should be pronounced in the same way as the /ia/ in *hear*, *near*, etc. The same is true for words such as *India* 'India, *earia* area, *juinian* union, etc.

To make /ea/, start with the word *haez* has (with the proper English /ae/, between /e/ and /a/) and then add /a/ after the /ae/, gliding smoothly from /ap/ to /a/; this will give you the word *heaz* hairs. Notice that the beginning of the diphthong is /ae/ rather than /e/. You must keep /ia/ and /ea/ quite separate; try the following:

hia here hea hair bia beer bea bare
stiad steered stead stared iaz ears eaz airs
rial 1 really reali rarely wian weary weari wary



/ua/ starts from /u/ (not /u:/) and glides to /a/; if you use /u:/ at the beginning of the glide it will sound a bit strange but you will not be misunderstood. Try the following:

pua poor
Juali surely
fjuarias furious
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injuarans insurancekjuariDsati curiositykjuia cure
Diphthongs
pjua pure
Jua sure

pjualı purely

All these words may also be pronounced with /d:/ instead of /ua/ in R.P., /pDi, Jbi, kja:/, etc. Other words, like fewer, bluer, continuous, are also usually pronounced with /ua/ fjuə, bluə, kantinjuəs though they can always be pronounced with /u:a/ fjuia, bluia, kantiŋ u:as -and in any case they must not be pronounced with /di/. This is also true for cruel and jewel which must have either /ua/ or /u:a/.

5.3 Vowel sequences

There are vowel sequences as well as consonant sequences but they are not so difficult. In general, when one vowel (or diphthong) follows another you should pronounce each one quite normally but with a smooth glide between them. The most common sequences are formed by adding /a/ to a diphthong, especially to /ai/ and /au/ in words like fold fire and our. When you listen to these two sequences /aia, auə/ you will notice that the /i/ in fire and the /u/ in our are rather weak; in fact both sequences may sound rather like /a:/. It is probably best for you not to imitate this but to pronounce the sequences as /ai-f-a/ and /jəv+dʒ/, though the /i/ and the /u/ should not be made too strong. Try

the following:

traial trialkwaiat quietkauad cowardbaia buyerflaia flyeraian ironauaz ours
taua towertraual troweltaiad tiredpauaful powerfulbaua bowerflaua
flowerraiat riotJauari showery

The less common sequences /eia, auə, aia/ should be pronounced with the normal diphthong smoothly followed by /a/. The /i/ and /u/ need not be weakened at all. Try:

greia greyergraua growerpleia playermal royalfolauaz followers
impbia employerəraua throwerbitreial betrayallaiaz lawyers

the glide. Say /ɔ:/ jaw and then add /i/ in before. This will give you /ɔ:ji/. The /ɔ:/ sound is not as long as /a:/ as it is when it is alone, as in /ɔ:ps/. /ɔ:/ is not a very common diphthong and it is not likely to be confused with any other vowel or diphthong. Try these words:

- boat boy boat try boat army boat noise
- oil oil oil join wood avoid boat book
- his voice his voice sport joint his sister

/iə, eə, ʊə/

These are all glides to the sort of /ə/-sound found in final position, as described on p. 51. /ə/ glides from /i/ (not /i:/) to this /ə/ in words like his, her, no, nor, etc. If you do use /i:/ at the beginning of the glide it will sound a bit strange but you will not be misunderstood. Try the following:

- is car is year his beer his clear
- his his his real his heard his sister
- Korean Korean his fierce his peace his nearest
- his really

Words such as *his year* and *his beer*, where /ɪ/ is the result of adding an ending /ə/ or /s/ to a word which ends with /i/, should be pronounced in the same way as the /i:/ in *year*, *beer*, etc. The same is true for words such as *his real*, *his heard*, *his sister*, etc.

To make /iə/, start with the word *his* with the proper English /s/, between /i/ and /ə/ and then add /r/ after the /s/, gliding smoothly from /s/ to /r/. This will give you the word *his year*. Notice that the beginning of the diphthong is /i:/ rather than /i/. You must keep /i:/ and /ə/ quite separate; try the following:

- his his his hair his live his face
- his stand his stand his car his car his sister
- his really his really his war his war his war

/uə/ starts from /u/ (not /u:/) and glides to /ə/ if you use /u/ at the beginning of the glide it will sound a bit strange but you will not be misunderstood. Try the following:

- poor poor inferior insurance
- his his his his
- his his his his

- you you you you
- you you you you

All these words may also be pronounced with /ɪ/ instead of /i:/ in E.P., just /ɪ/, /ɪp/, etc. Other words, like *four*, *blue*, *continuous* are also usually pronounced with /ɪ/. *four*, *blue*, *continuous* though they can always be pronounced with /i:/ /fʊə/, /blu:/, /kɔ:ntɪnju:əs/ and in any case they must not be pronounced with /ɪ/. This is also true for *over* and *year* which must have either /oʊ/ or /ɔ:/.

5.3 Vowel sequences

There are vowel sequences as well as consonant sequences but they are not so difficult. In general, when one vowel (or diphthong) follows another you should pronounce each one quite normally but with a smooth glide between them. The most common sequences are formed by adding /ə/ to a diphthong, especially to /i:/ and /a:/ in words like *his year* and *his beer*. When you hear either of these sequences /iə/, /eə/ you will notice that the /j/ in /i/ and the /r/ in /e/ are stronger words; in fact both sequences may sound rather like /jɪə/. It is probably best for you not to imitate this but to pronounce the sequences as /i/ + /ə/ and /a/ + /ə/, though the /j/ and the /r/ should not be made too strong. Try the following:

- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his

The less common sequences /eə/, /ɔə/, /ʊə/ should be pronounced with the normal diphthong smoothly followed by /ə/. The /j/ and /r/ need not be weakened at all. Try:

- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his
- his his his his

Vowels

/i:/ and /u:/ are also followed by /a/ in words like *freer* and *bluer* which may be pronounced *fri:a* or *fria*, and *blu:ˆ* or *blua*, as we have seen.

The verb ending *-ing* /ɪŋ/ gives various sequences in words like the following:
bi:ɪŋ beingdung *doɪŋ* galauig *aləʊɪŋ* drang *draʊŋ* gauig *ɡoʊɪŋ* going
sɪŋ seeɪŋstʃʊŋ *stɛwɪŋ* bauig *bəʊɪŋ* sang *səʊɪŋ* nauig *nəʊɪŋ* knowing

In words like *saying*, *enjoying*, *flying*, where *-ing* follows a word ending with /ei/, /ai/ or /ai/, it is common to pronounce *seɪŋ*, *ɪndʒaɪŋ*, *flaɪŋ*, if you find this easier.

In words like *carrying*, *pitying*, etc., where a word which ends with /i/ has /ɪŋ/ added to it, it is usual (and best for you) to pronounce *keɪsɪŋ*, *pɪtɪŋ*, etc., although *kaeri* and *piti* are the normal forms.

Other vowel sequences are found both within words and between words. These also should be performed with a smooth glide between the vowels. (See also p. 101.) Here are some examples:

- kerns chaosbmnd beyondblunʃ bluɪʃ
- 5i: end the end
- riaekt reactgreɪ aɪd greɪ-ɪedmaɪ aʊn maɪ əʊn
- baɪəgrafi baɪəgrafi

kauDpareit co-operate
juiaint you aren't
gau aut go out
tuiauz two hours
mei ai au it tu: ju: may I owe it to you?

5.4 Exercises

(Answers, where appropriate, on p. 135)

1 What vowels and diphthongs do you have in your language? Which of the English ones cause you difficulty?

2 During your listening-time listen carefully to one of the difficult vowels at a time and try to get the sound of it into your head. Make a list of twenty words containing each difficult vowel and practise them.

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Exercises

3 Go back and practise all the examples given in this chapter, and concentrate on making differences between the different vowels.

4 Is the length of vowels important in your language? Practise making the difference between the long vowels (including the diphthongs) and the short vowels of English. Don't forget that vowel length is affected by following strong and weak consonants; complete the following list for all the vowels and practise it, thinking about vowel

length:

bi:d bi:t

hiz his

sed set

5 Make a list of phrases like the ones on p. 88, where a vowel or diphthong at the end of one word is immediately followed by another at the beginning of the next. Practise saying them smoothly, with no break between the vowels.

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/j/ and /ɹ/ are also followed by /t/ in words like *jeer* and *bluer* which may be pronounced *jeer* or *frin*, and *bluer* or *blur*, as we have seen.

The *w*-ending -*ing* (/ɪŋ/) gives various sequences in words like the following:

18	blay - being	stay - seeing
	deay - doing	ɹ(ɹ)ay - ɹewing
	alay - allowing	bay - bowing
	deay - drawing	ɹay - ɹewing
	goy - going	woy - knowing

In words like *say*, *play*, *stay*, *draw*, where -*ing* follows a word ending with /eɪ/, /aɪ/ or /ɔɪ/, it is common to pronounce *sey*, *play*, *draw*, if you find this easier.

In words like *say*, *play*, etc., where a word which ends with /t/ has /ɪŋ/ added to it, it is usual (and best for you) to pronounce *say*, *play*, etc., although *seer* and *plur* are the normal forms.

Other vowel sequences are found both within words and between words. These also should be performed with a smooth glide between the vowels. (See also p. 104.) Here are some examples:

19	know - chow	rain - rain
	bird - beyond	mark - mark
	blue - bluish	grey - grey
	end - the end	mar - mar

biography - biography
 cooperate - cooperate
 justice - you aren't
 go out - go out
 two hours - two hours
 may I owe it to you? - may I owe it to you?

5.4 Exercises

(Answers, where appropriate, on p. 110)

1. What vowel and diphthongs do you have in your language? Which of the English ones cause you difficulty?
2. During your listening-time listen carefully to one of the difficult vowels at a time and try to get the sound of it into your head. Make a list of twenty words containing each difficult vowel and practice them.

3. Go back and practice all the examples given in this chapter, and concentrate on making differences between the different vowels.
4. Is the length of vowel important in your language? Practice making the difference between the long vowels (including the diphthongs) and the short vowels of English. Don't forget that vowel length is affected by following strong and weak consonants; compare the following list for all the vowels and practice it, thinking about vowel length:

bit	hit
hit	hit
set	set
5. Make a list of phrases like the ones on p. 88, where a vowel or diphthong at the end of one word is immediately followed by another at the beginning of the next. Practice saying them smoothly, with no break between the vowels.

1
 6 Words in company
 6.1 Word groups and stress

When we talk we do not talk in single words but in groups of words spoken continuously, with no break or pause; we may pause after a group, but not during it. These groups may be long, for example, *However did you manage to do it so neatly and tidily?*, or they may be short, as when we say simply *Yes* or *Mo*, or they may be of intermediate length, like *How did you do it?* or *Come over here a minute*. When we have longer things to say we break them up into manageable groups like this: *Last Wednesday I wanted to get up to London early so I caught a train about half an hour before my usual one and I got to work about half past eight.*

When one group is very closely connected grammatically to the next, there is a very slight pause, marked by (). When two groups are not so closely connected, there is a longer pause, marked by (), and this double bar is also used to mark the end of a complete utterance. It is not usually difficult to see how a long utterance can be broken up into shorter groups, but when you listen to English notice how the speakers do it both in reading and in conversation.

In the group T could hardly believe my eyes the words hardly, believe and eyes are stressed: this means that one of the syllables of the word (the only syllable in eyes!) is said with greater force, with greater effort, than the others; in hardly it is the first syllable /hard-/, and in believe it is the second syllable /li:v/. All the remaining syllables in the group are said more weakly, they are unstressed, only /hard-/, /—li:v/ and /aiz/ have the extra effort or stress. We can show this by placing the mark immediately before the syllables which have stress, for example:

L^J ai kud *ha:dli bi*li:v mai *aiz

Hardly always has stress on the first syllable, never on the second, and believe always has stress on the second syllable, never on the first; every English word has a definite place for the stress and we are not allowed

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Word groups and stress



change it The first syllable is the most common place for the stress, *stead*, *kwDlifi*keij3n, examination ig zaemi neijan, ernfiindicate *indi*keit.

6.2 Stressed and unstressed syllables

There is no simple way word

English word must be stressed, J Y ^ dictionary of you must be sure to learn how it • Y , syllable

Prudish will give you this information. It you stress the 8 J ■ 1*£ Sape of the word for an English hearer and he may have

di r >urds arc

arms ed aid renl/and ly are nnsressed. What sort of words are ed hen and what sort are unstressed? First, all words of more, ' I.', | re stressed In some circumstances English speakers

words which are stressed, special purposes

"TyihbfaS ntn stressedlften contain the vowel />>/ instead of any clearer vowel, and this vowel />>/ only ""Is on

5* second syllable is stressed and the first has a/ but in the: n o contents the firs, syllable ts the effo,,

/d/. Here are some examples of the same k , y

on the correct syllable and with the right vowels:

S ab*t«in obtain ob)'Ct'n')

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6 Words in company

6.1 Word groups and stress

When we talk, we do not talk in single words but in groups of words spoken continuously, without break or pause; we may pause after a group, but not during it. These groups may be long, for example, *However did you manage to do it so neatly and tidily?*, or they may be short as when we say simply *Yes* or *No*, or they may be of intermediate length, like *How did you do it?* or *Come over here a minute*. When we have longer things to say we break them up into manageable groups like this: *Last Wednesday I wanted to go up to London only as I caught a train about half an hour before my usual one, and I got to work about half past eight.*

When one group is very closely connected grammatically to the next, these two very slight pauses, marked by (), when two groups are not so closely connected, there is a longer pause, marked by (), and this double bar is also used to mark the end of a complete utterance. It is not usually difficult to see how a long utterance can be broken up into shorter groups, but when you listen to English native speakers do it look unreading and in conversation.

In the group *I could hardly believe my eyes* the words *could*, *believe* and *eyes* are stressed: this means that one of the syllables of the word (the only syllable in *eyes*) is said with greater force, with greater effort, than the others; in *hardly* it is the first syllable /hɑ:rd-/, and in *believe* it is the second syllable /-li:v/. All the remaining syllables in the group are said more weakly, they are unstressed; only *hard-*, /-fɜ:v/ and /aɪ/ have the extra effort stressed. We can show this by placing the mark * immediately before the syllables which have stress, for example:

☐ aɪ kʊd *hɑ:rdli bi *i:vmaɪ *aɪz

Hardly always has stress on the first syllable, never on the second and *believe* always has stress on the second syllable, never on the first, so any English word has a definite place for the stress and we are not allowed

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Word groups and stress

to change it. The first syllable is the most common place for the stress, as in *father*, *my*, *steady*, *gathering*, *excellent*, *obituary*, *reasonable*; many words are stressed on the second syllable, like *about*, *before*, *attractive*, *beginning*, *intelligent*, *majority*. Some words have two stressed syllables, for example, *fourteen* *fɔ: *ti:n, *self-interest* *sɛlf *i:ntrɪst, *disbelieve* *dɪsbɪ *li:v, *combination* *kɒmbɪ *neɪʃən, *qualification* *kwɒlɪfɪ *keɪʃən, *examination* ɪg *zæmə *neɪʃən, *roughed* *rʌf *hɒd, *indicate* *ɪndɪ *keɪt.

6.2 Stressed and unstressed syllables

There is no simple way of knowing which syllable or syllables in an English word must be stressed, but every time you learn another word you must be sure to learn how it is stressed: any good dictionary of English will give you this information. If you stress the wrong syllable it spoils the shape of the word for an English hearer and he may have difficulty in recognizing the word.

As we saw in the group *I could hardly believe my eyes* not all words are stressed; / and what are unstressed? First, all words of more than one syllable are stressed, in some circumstances English speakers do not stress such words, but it is always possible to stress them and you should do so. Next, words of one syllable are generally not stressed if they are purely grammatical words like pronouns (*I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *etc.*), prepositions (*in*, *for*, *at*, *from*, *by*, *etc.*), articles (*the*, *a*, *an*, *some*, *etc.*), nouns (*head*, *data*, *book*, *pen*, *etc.*), adjectives (*good*, *blue*, *long*, *cold*, *etc.*), adverbs (*well*, *just*, *quite*, *not*) and the like. In general it is the picture words which are stressed, the words which give us the picture or provide most of the information. We shall see later that for special purposes it is possible to stress any English word, even the purely grammatical ones, but usually they are unstressed.

Syllables which are not stressed often contain the vowel /ə/ (a schwa) (a very deader vowel), and the vowel /ə/ only occurs in unstressed syllables, never in stressed ones. For instance, in all the examples on p. 8: the /ə/ is in an unstressed syllable. In the word *contest* kɒn *teɪn the second syllable is stressed and the first has /ə/, but in *ben-tən* bɛn *tən the first syllable is stressed and has the clearer vowel /e/. Here are some examples of the same kind; say them with the effect on the correct syllable and with the right vowels:

☐ əb *teɪn əbteɪn *əbteɪn əbteɪn

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pa*mit	permit (v.)	*p3:fɪkt	perfect (adj.)
pra*vaid	provide	*praugre\$	progress (n.)
*faut3*gra	:f photograph	f3*tDgrafi	photography
pri*pea	prepare	*prep3*reijan	preparation
kam*bain	combine (v.)	*kDmbi*neiJan	combination
*kDnv3nt	convent	in*vent	invent

But it is not true, as you can see, that /a/ is the only vowel which occurs in unstressed syllables; all the other vowels can occur there too and /i/ is commonly found there, the remaining vowels less commonly so.

Here are examples of other vowels in unstressed syllables; say them as before:

LsJ *plenti plenty *eni6ii] anything
 *hikAp hiccough ju:*tiliti utility
 *0aei]kju thank you *windau window
 traenz*leit translate mein*tein maintain
 di*said decide vai*breit vibrate
 D:*spija\$ auspicious *gaera:3 garage

6.3 Weak forms of words

In It was too expensive for them to buy the words too, expensive and buy are stressed, giving it *wɜz *tʊɪ ɪk *spɛnsɪv fɔ 63m tʊ *baɪ*. Notice the pronunciation of the words was, for, them and to; all of them have the vowel /ə/. If those words are pronounced alone, they have the pronunciations *wɜz*, *fɔː*, *dɛm* and *tʊː*, but usually they are not pronounced alone and usually they are not stressed, and then the forms with /ə/ are used; we call these the weak forms of those words.

English people often think that when they use these weak forms they are being rather careless in their speech and believe that it would be more correct always to use the strong forms, like *wɜz*, *tʊː*, etc. This is not true, and English spoken with only strong forms sounds wrong.

The use of weak forms is an essential part of English speech and you must learn to use the weak forms of 35 English words if you want your English to sound English. Some words have more than one weak form and the following list tells you when to use one and when the other:

Weak form Examples

an **bɪlək 3n *waɪt*

ez *3z *gʊd əz *gɔːld*

bat *bɪt *waɪ *n dɪt?*

Word C^l and as but

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Weak forms of words

than *6sn* that *6at*

(The word that in phrases like that man, that's good is always pronounced *6æt* and never weakened.) he *iː* him *ɪm* his *ɪz* her *3ː*

(At the beginning of word groups the forms *hiː*, *hɪm*, *hɪz*, *hɜː* should be used: *h ː *laɪk* it, *hɜː *feɪz* iz **rɛd*)

them *63 m*

us *s* (only in let's)

3S

do *dɜ*

(*da* is only used before consonants. Before vowels, use the strong form *d uː *haʊ duː *aɪ *n 3U?*) does *dəz* am *m* (after I)

sm (elsewhere) are *a* (before consonants) *sɪr* (before vowels) be *bi*

is *s* (after /p, t, k, f, 0/) *z* (after vowels and voiced consonants except /z, ʒ, dʒ/)

(After /s, z, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/ the strong form *ɪz* is always used: **wɪtʃ ɪz *raɪt?*) was

wɜz

has *əz* (after /ʃ, z, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/) *s* (after /p, t, k, f, 0/) *z* (elsewhere)

have *v* (after I, we, you, they)

3V (elsewhere)

*beta dan *evsai ad*mit 6at ai *did it
 *did i: *win?*giv im *tu:ai*laikiz*tai*teik3:*haum
 *send 63m bai *paust*lets*du:it*nauhi:*waunt*let as*du:it*hauda dei*nau?
 *wen daz 6a *trein *li:v?ai m *taiad.
 *wen am ai ta *bi: *6ea?da *g3:lza*bju:tafjda *men ar *Agli*daunt bi
 *ru:d*daet s *fain*wea z *d3Dn?
 *d3Dn z*hia
 da *weda waz *terab!da *plei\$ az *tjeind3d*d3aeks*gDn*d3on z bi:n
 *sikju: v*braukanitdaymen av*gDn
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Words in company

pa'mit	permit (v.)	*gaid	perfect (adj.)
prə'vid	provide	*prə'grɜːs	progress (n.)
*'fəʊtə'grɑːf	photograph	fə'tɒɡrəfi	photography
prɪ'pəʊz	propose	*prə'pəʊz	preparation
kəm'kæm	combine (v.)	*kəm'beɪn	combination
*kɪn'vent	invent	ɪn'vent	invent

But it is not true, as you can see, that /ə/ is the only vowel which occurs in unaccented syllables; all the other vowels can occur there too and /ɪ/ is commonly found there, the remaining vowels less commonly so. Here are examples of other vowels in unaccented syllables; say them as before:

*glævz	plains	*'eniw	anything
*'fɒkɪz	hiccoughs	ju:'wɪli	utility
*θæŋkz	thank you	*wɪnəw	winnow
trænz'læt	translate	mɜː'teɪ	maritime
et'saɪd	beside	vɪ'kɜːs	vicarage
sɪ'spɪʃɪz	suspicious	*'gærɪʒ	garage

6.3 Weak forms of words

In *Words in company* we then say the words too, represent and lay are stressed, giving us wəʊ, tʊ, ɪk'grɜːs, fɪ dæm tə 'bi. Notice the pronunciation of the words too, for, then and lay, all of them have the vowel /ə/. If these words are pronounced alone, they have the pronunciation wəʊ, fɜː, ðen, ɪn læɪ, but usually they are not pronounced alone and usually they are not stressed, and then the forms with /ə/ are used; we call these the *weak forms* of those words.

English people often think that when they use their weak forms they are being rather careless in their speech and believe that it would be more correct always to use the strong forms, like wɜːz, tɜː, etc. This is not true: and English spoken with only strong forms sounds wrong. The use of weak forms is an essential part of English speech and you must learn to use the weak forms of 35 English words if you want your English to sound English. Some words have more than one weak form and the following list tells you when to use one and when the other:

Word	Weak form	Examples
and	ən	*stæk ən *waɪt
as	əz	ət *gɜːs əz *gəʊld
but	bət	bət *waɪt *nɔːt

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Weak form of words

that	ðæt	*beta dan *evsai ət əd *mɪt dɔːz ɪz *kɔːtɪt
that	ðət	(The word that in phrases like the man that's good is always pronounced ðæt and never weakens.)
he	hiː	*dɪd iː *waɪt? *gɪv ɪm *tʊ: ɪz *lɪk ɪz *tʊ: *tɜːkəl *θɜːm
him	ɪm	
his	ɪz	
her	ɪ	(At the beginning of word groups the forms hɪt, hɪm, hɪz, hɪr should be used; h: *hɪkət, hɪ: *tʊ: ɪz *tɜːd)
them	ðəm	*wɛd ðəm bɪ: *pəʊnt *tɜːt *dɔːt ɪm *nɔːt hɪ: *wɔːnt *tʊ: ɪz *dɔːnt *tʊ: dɔːt *tʊ: ɪz *
us	ʊs (only in BrE)	
or	ə	
she	ʃiː	(/iː/ only used before consonants; before vowels, use the strong form ʃiː: *hændl: *hɪ: *tʊ: ɪz)
does	dʌz	*wɛn dæz ðə *tɜːn *lɪ:v? ɪz ɪm *tɜːd
am	əm (after I) əm (elsewhere)	*wɛn ɔːm ɪz *tʊ: *tʊ: ðə *gɜːl ɪz *bɪ:stɪt? ðə *mɛn ɪz *ɹɪl *dʒɔːn bɪ: *tʊ: *tʊ: ɪz *tʊ: *wɛz ɪz *tʊ: *dʒɔːn ɪz *tʊ:
are	ə (before consonants) ɑː (before vowels)	
be	bɪ	
is	ɪ (after /p, t, k, ʃ, θ/) ɪz (after vowels and voiced consonants except /r, ʒ, ʒ/) (Also /ə, ɪ, ɪ, ɪ, ɪ, ɪ/; the strong form ɪz is always used: *wɛt ɪz *tʊ: ɪz)	
was	wɒz	ðə *wɛd wɒz *tɜːrɒb! ðə *pleɪ ɪz *tʃeɪndʒd *dʒɜːl ɪz *gɜːn *dʒɔːn ɪz *lɪk jɪ: ɪz *brʌkən ɪz ðə *mɛn ɪz *gɜːn
has	həz (after /s, z, ʒ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/) hɪz (after /p, t, k, ʃ, θ/) z (elsewhere)	
have	həv (after /s, z, ʒ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/) hæv (elsewhere)	

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Words in company
 had d (after 7, he, she, we, you, they)ad (elsewhere)
 (At the beginning of wordgroups the forms haez,haev, haed should be used:
 haez*eniwAn *faund ? When has,have, had are full verbs theyshould always be
 pronouncedhaez, haev, haed: ai haev*tu: *brA3az)can kanshall J|
 will I (after I, he, she, we, you, they)j (after consonants,except /I/)
 a I (after vowels and /I/)
 would d (after I, he, she, we, you, they)ad (elsewhere)must mast

a a (before consonants)an an (before vowels)the 5a (before consonants)
(Before vowels the strong form 5i: should be used:

6i: *a:nts an 5i: *Agkjz)some sam

(When some means 'acertain quantity' it is always stressed and therefore pronounced SAM:

*SAM av max *frendz)at at

for fa (before consonants)far (before vowels)from framof av

to ta (before consonants)(Before vowels the strong form tu: should be used:ai

*wDntid tu: *a:sk ju:)

5eid *left *haum5a *dei ad bi:n *fain

*hau kan ai *help?ai JI bi *krDs5ei I *giv it a*wei*5is j *du:

5a *b:>i al *lu:z an 5a *g3:l

al *win

*ai d *du: it

*d3Dn ad *du:it

ai mast *tel im

a *paund a *dei

*haev an *aepj

5a *ma: 5a *meria

ai *ni:d sam *peipa

*kAm at *wAns*kAm fa*ti:

*kAm far a *mi:lai *sent it fram *Undan5a *kwi:n av ^igglandta *stei a: ta

*gau

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Weak forms of words



The word not has the weak forms /nt/ (after vowels) and /nt/ (after consonants) when it follows .re, is, should, would, has, have could, dare, might. Examples: 3ei *a:nt *kAmiQ; hi: *h*znt: a raivd. especially the forms cant ka:nt, shan't^, don t daunt, won t waunmustn't m Asnt, in which can, shall, do, will, must are changed when they combine with not. Practise all the examples given here and be sure that the weak forms are really weak, then make up similar examples of yourself and practise those too.

6.4 The use of strong forms

As I have said, the 3 5 common words which have weak forms also have strong forms, which must be used in the following cases .

, Whenever the word is stressed, as it may be: katnai du .5e'-'*h*v iu: ju: mast *tju:2 ♦, a: *3em, *h,: *la.ks *ha. bat

daz*fi:*laik*him? ,

2 Whenever the word is final in the group: *dʒɒn h<ez, mean wi,*iu:a: ai
*daunt*WDnttu:, *WDts*3aet fa:?

Exceptions: he, km, fas. her, them. »shave their ,e,AhelmtinCnaposition
(unless they are stressed of eourse): a. *t»Wwi: *ka:ld far im, Qei *la:ft at as. .

not has its weak form finally when attached to can, have, is, etc .*dʒn
*ka:nt, *mean *iznt; but never otherwise: at haup notSome of the 3 5 words are
very rarely either stressed or final in thegroup and so very rarely have their
strong form, for example, than athe. But occasionally they are stressed for
reasons of.meaning^^nd thethey naturally have their strong form: ai sed *ei sau,
not S..

(I Practise all these examples and then make up others for yourself
andpractise those too.

6.5 Rhythm units



Within the word group there is at least one stressed syllable (II*wen ?||
|l*s'u'n *nau? *jes). The length of the syllable in a very short
'group' of this kind depends on the natural length of the vowel and the
^/nau'/if a very'long'sy liable ibecause it has a diphthong and no follow-
Tu"">"o tngghi°nUs= it has a long vowel followed by aweak consonant.

Words in company

had	h (after /, do, one, we, you, they) or (elsewhere) (At the beginning of word groups the forms had , has , had should be used: had *ergänzt *ergänzt; When has , have , had are full verbs they should always be pronounced had , has , had ; as have *tu: *we:ðe:)	had	*hæd *hæf *ha:z do *tu: əd hɪz *hæz
can	kæn	*kæn kæn a: *help!	*hælkən a: *help!
shall	ʃəl	ʃəl hɪ *hæz	ʃəl hɪ *hæz
will	w (after /, he, she, we, you, they) (after consonants, except /h) (after vowels and /l)	we: *wɪl *wɪl *wɪl do *bɔ:z *hæ:z ən ðə *gɪz əl *wɪn *ɪd *dʌt ɪt *dʒɪnəd *hæ: ɪt ɪt stæt *tɪl ɪn ə *paʊnd ə *dɛɪ *tʌr əz *zɪp do *tɔ: ðə *mɛnz	do: *dɔ:z
words	w (after /, he, she, we, you, they) or (elsewhere)	*wɜ: dɪ sɒm *peɪpə	
must	mʌst	*mʌst *wʌst *kæn fə *tɪ: *kæn fə a: *tɪ: a: *wɛn: ɪt frəm *lændɪz ðə *kɔ:lnɪv *rɪglɪnd ɪə *vɪ: ɪ: tɪ *gɔ:z	
a	ɪ (before consonants)		
as	əz (before vowels)		
be	bi: (before consonants) (before vowels the strong form bi: should be used: bi: *wɪz əz ði: *tʌk ɪz)		
some	sʌm (When some means 'a certain quantity' it is always stressed and therefore pronounced sam : *tʌr əz mɪ: *fɜ:dlɪ)		
at	ət		
be	bi: (before consonants) (before vowels)		
from	frɒm		
of	ɒv		
to	tə (before consonants) (Before vowels the strong form tu: should be used: a: *wɛnəd tɪz *kɔ:k ɪz)		

Weak forms of words

The word **not** has the weak forms /nɪ/ (after vowels) and /nət/ (after consonants) when it follows **are**, **is**, **should**, **would**, **has**, **have**, **could**, **date**, **night**. Examples: ðe: *dɪn *kæmɪ ɪz *hæpɪ *rænd. Notice especially the forms **not** /kən/, **she** /ʃə/, **do** /də/, **was** /wəz/, **wasn't** /wəznt/, **wasn't** /wəznt/, in which **are**, **could**, **is**, **will**, **was** are changed when they combine with **not**. Practice all the examples given here and be sure that the weak forms are really weak, then make up similar examples for yourself and practice those too.

6.4 The use of strong forms

As I have said, the 35 common words which have weak forms also have strong forms, which occur in the following cases:

- 1 Whenever the word is stressed, as it may be: *kæn ɪz? *tʌr hæz? *hæz ɪz? *hɪz ɪz? | ɪz wɪt? *tʌt *ɪz ɪz *dɔ:z, *hɪt? *hæz? *hɪz ɪz? | *hæz *hɪz?
- 2 Whenever the word is final in the group: *dʒən hæz, *mɛnz wɪt, *tʌt, ɪz *dænz *wɪz ɪz, *wɪz *dænz ɪz?

Exceptions: **in**, **on**, **at**, **for**, **then**, **where** have their weak forms in final position (unless they are stressed of course): **in** *ɪn ɪz, **for** *fɔ:z ɪz, **then** *ðen ɪz, **where** *we:ə ɪz, **do** *dʌz ɪz.

at has its weak form usually when attached to **en**, **from**, **in**, etc.: *dʒən *hæznt, *mɛnz *hæpnt; but never otherwise: **at** *hæp ɒt.

Some of the 35 words are very rarely either stressed or final in the group and so very rarely have their strong form. For example, **about**, **after**, **the**. But occasionally they are stressed for reasons of meaning, and then they usually use their strong form: **at** tʌt *tʌt, *tʌt *hæz *hæz (I said a son, not the son).

Practice all these examples and then make up others for yourself and practice those too.

6.5 Rhythm units

Within the word group there is at least one stressed syllable (*wɜ:nl) [***wɜ:nl** *rʌnz *tɪz]. The length of this syllable in a very loose 'group' of this kind depends on the natural length of the vowel and the following consonant(s), if any.

was is a very long syllable because it has a diphthong and so follows its consonant: **we stretch it out**.

wasn't is also very long because it has a long vowel followed by a weak consonant.

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I wen/ is a little shorter because it has a short vowel, but not very short because of the slight lengthening effect of the following weak consonant.

/jes/ is the shortest of these syllables because it has a short vowel followed by a strong consonant, but notice that even this kind of syllable is not very short in English.

The stressed syllable may have one or more unstressed syllables before it:

Li] its *kauld aia *gri: ai J! kam *plein

These unstressed syllables before the stress are said very quickly, so they are all very short, as short as you can make them; but the stressed syllable is as long as before, so there is a great difference of length between the unstressed syllables and the stressed one. Say those examples with very quick, very short unstressed syllables, and then stretch out the stressed one. Do the same with these:

LfJ ai m *hia aiwaz *hia aiwazin *hia
 Ji:z *haum Ji:zat *haum b9t Jiiz 9t *haum
 dei *W3ik deikan *w3:k dei W9r 9t *w3:k
 wi:l *si: wi:JI *\$i: anwi:Jj *si:

The stressed syllable may also be followed by one or more unstressed syllables:

Ld *teikit *a:lavit? *n3etjarali

But these unstressed syllables are not said specially quickly; what happens is that the stressed syllable and the following unstressed syllable(s) share the amount of time which a single stressed syllable would have; so

*nain *nainti *naintia0

all take about the same time to say; nain is stretched out, but the nain in nainti is only half as long and the nain in naintiaB is shorter still, and the unstressed syllables are of the same length as the stressed ones; these unstressed syllables after the stress must not be rushed, as the ones before the stress are, but must be given the same amount of time as the stressed syllable. Say those examples, and be sure that the three words all take about the same time to say. Then try these:

L±sJ *gud *bet9 *eksalant

*fain *fainj *fainali

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*drii3k

*wilir)

*witnis

*driQkig

*wili]nis*witnisiz*driQkiQ it*mi:tii] 6am

In the group itwaz*beta there are two unstressed syllables before the stress and one after it. The first two are said quickly, the last one not so quickly, taking the same amount of time as /be-/. Practise that group, with the first two syllables very short and the next two longer. Do the same with the following:

ju: kan *si: 69m

dei in^djaid it

hi: kud av a*vaidid it

it waz an *aeksidant

bat dea wa *plenti av dam

ai waz in *Undan

Ji: ik*sp^ktid it

it waz a *miraklmai a*pDlad3izp:r im*pDsab|

The group *wai*not? has two stresses and the two syllables are given the same length. In *wai *not *gm? the three stressed syllables are also equal in length. But in *wai*not*teik it? the first two syllables *wai *nDt are equal in length but the following two syllables teik it are said in the same time as *wai, so

they are both only half the length of *wai and *not. This is exactly what happens with *nain and naintias we saw on p. 96. could show this as foUows.

rwei *rmt *gau
*wai *nDt *teik it

Similarly in *Saets *kwait *pleznt the two syllables of *pleznt have the same amount of time as the single syllable *3aets or *kwait and are therefore only half as long.

*3aets *kwait *plezpt[l

In *d3Dnz*eldist *saii the stressed syllables *d3t>nz and *SAn which are not followed by an unstressed syllable are of the same length, and the two syllables of *eldist share this same length of time between them.

In *bau0 sv 3am *keim *baek the three syllables *bau0 av 3am are said in the same amount of time as *keim or *baek.

|*bau0 av dam *keim *baek
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In *bau0 av flam *left *3:li the three syllables of *bau0 av 3am and the two syllables of *3:li are said in the same amount of time as the single syllable *left, so *left is the longest syllable, the two syllables of *3:li are shorter and the three of *bau0 av 3am are shorter still.

UfJ *bau0 av 3am *left *3:li

A stressed syllable together with any unstressed syllables which may follow it form a stress group. So *bau0 av 3am is one stress group, *left is another and *3:li is another. The fundamental rule of English rhythm is this: each stress group within a word group is given the same amount of time.

If we leave out any spaces between syllables belonging to the same stress group it will remind us that they belong to a single stress group and must be said in the same time as other stress group? in the same word group:

I*bau0av3am *left *3:li

Do this for the following examples:

*letim *teikit*teikp: *hastDf*dauntteik *tu:mAtJ *taim*izji: *gauiQDn
*mAndi?

*WDzntit *wAndafli *kaindavim?

*send3am *leita*nAnavas *laiktit *3ea*meiai *borauit *nau?

*haevju: *h3idhau *d3Dniz?

*breikitinta *se'/ral *pi:siz

Now practise those examples; the best way is to beat the rhythm with your hand, one beat for each stressed syllable and with exactly the same time between

each pair of beats. I find it useful to bang rhythmically on the table with my pen, and at each bang comes a stressed syllable; you try it too. And don't forget that each stress group gets the same time as the others in that word group, and that each syllable in the stress group gets the same time as the others in that stress group.

In the group aim *gauig *haum there are two stress groups *gauig and *haum. The syllable aim does not belong to any stress group since it comes before the stress, and it is said very quickly, as we



saw earlier, quicker than the unstressed syllable in the stress group *gauig. We can show this as follows:

aim *gauig *haum
KJ ~

In the group aim *haom t3 *dei the unstressed syllable /ta-/ in ta *dei behaves exactly like aim, it is said very quickly, and the stressed syllable *haum is still just as long as the two syllables of gauig, not reduced in length as you might expect.

aim *gauig *haum ta *dei

So we say that /ta-/ does not belong to the same stress group as haum but that it is outside any stress group, like aim. Exactly the same is true for fa in aim *gauig *haum fa *krismas

aim *gauig] *haum fa *krismas

We say that these very quick, very short syllables come before the stress, and we might write these examples like this:

1 aim *gauig] *haum ta *deiaim *gauig] *haum fa *krismas

In this sort of arrangement any unstressed syllable before the stressed syllable is said very quickly and does not affect the length of syllables before it. We say them as quickly as we can so that they interfere as little as possible with the regular return of the stressed syllables. Any unstressed syllable after the stress is of course part of the stress group and shares the available time with the other syllables of the stress group.

A unit of this kind, with a stressed syllable as its centre and any unstressed syllables which may come before it and after it, is called a rhythm unit. So aim *gauig] is a rhythm unit, and so is *haum and so is

f9 *krism9s. . . ,

How do you decide what words or syllables go together in a rhythm unit? Here are the rules:

1 Any unstressed syllables at the beginning of a word group must go together with the following stress group.

S aiwazin*lAndan mai9*pDl3d3iz|

2 If the unstressed syllable(s) is part of the same word as the stressed syllable they belong to the same rhythm group:

[“3 *t{i:pa *feaz *tj:i:p a*fe9z (cheaper fares, cheap affairs)

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In *baeθəv ðəm *leɪk the three syllables of *baeθəv ðəm and the two syllables of *leɪk are said in the same amount of time as the single syllable *leɪk, so *leɪk is the longest syllable, the two syllables of *ðəm are shorter and the three of *baeθəv ðəm are shorter still.

[a] *baeθəv ðəm *leɪk *aɪd|

A stressed syllable together with any unstressed syllables which may follow it form a stress group. So *baeθəv ðəm in one stress group, *leɪk is another and *aɪd is another. The fundamental rule of English rhythm is this: each stress group within a word group is given the same amount of time.

If we leave out any spaces between syllables belonging to the same stress group it will remain in that they belong to a single stress group and must be said in the same time as other stress groups in the same word group:

[ˈbaeθəvðəm*leɪk*aɪd|

Do this for the following examples:

[a] *leɪk *aɪd|
 *teɪp: *hæp|
 *deɪntɪk *teɪntɪf *saɪn|
 *ɪf: *gæɪŋə *maɪnɪʃ|
 *vɪzɪt *mæɪnɪʃ *hændlɪŋ|
 *kɑ:ðəm *ɑ:to|
 *hænzvɪ *læktɪ *ðeə|
 *rɪmɪ *ləʊvɪz *naʊ|
 *həʊz: *hɪdʒɪz *dʒɒnɪʃ|
 *breɪkɪŋz *seərəl *pɪnz|

Now practise these examples: the best way is to beat the rhythm with your hand, one beat for each stressed syllable and with exactly the same time between each pair of beats. I find it useful to hang rhythmically on the table with my pen, and at each bang comes a stressed syllable; you try it too. And don't forget that each stress group gets the same time as the others in that word group, and that each syllable in the stress group gets the same time as the others in that stress group.

In the group am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn there are two stress groups: *gæɪŋ and *kəʊn. The syllable am does not belong to any stress group since it comes before the stress, and it is said very quickly, as we

Rhythm units

saw earlier, quicker than the unstressed syllable is the stress group *gæɪŋ. We can show this as follows:

[a] am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn
 |

In the group am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn tə *deɪ the stressed syllable (tə-) is tɒ *deɪ: he says it as quickly as am, it is said very quickly, and the stressed syllable *kəʊn is still just as long as the two syllables of *gæɪŋ, but slower in length as you might expect:

[a] am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn tə *deɪ
 |

So we say that (tə-) does not belong to the stress group as kəʊn but that it is outside any stress group, like am. Exactly the same is true for tɒ in am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn tɒ *kri:stɪz

[a] am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn tɒ *kri:stɪz
 |

We say that these very quick, very short syllables come before the stress, and we might write these examples like this:

am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn tɒ *deɪ
 am *gæɪŋ *kəʊn tɒ *kri:stɪz

In this sort of arrangement any unstressed syllable before the stressed syllable is said very quickly and does not affect the length of syllables before it. We say them as quickly as we can so that they interfere as little as possible with the regular return of the stressed syllables. Any unstressed syllable after the stress is of course part of the stress group and shares the available time with the other syllables of the stress group.

A unit of this kind, with a stressed syllable as its centre and any unstressed syllables which may come before it and after it, is called a rhythm unit. So am *gæɪŋ is a rhythm unit, and so is *kəʊn and so is tɒ *kri:stɪz.

How do you decide what words or syllables go together in a rhythm unit? Here are the rules:

- 1 Any unstressed syllables at the beginning of a word group must go together with the following stress group:

[a] aiwazin *lAndan ri:z: *pɒlədʒi|

- 2 If the unstressed syllable(s) is part of the same word as the stressed syllable they belong to the same rhythm group:

[a] *tʃi:pə *feəz *tʃi:p *feəz (cheaper fares, cheap affairs)



3 If the unstressed syllable(s) is closely connected grammatically to the stressed word, although not a part of that word, they belong to the same rhythm unit:

*givit ta*djDn *teik3am fara*wɑ:k
 *hau didju: *maenid3 tabi *ʒear in *taim?

4 Whenever you are in doubt as to which rhythm unit unstressed syllables belong to, put them after a stress rather than before it. So in He was older than me, if you are doubtful about dan, put it with auld and not with mi::

LhJ hi:waz *auldan *mi: .

In many languages the rhythm unit is the syllable: each syllable has the same

length as every other syllable and there are not the constant changes of syllable length which occur in English word groups. Some such languages are French, Spanish, Hindi, Yoruba. Speakers of these languages and others in which all the syllables have the same length will find English rhythm rather difficult, and they will need to work hard at it. If every syllable is made the same length in English it gives the effect of a machine gun firing and makes the utterances very hard to understand. Some good work on English rhythm will help greatly in improving the sound of your speech.

Practise the following examples, beating the rhythm of the stressed syllables as you go and varying the lengths of the syllables so as to keep the stress groups equal in length:

IZJ

*teikit *haum *teikit ta*d3Dn *teikit ta*d3Dnsan
 *lait da*faia *laitig da*faia hi:waz*iaitig da*faia
 hi:waz*maust a*mju:zig hi:waz*veri a*mju:zig
 *d3on waz*leit *d3eni waz*leit *d3enifa waz*leit
 hi:z*d3Ast *ten hi:z*d3Ast *sevan hi:z*d3Ast *sevanti
 itsa*ha:d *d3Db itsa*triki *d3Db itsa*difaklt *d3Db
 itwaza*riali *gud *mi:l itwaza*riali *pleznt *mi:l itwaza*riali *ek\$alant *mi:
 hi:*pleiz *veri *wel hi:z*pleng *veri *wel hi:z*plengit *veri *welju:*didit
 *ra:3a *wel ju:*didit *ra:5a *beta ju:*didit *ra:da *klavali

6.6 Fluency

One other thing which you must pay attention to in saying word groups is that you say them fluently, smoothly, with no gaps or hesita-

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Rhythm units

tions in the middle. When you know what words you have to say you should be capable of saying them without stumbling over the sounds and sequences of sounds. In English, as we have seen, one word is not separated from another by pausing or hesitating; the end of one word flows straight on to the beginning of the next. To improve your fluency try the method of lengthening word groups. Here is an example.

I went home on the Sunday morning train.

First you say the short group I went home smoothly; if you stumble, say it again, until you are sure that you can do it. Then add the next three words and say I went home on the Sunday, also without stumbling. Now add morning and say the whole thing from the beginning; and finally add train. Don't be satisfied until you can say it without hesitation and with your best English sounds and rhythm. Other

examples for practice are on p. 106.

One difficulty which often affects foreign learners is connected with a vowel at the beginning of words, especially if it begins a stressed syllable. An example is: He's always asking awkward questions where *d:lwiz, *a:skii] and *a:kwad all begin with a stressed vowel. English speakers glide smoothly from the final sound of the word before to the initial vowel of the following word with no break, no hesitation.

Many speakers of other languages separate the two words by a glottal stop (see p. 14) and this gives a very jerky effect in English. You must try to go smoothly and continuously from one word to the other, with no glottal stop, no break.

hi:z *d:lwiz *a:skii] *d:kwad *kwe\$stjanz

When the final sound of the word before is a consonant it will help if you imagine that it belongs to the following word, and we might transcribe our example: hi: *zd:lwiz *za:skii] *rp:kwad *kwestjanz|. This will stop you making a gap before the vowel.

If the final sound of the word before is a vowel there are various ways of avoiding the gap. In di: *a\$ it may help to write a little /j/ before the /a/ : Si: **a\$. The glide from /i:/ to /a/ is very like a /j/ but a very gentle one. The same trick can be used after /i/ and the diphthongs /e 1, ai, at/ which end in /i/. Sei *'a:, mar *ia:nt, 39 bDi *'et it (they are, my aunt, the boy ate it). However, we do distinguish between my ears and my years, etc., mai *haz and mai *jiaz, where jnz has a longer and stronger /j/ than the short and gentle glide before mz.

Similarly, after /u:/ and the diphthongs /9u, au/ which end in /u/, we can use a little /w/-sound as the link, for example two others, *tu:

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3 If the unstressed syllable(s) is closely connected grammatically to the stressed word, (though not a part of that word), they belong to the same rhythm unit:

*gvi:t tɔ'dʒɒn *teɪkðəm fɔ:ə'wɜ:k
*hau di:ju:'mænd; tɒb;ðeə n'raun?

4 Whenever you are in doubt as to which rhythm unit unstressed syllables belong to, put them after a stress rather than before it. So in the two older names, if you are doubtful about the n, put it with *au* and not with *au*:

hi'wɔ:ə'vɒldəðəm *rɔ:l

In many languages the rhythm unit is the syllable: each syllable has the same length as every other syllable and there are not the constant changes of syllable length which occur in English word groups. Some such languages are French, Spanish, Hindi, Yoruba. Speakers of these languages and others in which all the syllables have the same length will find English rhythm rather difficult, and they will need to work hard at it. If every syllable is made the same length in English it gives the effect of a machine gun firing and makes the utterances very hard to understand. Some good work on English rhythm will help greatly in improving the sound of your speech.

Practice the following examples, noting the rhythm of the stressed syllables as you go and varying the lengths of the syllables so as to keep the stress groups equal in length:

*teɪkət 'hi:əm	*teɪkət tɔ'dʒɒn	*teɪkət tɔ'dʒɒn
*læz ðə'fæz	*lɪtɪŋ ðə'fæz	hi'wɔ:ə'vɒl tɪtɪŋ ðə'fæz
hi'wɔ:ə'maʊnt ə'nju:zɪŋ	hi'wɔ:ə'verɪ ə'mju:zɪŋ	
*dʒɒn wɔ:z'teɪt	*dʒɒn wɔ:z'teɪt	*dʒɒn wɔ:z'teɪt
hi:ə'dʒɒt *ves	hi:ə'dʒɒt *ves	hi:ə'dʒɒt *ves
ɪtsə'hæd 'dɪtʃ	ɪtsə'tɪk 'dɪtʃ	ɪtsə'dɪskɪt 'dɪtʃ
stɪwɔ:ə'rɪz *dʒɒd *mɪd	stɪwɔ:ə'rɪz *plænt *mɪd	
stɪwɔ:ə'rɪz *ekstɪnt *mɪ		
hi:ə'plæz *vɛrɪ *vɛl	hi:ə'plæz *vɛrɪ *vɛl	hi:ə'plænt *vɛrɪ *vɛl
ju:'dɪdɪt *rɑ:ðə *wɛl	ju:'dɪdɪt *rɑ:ðə *bɛtə	ju:'dɪdɪt *rɑ:ðə *klɪvɒl

6.6 Fluency

One other thing which you must pay attention to in saying word groups is that you say them fluently, smoothly, with no gaps or hesitations in the middle.

When you know what words you have to say you should be capable of saying them without stumbling over the sounds and sequences of sounds. In English, as we have seen, one word is not expanded from another by *padding* or *hesitating*: the end of one word flows straight on to the beginning of the next. To improve your fluency try the method of lengthening word groups. Here is an example:

I went home on the Sunday morning train.

First you say the short group I went home smoothly; if you stumble, say it again, until you are sure that you can do it. Then add the next three words and say I went home on the Sunday, also without stumbling. Now add morning and say the whole thing from the beginning: and finally add train. Don't be satisfied until you can say it without hesitation and with your best English sounds and rhythm. Other examples for practice are on p. 106.

One difficulty which often affects foreign learners is connected with a vowel at the beginning of words, especially if it begins a stressed syllable. An example is: He's always asking a question where *ɔ:lweɪz, *æskɪŋ and *kwɛstjən all begin with a stressed vowel. English speakers glide smoothly from the final sound of the word before to the initial vowel of the following word with no break, no hesitation. Many speakers of other languages separate the two words by a glottal stop (see p. 4) and this gives a very jerky effect in English. You must try to go smoothly and continuously from one word to the other, with no glottal stop, no breaks.

hi:ə'plæz *ɔ:lweɪz *æskɪŋ *kwɛstjən

When the final sound of the word before its consonant it will help if you imagine that it belongs to the following word, and sometimes cross over the air example: hi:ə'plæz *ɔ:lweɪz *æskɪŋ *kwɛstjən.

This will stop you making a gap before a vowel that has various ways of avoiding the gap. In the *ɔ:lweɪz it may help to write a little /j/ before the /ɔ:/: hi:ə'plæz *ɔ:lweɪz. The glide from /ɔ:/ to /ɔ:/ is very like a /j/ but a very gentle one. This same trick can be used after /t/ and the diphthongs /eɪ, aɪ, i:/ which end in /j/. Don't say: hi:ə'plæz *ɔ:lweɪz *ɔ:lweɪz (they are, say now, the boy and it). Hi:ə'plæz, we do distinguish between my son and my point, etc., mai *tɪt and maɪ *tɪt, where tɪt has a longer and stronger /t/ than the short and gentle glide before tɪt.

Similarly, after /t/ and the diphthongs /eɪ, aɪ/ which end in /t/, we can use a little /w/ sound in the link, for example: hi:ə'plæz *kwɛstjən.

*wAdaz, go in *gau *win, how odd *hau *wod. Again we distinguish between two-eyed and too wide: *tu: *waid, *tu: *waid.

The vowels /ɜ:/ and /ɑ:/ can always be linked to a following vowel by /r/: her own ha:r *aun, for ever far *eva, and this is also true for /ia, ea, ua/: clear at *kliar *ea, share out *Jear *aut, poor Eve! *puar *i:v.

Again it may help to attach the /r/ to the following word: fi:ɜ: *raun, *klia *rea, etc. When /ɑ:/ or /a:/ occur at the end of a word and a vowel immediately follows we also use /r/ as a link if the spelling has the letter in it, but not otherwise, so /r/ occurs in more and more *ma: ran *ma: but not in saw off *so: *vɒf, and it also occurs in far away *fa: ra *wei. When we go from /ɑ:/ or /a:/ to a following vowel without a linking /r/ we glide smoothly from one to the other with no interruption of the voice by a glottal stop. Other examples for practice are on page 107.

6.7 Changing word shapes

We have already seen that some words have weak and strong forms depending on their place in the group and on stress. The shape of a word may also be altered by nearby sounds; normally we pronounce one as WAn, but one more may be pronounced WAm m:., where the shape of ewe has changed

because of the following /m/ in more. Also next is usually pronounced nekst, but in next month may be neks mAn0, where the final /t/ has disappeared.

Alterations

Forms like WAm m:: where one phoneme replaces another mainly affect the alveolar sounds /t, d, n, s, z/ when they are final in the word: Before /p, d, m/

/p/ replaces /t/: right place raip pleiswhite bird waip b3:dnot me nDp mi:

/b/ replaces /d/: hard path ha:b pa:0good boy gub boigood morning gub moinig/m/ replaces /n/: gone past gDm pa :stgone back gDm baekten men tem men

Before /k, g/

/k/ replaces /l/: white coat waik kautthat girl daekg3il

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Changing word shapes



/g/ replaces /d/: bad cold baeg kauldred gate reg geit

/rj/ replaces /n/: one cup waq kApmain gate men] geit

Similarly, the sequences /nt/ and /nd/ may be replaced by /mp/ or /Qk/ and /mb/ or /gg/ in plant pot plaimp pDt, stand back staemb baek, plantcarrots plaigk kaerats, stand guard staegg ga:d. Even the sequences /dnt/ and /tnd/ may be completely altered in a similar way in couldnt comekuggk kAm, couldnt be kubmp bi:.

Before /J, j/

HI replaces /s/: niceshoes naijuizthis year 61J jia

III replaces /z/: those shops daujjbps

where's yours weajjaiz

None of these alterations is necessary, so although you will hear English people use them, especially when they speak quickly, you need not imitate them.

In another kind of alteration the strong consonant of a pair replaces the weak consonant in compound words like fivepence faifpans and newspaper njuispeipa and in the closely connected I have to, he has to: ai haef tu:, hi: haes tu:. You should use these pronunciations, but do not make it a general rule to replace the weak consonant by the strong in other cases; you must distinguish between the price ticket and the prize ticket: 5a prais tikit, da praiz tikit. Notice too that the English do not replace the strong consonant by the weak in phrases like black box, great day, which must be pronounced blaek boks, greit dei and not blaeg bDks, greid dei

Some of the alterations mentioned here have taken place in the past inside English words, leaving them with a shape which is now normal. Examples are: handkerchief hxi)kztl\ :f, special spejj, soldier sauldja; you must use these forms, but there are others which you may hear which are not essential though you can use them if you wish. Examples are: admirable aebmarabj, Watkins WDkkinz, broadcast bra:gka:st, utmost Apmaust, inmate immeit.

Disappearances

The omission of sounds, as in neks dei, most often affect /t/ when it is final in a word after /s/ or /f/ (as in last or left) and the following word begins with a stop, nasal or friction sound.

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/st/ -f- stop:

last time laistaim fast bus fa:s bAS+ nasal:

best man bes maen first night f3is nait+ friction:

West side wessaid best friend besfrend

/ft/ + stop:

liftboy lifboi stuffed chicken stAftJikin

+ nasal:

soft mattress SDf maetras left knee lefni:

+ friction:

left shoe efju: soft snow SDf snau

The /t/ in /st, ft/ may also disappear when other consonants follow, but this is less common. Examples are: last lap la:s laep, next week neks wi:k, best road bes

raud, left leg lef leg, soft rain Sdf rein, soft water Sdf wa:ta.

The /d/in/nd/or/md/ often disappears if the following word begins with a nasal or weak stop consonant:

S hi + nasal: blind man blain maen

kind nurse kain n3:s+ weak stop : tinned beans tin biinzstand guard staen
ga:d/md/ + nasal: skimmed milk skim milkhe seemed nice hi: siim nais+ weak
stop: it seemed good it si:m gud

he climbed back hi: klaim baek



The /d/in/nd,md/ may also disappear when other consonants follow, but this is less common. Examples: blind chance blain tja:ns, send sevenen Sevan, hand-woven haen wauvan, he blamed them hi: bleim 5am, sheseemed well l i: si:m wel, a framed picture a freim pikfta.

When ft l or /d/ occur between two other stop consonants they are never heard and you should leave them out, for example: locked car lokka:, strict parents strik pearants, he stopped behind hi: stop bihind, dragged back draeg baek, rubbed down rAb daun. It is not necessary for you to use any of the other reduced forms mentioned above, but if you find it easier to do so you may use the more common ones.

Similar disappearances have taken place in the past inside English words, leaving them with a shape which is now normal. Examples are: grandmother graenmAda, handsome haensam, castle ka:sl, postman paus-man, draughtsman dra:fsman. In all these cases you should use this

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Changing word shapes



normal form. There are other cases where two forms may be heard: often Dfn, oftan; kindness kainnis, kaindnis; askedaisty a:skt; clothesklauz, klau5z; and you can use whichever you find easiest.

Vowels have often disappeared from English words in the past, leaving a form which is the normal one, for example 'family faemli, gardenga:dn,

Edinburgh ednbra, awfuloif\, evil\iv\, interest intrast, historyhistri. You should naturally use these normal forms. In other cases there are two possibilities, for example: generous d3enras, d3enaras; pattern paetan, paetn; deliberate dilibrat, dilibrat \ probably pmbbli, probabli; properly pmpli, pmpali. In these and similar cases it is best for you to use the longer form.

All these examples of changes and disappearances of sounds should encourage you to listen most carefully to the real shapes of English words, which are so often different from the shapes which the ordinary spelling might suggest. You can always find the normal shape of a word by looking for it in a pronouncing dictionary, for instance Daniel Jones's English Pronouncing Dictionary, which is most useful for any foreign user of English, but the most important thing, as always, is to use your ears and really listen to English as it is.

6.8 Exercises

(Answers, where appropriate, on p. 135)

1 Divide the following passage into word groups (p. 90).

I have needed some new bookshelves for a long time. So during my holiday I decided to tackle the job myself. Not that I am very clever with my hands but it did not seem too difficult and as I had already said that we could not afford to go away I thought it would be prudent not to spend money having it done professionally. I bought the wood at the local handicraft shop and I had plenty of screws, but I found that my old saw[^]which had been left behind by the previous owner of the house] was not good enough and I decided to buy a new one. That was my first mistake, my second was to go to the biggest ironmonger in London and ask for a saw. You would think it was simple, wouldn't you, to buy a saw. But it is not. I said to the man behind the counter, 'I want a saw.' He was a nice man and did his best for me. 'Yes, sir, what kind of saw? Oh, a saw for cutting wood.' 'Yes sir, but we have fifteen different kinds for different jobs. What did you want it for?' I explained about my bookshelves) [^]nd felt like an ignorant fool in a world of experts, which was true] He saw that I was a novice and was very kind. He

- [] /w/ + stop:
 last time læs taɪm fast bus fɑːst bʌs
 + nasal:
 best man best mæn fortnight fɔːtnaɪt
 + fricative:
 Westside wɛstsaɪd best friend best frɛnd
- [] /f/ + stop:
 left boy ɪf bɔɪ stuffed chicken stʌfəd ʧɪkən
 + nasal:
 soft mattress sɒf mətɪs left knee ɪf kiː
 + fricative:
 left shoe ɪfʃuː soft snow sɒf snəʊ
- [] The /t/ in /st, kt/ may also disappear when other consonants follow, but this is less common. Examples are: last leg læs leg, next week nɛkst wɪk, best man best mæn, left leg ɪf leg, soft mattress sɒf mətɪs, soft snow sɒf snəʊ.
 The /t/ in /nd/ or /nt/ often disappears if the following word begins with a nasal or weak stop consonant.
- [] /nd/ + nasal: blind man blaɪn mæn
 kind nurse kaɪn nɜːs
 + weak stop: timed beam taɪm biːm
 stand guard stænd gɑːd
 /nt/ + nasal: skimmed milk skɪm d mɪlk
 he seemed nice hiː siːmd nɪs
 + weak stop: he climbed back hiː klaɪmd bæk
- [] The /d/ in /nd, nt/ may also disappear when other consonants follow, but this is less common. Examples: blind man blaɪn mæn, kind nurse kaɪn nɜːs, next week nɛkst wɪk, best man best mæn, left leg ɪf leg, soft mattress sɒf mətɪs, soft snow sɒf snəʊ.
 When /t/ or /d/ occur between two other stop consonants they are never heard and you should leave them out, for example: locked car lɒkd ɑː kɑː, next parents nɛkst pərənts, he stopped ɪt hiː stɒp tɪ bɒnd, stopped here stɒp hɪə, asked him ɑːskt ðɪm. It is not necessary for you to use any of the rules indicated above, but if you find it easier to do so you may use the more common ones.
- [] Similar disappearances have taken place in the past inside English words, leaving them with a shape which is now normal. Examples are: grandmother grændmɔː, handsome hændsəm, castle kastle, postman pɒstmæn, daughter daʊtə. In all these cases you should use the

- [] normal form. There are other cases where two forms may be heard: often ɒfən, often ɒfn; banana bənəna, bənənə; about ɔːbaʊt, əbaʊt; defence dɪfens, dɪfəns; about ɔːbaʊt, əbaʊt; and you can use whichever you find easiest.
- [] Vowels have often disappeared from English words in the past, leaving a form which is the normal one, for example: family famɪli, garden ɡɑːdn, Edinburgh ɛdɪnbərə, sugar ʃʊɡ, level ɪvl, investment ɪnvestmənt, history hɪstri. You should normally use these normal forms. In other cases there are two possibilities, for example: generous dʒənərəs, dʒɪnərəs; participation pɑːtɪpəˈseɪʃən, pɑːtɪpəˈseɪʃən; probable prəˈbæbl̩, prəˈbæbl̩; properly prəˈpɜːli, prəˈpɜːli. In these and similar cases it is best for you to use the longer form.
- All these examples of changes and disappearances of sounds should encourage you to listen most carefully to the real shapes of English words, which are so often different from the shapes which the ordinary spelling might suggest. You can always find the normal shape of a word by looking for it in a pronunciation dictionary, for instance Daniel Jones's *English Pronouncing Dictionary*, which is most useful for any foreign user of English, but the most important thing is always to use your ears and really listen to English as it is.

6.6 Exercises

(Answers, where appropriate, on p. 195)

- 2 Divide the following passage into word groups (p. 90).

I have needed some new bookshelves for a long time. So during my holiday I decided to tackle the job myself. Not that I am very clever with my hands but it did not seem too difficult and as I had already said that we could not afford to go away I thought it would be prudent not to spend money having it done professionally. I bought the wood at the local handicraft shop and that plenty of screws, but I found that my old saw (which had been left behind by the previous owner of the house) was not good enough and I decided to buy a new one. That was my first mistake, my second was to go to the biggest ironmonger in London and ask for a saw. You would think it was simple, wouldn't you, to buy a saw. But it isn't. I said to the man behind the counter, 'I want a saw.' He was a nice man and did his best for me. 'Yes, sir, what kind of saw?' 'Oh, I saw for cutting wood.' 'Yes, sir, but we have fifteen different kinds for different jobs. What did you want it for?' I explained about my bookshelves and felt like an ignorant fool in a world of experts, which was true. He saw that I was a novice and was very kind. He

Words in company

told me what I should need and advised me to have a ladies' size. 'Easier to manage for the beginner, sir.' He was not being nasty just helpful and I was grateful to him. He also sold me a book on wood-work for schoolboys and I've been reading it with great interest. The next time I am on holiday I shall start on the shelves.

2 Each of the following examples contains one or more of the words which often have weak forms (p. 92). Transcribe the examples phonetically, showing the stressed syllables and the weak (or strong!) forms of those words:

- They came to the door. There were two of them.
- What are you surprised at? She is as old as the hills.
- She has an uncle and a cousin I shall be angry.
- Who will meet him at the airport? I will.
- What is her phone number? What does that matter?
- I would like some tea. Well, make some.
- What has John come for? For his saw that you borrowed.
- What can I do? More than I can.
- He was pleased, wasn't he? Of course he was.

When am I going to get it? I am not sure.

I have taken it from the shelf. Yes, I thought you had.

They had already read it. But so had I.

3 Mark the words in the passage in Exercise 1 which should have a weak form.

4 Use the following lengthening word groups for practising fluency(P. 100):

I don't know how long I need to wait for John to come -home.

It was near the end of the week before I arrived back fromScotland.

Who was that awful woman - you talked to all evening at theparty?

I can't understand how you did it so quickly and efficiently, -Mr Southwood.

When did you hear - that story about John and the girl nextdoor?

Come and have dinner with us - on Thursday the twenty-third -of this month.

5 Use the following for practise in smoothness with initial vowels(p. 106):

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Exercises

I was better off on my own.

Don't argue with anyone as old as I am.

How awful it is to be ill when everyone else is all right.

The hungrier I am, the more I eat.

Is there any flaw in my argument, Oscar?

Have you ever asked Ann about Arthur and Amy?

I owe everything I am to my uncle and aunt.
Come over to our house for an evening.
I haven't set eyes on Alec for ages and ages.
I ended up owing eighty-eight pounds.
You always ought to earn an honest living.

6 Arrange each word group in the passage in Exercise i into one or more rhythm units showing the stressed syllable and the unstressed syllables attached to it.

7 Which words in the passage might show alterations or disappearances in sounds (pp. 102 and 103) ?

8 Transcribe the whole passage phonetically showing word groups, stressed syllables, rhythm groups and weak forms of words; then compare it with the version on p. 135 and notice any differences. Practise each word group aloud, concentrating on smoothness and

rhythm.

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Every language has melody in it; no language is spoken on the same musical note all the time. The voice goes up and down and the different notes of the voice combine to make tunes. In some languages the tune mainly belongs to the word, being part of its shape, and if the tune of the word is wrong its shape is spoiled. The Chinese languages are like this and so are many others in south-east Asia, Africa and America. In these languages the same sounds said with different tunes may make quite different words: in Mandarin Chinese ma: said with a level tune means mother but ma: with a rising tune means horse, an important difference! In many other languages, of which English is one, the tune belongs not to the word but to the word group. If you say the English word No with different tunes it is still the same word, but nevertheless tune plays an important part in English. We can say a word group definitely or we can say it hesitantly, we can say it angrily or kindly, we can say it with interest or without interest, and these differences are largely made by the tunes we use: the words do not change their meaning but the tune we use adds something to the words, and what it adds is the speaker's feelings at that moment; this way of using tunes is called intonation.

English intonation is English: it is not the same as the intonation of any other language. Some people imagine that intonation is the same for all languages, but this is not true. You must learn the shapes of the English tunes, and these may be quite different from the normal tunes of your own language; and you must learn the meanings of the English tunes too, because they are important. For example, thank you may be said in two ways: in the first the voice starts high and ends low,

and this shows real gratitude; in the second the voice starts low and ends high, and this shows a rather casual acknowledgement of something not very important. A bus conductor will say thank you in this second way when he collects your money and this is quite reasonable since he does not feel great gratitude. But if an English friend invites you to spend a week-end at his home and you reply with the second thank you instead of the first your friend will be offended because you don't sound really

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Tune shapes

grateful. You may have made an honest mistake but it is difficult for him to realize that; he will think that you are being impolite.

7,1 Tune shapes

The shape of a tune is decided partly by the number of important words in the group and partly by the exact attitude you wish to express. What do we mean by 'important words'? These are the words which carry most of the meaning in a word group: for example, suppose that in answer to the question How was John? you say He was in an appallingly bad temper. The first four words are not specially helpful to the meaning, not important, but the last three words are important; each of them adds quite a lot to the picture you are giving of John. Let's see how it might be said.

” ‘ . ” •
 • • • • • ^ * _

He was in an ap* pallingly *bad *temper.

This diagram shows the approximate height of the voice on each syllable: the first five syllables have low pitch; then there is a jump to the stressed syllable of appallingly and the next two syllables are on the same rather high pitch; then bad is a little lower and temper glides down-wards from the stressed to the unstressed syllable.

Notice that there are three changes of pitch connected with stressed syllables. This shows that these words are important. An important word always has a stressed syllable and usually has a change of pitch

connected to it. , . T , .

Now suppose that the question is Was John in a good temper. In this case temper occurs in the question so that in the answer it is not specially important, it doesn't add anything to the picture, it gives little information; and the tune shows this:





He was in an ap**p*allingly **b*ad **t*emper ,

Now there are only two changes of pitch, connected with the stressed syllables of *appallingly* and *bad*. So these two words are still marked as important, but *temper* is not. Although it still has the first syllable stressed, the fact that there is no change of pitch shows that the speaker

is not treating it as important. , , , ,

Lastly, suppose that the question is Was John in **b*ad temper? *Bad* and

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7 Intonation

Every language has melody; in it, no language is spoken or the same musical note all the time. The voice goes up and down and the different notes of the voice combine to make tunes. In some languages the tune mainly belongs to the word, being part of its shape, and if the tune of the word is wrong in shape it is spoiled. The Chinese languages are like this and so are many others in south-east Asia, Africa and America. In these languages the same words said with different tunes may make quite different words: in Mandarin Chinese *ma* said with a level tone means mother but with a rising tone means horse, an important difference! In many other languages, of which English is one, the tune belongs to the word but to the word group. If you say the English word *No* with different tones it is still the same word, but now the tone plays an important part in English. We can say a word group definitely or we can say it hesitantly, we can say it angrily or kindly, we can say it with interest or serious interest, and these differences are largely made by the tones we use: the words do not change their meaning but the tone we use adds something to the words, and what it adds is the speaker's feelings at that moment, the way of using since is called intonation.

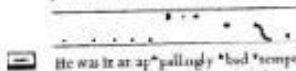
English intonation is English; it is not the same as the intonation of any other language, some people imagine that intonation is the same for all languages, but this is not true. You must learn the shapes of the English tones, and these may be quite different from the normal tones of your own language; and you must learn the meanings of the English tones too, because they are important. For example, *about* you may be said in two ways: in the first the voice starts high and ends low, and this shows real gratitude; in the second the voice starts low and ends high, and this shows a rather casual acknowledgement of something not very important. A bus conductor will say thank you in this second way when he collects your money and this is quite reasonable since he does not feel great gratitude. But if an English friend invites you to spend a weekend at his home and you reply with the second tone you instead of the first your friend will be offended because you don't sound really

Tone shapes

grateful. You may have made an honest mistake but it is difficult for him to realize that; he will think that you are being impolite.

7.1 Tone shapes

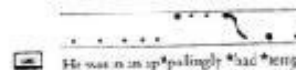
The shape of a tone is decided partly by the number of important words in the group and partly by the exact words you wish to express. What do we mean by 'important words'? These are the words which carry most of the meaning in a word group: for example, suppose that in answer to the question How was John? you say *He was in an appallingly bad temper*. The first four words are not especially helpful to the meaning, not important, but the last three words are important, each of them adds quite a lot to the picture you are giving of John. Let's see how it might be said.



This diagram shows the approximate height of the voice on each syllable: the first five syllables have low pitch; then there is a jump to the stressed syllable of *appallingly*, and the next two syllables are on the same rather high pitch; then there is a little lower and we begin to descend from the stressed to the unstressed syllable.

Notice that there are three changes of pitch connected with stressed syllables. This shows that these words are important. An important word always has a stressed syllable and usually has a change of pitch connected to it.

Now suppose that the question is *Was John a good temper?* In this case *temper* occurs in the question so that in the answer it is not specially important, it doesn't add anything to the picture, it gives little information; and the tone shows this:



Now there are only two changes of pitch, connected with the stressed syllables of *appallingly* and *bad*. So these two words are still marked as important, but *temper* is not. Although it still has the first syllable stressed the fact that there is no change of pitch shows that the speaker is not treating it as important.

Lastly, suppose that the question is *Was John a bad temper?* *Bad* and

temper are not important in the answer because both are already in the questioner's mind so the speaker says:

• \
• • • X • • •

He was in an ap**p*allingly **b*ad ^*t*emper.

Both *bad* and *temper* are still stressed, but they are shown to be unimportant because they have no change of pitch. Important words are not the same as stressed words. Stressed words may not be important, though important words must be stressed. It is not only the normally stressed words, like *appallingly* and

bad and temper in our example, which may be felt to be important by the speaker; any word may be important if the situation makes it important. For example, if the first speaker refuses to believe in John's bad temper and says He can't have been in an appallingly bad temper, then our example would be:

•••••*•

He *was in an ap*pallingly *bad ^temper.

Here the word was which is not usually stressed at all has both the stress and change of pitch which mark it as important, indeed as the only really important word in the group; and remember that when it is stressed it has its strong form.

In answer to the question What is John like? we might reply: He seems very nice and the usual way of saying this is:

•\

He *seems *very *nice.

Here seems is not marked as important; even though it is stressed it is on a low pitch like the unimportant initial words in our first example; the meaning of the group is approximately the same as He's very nice. But if it is:

. * • • \

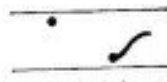
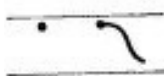
He *seems *very *nice.

there is much more weight on seems because of the jump in pitch, and we understand that the speaker considers it important: he does so in order to emphasize that he is talking about the seeming, the appearance, and is not saying that John really is very nice. So the important words in a group affect the shape of a tune.

Now look at the following:

no

Tune shapes



*What's *that? *What's*that?

In both these examples the words what and that are marked as important; what is stressed and on a high pitch and that has a fall in pitch in the first case and a rise in the second. So it is not only the number of important words which affects the tune-shape. The difference here is a difference of attitude in the speaker; the first example is a rather serious, business-like question, the second shows rather more interest and friendliness. So the attitude of the speaker, his feelings as he says the group, affects the tune-shape, and affects it very much, as we

shall see

Before we think about the speaker's attitudes let's see what tunes you must

learn to use in speaking English: I cannot teach you all the tunes that English speakers use, but I shall describe the ones you must know to make your English sound like English.

7.2 The falling tune-the Glide-Down



In the shortest word-groups, where we use just one important word the falling tune consists of a fall in the voice from a fairly high pitch to a very low one. The fall is on the stressed syllable or from the stressed

syllable to a following one:

X T XI

★No *Two *Tcnpence

• 5

. * * * * _

^Excellent ^Definitely

NOTICE

1 On a single syllable the voice falls within the syllable.

2 On more than one syllable the voice either falls within the stressed syllable or it jumps down from that syllable to the next.

3 Unstressed syllables at the end are all very low.

Start with * Tenpence and start by singing it it doesn't matter if you're singing is not very good, it will be good enough for this. Sing the first syllable on a fairly high note, but not very high. I cannot tell you exactly what note to sing because I don't know whether you have a

III

naturally high voice or a naturally low one, but sing a note rather above the middle of your voice. Then sing the second syllable on the lowest possible note growl it! Do this several times and hear the fall in pitch, then gradually go more quickly and stop singing. Say it, but with the same tune as before. Do the same with * Excellent and * Definitely and be sure that the unstressed syllables are as low as possible. Don't let them rise at the end; keep growling!

If there are other words following the fall they may still have stress, as in our previous example:

• • • • •

He was in an appallingly *bad ^temper.

But they are still said on that very low pitch, just like the unstressed syllables. Keep them right down.

Now try *No. Sing it on two notes, the high one, then the low one, as if it had two syllables, and again increase your speed and stop singing, but keep the same tune. Be sure that you finish with the pitch as low as you possibly can, right

down in your boots!

When there is more than one important word in the group, the last one has the fall but the others are treated differently:

• \

*What was *that?

*What was the ^matter with *that?

NOTICE

1 The stressed syllable of the first important word is high and any unstressed syllables following it are on the same pitch.

2 The stressed syllable of the second important word is a little lower and any unstressed syllables following it are on the same pitch.

3 The fall starts at the same pitch as the syllable just before it.

In groups with more than three important words the stressed syllable of each one is lower than the one before; this is why we call the tune the Glide-Down:

• • • • • *

*How can I possibly pay him *two ^hundred pounds?

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The Glide-Down



Start with * What's said on a rather high pitch in your voice; keep the voice level, don't let it rise or fall. Then add 'that with the same fall as before. Then put was between the two, at the same level as What and the beginning of 'that; don't let it be higher or lower than What. If necessary start by singing it. Then try * What was the matter with *that in three parts: * What was the all on the high note, then matter with all a little lower; put them together: * What was the matter with to form a high step followed by a lower step. Then add that falling as before from the same pitch as with. Similarly practise the longest example in parts, each part a little lower than the one before, and the fall at the end from the pitch of the syllable before. Try to keep the unstressed syllables on the same pitch as the stressed ones, and not to let them jump either up or down. This treatment of the important words in downward 'steps' occurs also in other tunes, as we shall see

^If there are any unstressed syllables before the stressed syllable of the first important word, these are all said on a rather low pitch:

ITZX:

I was *glad. I was *very *glad.

— • *

But it was ri*diculous.



Also, any stressed syllable near the beginning which belongs to a word which

is not important is said on this same rather low pitch:



He *seems *very *nice. I taught him *all I *know.

These low syllables at the beginning are not at the lowest possible pitch like the ones at the end, but they must be lower than the high pitch which follows. . . . j

Practise these examples and be sure that the voice jumps upwards from the low syllables at the beginning to the first high-pitched stress.

We have a way of showing the Glide-Down which is simpler and quicker than the dots and lines used up to now. Before the stressed

syllable where the voice falls we put ('). So: 'No 'Two 'Ten'pcnce 'Excellent 'Definitely . Notice that no other mark is needed

ID

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naturally high voice or a naturally low one, but sing a note rather above the middle of your voice. Then sing the second syllable on the lowest possible note - ground it! Do this several times and hear the fall in pitch, then gradually go more quickly and stop singing. Say it, but with the same rise as before. Do the same with *Excellent and *Definitely and be sure that the unstressed syllables are as low as possible. Don't let them rise at the end, keep growing!

If there are other words following the fall they may still have stress as in our previous example:

He was in an ap*pealingly *bad *temper.
But they are still on the very low pitch, just like the unstressed syllables. Keep them right down.

Now try *No. Sing it on two notes, the high one, then the low one, as if it had two syllables, and again increase your speed and stop singing, but keep the same rise. Be sure that you finish with the pitch as low as you possibly can, right down to your boots!

When there is more than one important word in the group, the last one has the fall, but the others are treated differently:

*What's *that? *What was *that?

*What was the *matter with *that?

NOTICE:

1. The stressed syllable of the first important word is high and any unstressed syllables following it are on the same pitch.
2. The stressed syllable of the second important word is a little lower and any unstressed syllables following it are on the same pitch.
3. The fall starts on the same pitch as the syllable just before it.

In groups with more than three important words the stressed syllable of each one is lower than the one before, this is why we call the name the Glide-Down:

'How can I *possibly *pay him *two *hundred *pounds?

The Glide-Down

Speak with *What? said on a rather high pitch; raise your voice; keep the voice level, don't rise or fall. Then add *the with the same fall as before. Then put one between the two, at the same level as *What and the beginning of *that, don't let it be higher or lower than *What. If necessary start by singing it. Then try *What was the *matter with *that in three parts: *What was the all on the high note, then *matter with a little lower, put them together: *What was the *matter with for a high step followed by a lower step. Then add *that, falling in before from the same pitch as with. Similarly practise the longest example in parts, each part a little lower than the one before, and the fall at the end from the pitch of the syllable before. Try to keep the unstressed syllables on the same pitch as the stressed ones, and not to let them jump either up or down. This treatment of the important words in downward steps occurs also in other cases as we shall see later.

If there are any unstressed syllables before the stressed syllable of the first important word, these are all said on a rather low pitch:

I was *glad. I was *very *glad.

But it was *delicious.

Also, any stressed syllable near the beginning which belongs to a word which is not important is said on this same rather low pitch:

He *seems *very *nice. I *taught him *all I *know.

NOTICE:

These low syllables at the beginning are not at the lowest possible pitch like the ones at the end, but they must be lower than the high pitch which follows.

Practise these examples and be sure that the voice jumps upwards from the low syllables at the beginning to the first high-pitched stress.

We have a way of showing the Glide-Down which is simpler and quicker than the dots and lines used up to now. Before the stressed syllable where the voice falls we put ('). So: 'No 'Two 'Ten'pcnce 'Excellent 'Definitely . Notice that no other mark is needed

to show the very low unstressed syllables at the end - any unstressed syllables after a fall are always low\

Before the stressed syllable of each other important word we put ('). So: 'What's That 'What was 'that 'What was the 'matter with That How can I 'possibly 'pay him 'two 'hundred xpounds . Each of these marks shows a step, beginning

with a high one and gradually coming lower until the fall is reached.

Unstressed syllables at the beginning have no mark before them: I was xglad | But it was ridiculous . If there is a low-pitched stress near the beginning (as in He *seems *very *nice) it is marked by (,); so: He ,seems 'very xnice I,taught him 'all I xknow .And the same mark is used for stressed syllables which come after the fall. So: He was in an apxpallingly ,bad , temper .

So with these few marks we can show all the features of the Glide-Down. In the following examples, first write them out in the longer way with dots and lines, to make sure you understand what the simpler system means, then practise them carefully:

LmJ xTakeit xHave them xSplendid xNonsense x Wonderful

xJohn's ,coming xSusan's ,knocking at the ,door xTen xTwoxFive xEight xSix xHalf xThis xWhich 'Fifty xpounds'Seventy xfive Oneandxhalf It was impossible I could havexcried They were in a 'terrible xmess I'll see you on 'Thursdayxnight It's 'just 'after xmidnight There were 'too 'many xpeoplep there 'Why did you 'tell him he was xwrong? It,wasn't 'half as'difficult as I Thought it,would be You can,phone me at 'any 'timeof the 'day or xnight I, waited, almost 'twenty-'five xminutes for the, wretched ,man .

7.3 The first rising tune-the Glide-Up

The Glide-Up is just like the Glide-Down except that it ends with a rise in the voice instead of a fall. Both important and unimportant words before the rise are treated exactly as in the Glide-Down. An example is But is it true that you're changing your job?

But *is it *true that you're ^changing your *job?

The last important word is job and here the voice rises from a low pitch to one just above the middle of the voice. Apart from this the tune is the same as in the Glide-Down: the unstressed syllable at the



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The Glide-Up

beginning is low, and there is a step at the stressed syllable of each important word.

Similarly, Are you married? would be:

l^J

• —

*Are you *married?

Notice that the stressed syllable of the last important word is low and .that the voice jumps up to the unstressed syllable. And notice too that mHave you

posted it to him ? we have:

• • •
•

*Have you ^posted it to him?

where again the stressed syllable of the last important word is low and each following unstressed syllable is a little higher, the last one of being on the same fairly high note as in the previous examples.

Once again there may be stressed words within the rise, but they are not felt to be important:



w

•

*Have you been at *work to*day, *John?

Work is the last important word, and although today and John are stressed they behave just like the unstressed syllables of the last example and are not considered important by the speaker.

Practise with the following:

•

*Forty

• *

*Forty of them

• • • • *

*Forty of them were *there

The first syllable must be low, and the last syllable fairly high, concentrate on these and let any syllables between these points take care of themselves. How you get from the low to the higher note at the end doesn't matter, but be sure that you start low and end fairly high (not very high!).

Now try the rise on one syllable:

y S S

*Two *Five *Eight *Six

H5

But 'is it 'true that you're 'changing your ,job? 'Are you parried?'Have you ,posted it to him? 'Have you 'been at /work to'day,•John? ,Forty 7Forty of them 7Furty uf them were'there /Two7Five /Eight ,Six 'Are there ,two of them? 'Can you be 'hereby ,five? .

Compare these with the fuller marking on the previous pages, then write out the fuller marking for the examples below and finally practise them carefully:

LfJ 'Who's/that? 'Don't be ,long 'GiveittO/ine I'm'just comingIs 'anything the ,matter? Can 'anyone 'tell me the /time? I was'only 'trying to ,help You can 'see it

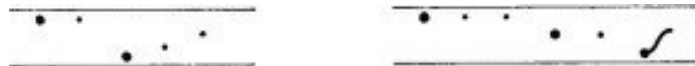
a'gain tomorrow He's'perfectly 'capable of'looking 'after him, self I ,told him I was 'very'pleased to see him I 'shan't be 'any 'later than 'usually 'am 'Did you 'say it was your twentieth 'birthday to'day? 'Could I 'borrow'this ,book for a 'day or 'two? 'Would you 'mind if I 'brought my^other-in-'law to'see you? .

7.4 The second rising tune - the Take-Off

After the Glide-Down and the Glide-Up we have the Take-Off; this also ends with a rise in the voice, like the Glide-Up, but any words and syllables before the rise are low. An example is:

If necessary sing the two notes as if there were two syllables and then gradually speed up and stop singing. Notice that the rise is slower on a long syllable like *Two or *Five, quicker on *Eight where the diphthong is shortened, and quickest on *Six where the vowel is shortest.

Now try adding other important words before the rise; say them as you did in the Glide-Down:



Are there *two of them? *Can you be *here by *five?

And get the voice down low for the beginning of the rise.

In the simpler intonation marking, we use (,) before the stressed syllable of the last important word to show where the rise starts and (•) before any stressed syllable within the rise. The other marks are the same as for the Glide-Down. So the examples used in this section are marked as follows:

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The Take-Off

I was *only *trying to *help.

We call it the Take-Off because, like an aeroplane taking off, it starts by running along at a low level and finally rises into the air.

The rise, as in the Glide-Up, either takes place on one syllable, like help, or it is spread over several syllables:

• • 9 • 9 • • •

Use I was *only *trying to *help him with it.

Before the rise any stressed word is felt to be important, even though there is no change of pitch. All the syllables before the rise are said on the same low pitch as the beginning of the rise; they must not be higher than this, or you will have a Glide-Up instead of a Take-Off.

Practise the following and concentrate on keeping the syllables up to and including the beginning of the rise on the same low pitch:

. ^

LiJ It *was.

I was*trying.

•••*

You *didn't *really *hurt your*self.

In the simpler intonation marking the rise has the same mark as before (.), any stressed syllables after this have (•), and any stressed syllables before it have (,). So our examples are marked:

I was .only .trying to .help I was .only .trying to .help him with it||It /was I was .trying| You .didn't .really .hurt yourself .

Practise the following examples and be sure to keep the syllables before the rise low:

[You liked it | You enjoyed it | You were enjoying it I.didn't hurt you ,No-one's .stopping you!] It was .perfectly,understan-able I .wasn't ex.pecting him at .six o'clock in the .morning |didn't .think he'd .mind me .borrowing it for a .while | If You'.shouldn't have .given him .all that .money, you -silly -boy |.

7.5 The falling-rising tune-the Dive

The last of our tunes that you must learn is the Dive. In its shortest

Intonation

If necessary sing the two notes as if there were two syllables and then gradually speed up and stop singing. Notice that the rise is slower on a long syllable like *Two or *Five, quicker on *Eight where the diphthong is shortened, and quickest on *Six where the vowel is short.

Now try adding other important words before the rise; say them as you did in the Glide-Down:

Are these *two of them? *Can you be *here by *five?

And get the voice down low as the beginning of the rise. In the simpler intonation marking, we use (,) before the stressed syllable of the last important word to show where the rise starts and (•) before any stressed syllable within the rise. The other marks are the same as for the Glide-Down, so the examples used in this section are marked as follows:

But 'is it true that you're 'changing your 'job? 'Are you 'married? 'Have you 'posed it to him? 'Have you 'been at 'work to-day, 'John? 'Forty 'forty of them 'Forty of them were 'there 'Two 'Five 'Eight 'Six 'Are there 'two of them? 'Can you be 'here by 'five? .

Compare these with the fuller marking on the previous page, then write out the fuller marking for the examples below and finally practise them carefully:

'Who's 'that? 'Don't be 'long 'Give it to 'me 'I'm 'just 'coming 'is 'anything 'the 'matter? 'Can 'anyone 'tell me 'the 'time? 'I was 'only 'trying to 'help 'You can 'see it 'again 'to-morrow 'He's 'perfectly 'capable of 'looking 'after 'himself 'I 'told 'him 'I was 'very 'pleased to 'see 'him 'I 'wasn't 'the 'brag 'later 'than 'I 'usually 'am 'Did you 'say 'it was 'your 'twentieth 'birthday 'today? 'Could 'I 'borrow 'the 'book 'for a 'day or 'two? 'Would 'you 'mind 'if 'I 'brought 'my 'mother-in-'law to 'see 'you? .

7.4 The second rising tune – the Take-Off

After the Glide-Down and the Glide-Up we have the Take-Off; this also ends with a rise in the voice, like the Glide-Up, but any words and syllables before the rise are low. An example is:

The Take-Off

I was *only *trying to *help.

We call it the Take-Off because, like an aeroplane taking off, it starts by running along at a low level and finally rises into the air. The rise, as in the Glide-Up, either takes place on one syllable, like help, or it is spread over several syllables:

I was *only *trying to *help him with it.

Before the rise any stressed word is felt to be important, even though there is no change of pitch. All the syllables before the rise are said on the same low pitch as the beginning of the rise; they must not be higher than this, or you will have a Glide-Up instead of a Take-Off. Practise the following and concentrate on keeping the syllables up to and including the beginning of the rise on the same low pitch:

k *was . I was *trying

You *didn't *really *hurt your*self

In the simpler intonation marking the rise has the same mark as before (,), any stressed syllables after this have (•), and any stressed syllables before it have (,). So our examples are marked:

I was .only .trying to .help I was only .trying to .help him with it| It .was I was .trying| You .didn't .really .hurt yourself .

Practise the following examples and be sure to keep the syllables before the rise low:

[You liked it | You enjoyed it | You were enjoying it I .didn't hurt you ,No-one's .stopping you!] It was .perfectly ,understand-able I .wasn't ex.pecting him at .six o'clock in the .morning | I .didn't think he'd ,mind me .borrowing it for a .while | If You'.shouldn't have .given him .all that .money, you -silly -boy |.

7.5 The falling-rising tune – the Dive

The last of our tunes that you must learn is the Dive. In its shortest

form this consists of a fall from rather high to low and then a rise to about the middle of the voice.

V V V

*Five *Why? *Soon

This fall-rise is connected with the stressed syllable of the last important word, like the fall and the rise of the other tunes. But it is only completed on one syllable if that syllable is final in the group. If there is one or several syllables following, the fall and the rise are separated:

\ s * \ . s . S'

uiJ ^Twenty ^Seventy ^Seventy of them

The fall is on the stressed syllable of the last important word and the rise on the last syllable of all. In the following examples:



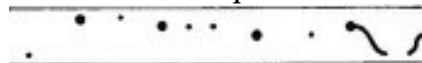
*That was *nice. *That *wasn't *very ^friendly, there are stressed (but not important) words following the fall; in that case the rise at the end is from the last of the stressed syllables.

Words or syllables before the fall are said in the same way as for the Glide Down and Glide-Up. Examples:



.. * V

She was *quite *kind.



I *may be *able to *come on ^Monday.

Notice that the fall of the fall-rise is always from a fairly high note.

If the stressed syllable of the last important word is final in the group, or if it is followed only by unstressed syllables, we put (^) before it in the simpler intonation marking, so:

""Five ""Why? "Soon ""Twenty

""Seventy | ""Seventy of them

But if the fall is followed by one or more stressed syllables we mark the fall with (') and we put (,) before the last stressed syllable of all; any other stressed syllables have (,) before them. So:

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The Dive

was /mce

'That ,wasn't ,very friendly

Other intonation marks are the same as for the Glide-Down and Glide-Up*

| She was 'quite ""kind I 'may be 'able to 'come on ""Monday

Also:

She ,said she was 'quite 'pleased a/bout it Start practising on three syllables:

fall on the first, keep the second low and rise on the third. Do it slowly and sing them if necessary:

'She .won't /help T .don't /know

'That's ,no ,good 'That was ,nice

'John can /Come 'This is /mine

Notice that when the first syllable has a short vowel there may be a jump down to the next syllable rather than a fall. Compare:

i .

'She .won't ,help. 'That's ,no ,good.

When you are sure that you have the fall followed by the rise, speed up gradually to normal speed. Then try examples with two syllables, falling on the first (or jumping down from it) and rising on the second. Remember to start quite high:

'You ,can I /Can't 'John /does 'That's /nice 'Pat /Came

'Tuesday

'Friday

'Sunday

'April

'August

'Eighty

'Sixty

Next try the Dive on one syllable. Do it very slowly at first on three notes: high low high:

'Two |'Nine 'You 'Please

'Four

'Me

'Soon

'Try

Then gradually speed up and stop singing. Now try with short vowels:

Ip Ten "Him |

"Sing v Comc

H-Bad ir Long

"Good l "Bob

|"Ann

The voicing of the final consonant will help you with those the rising part of the Dive is on the final consonant, so use it.

More difficult are the short vowels followed by consonants with no voice, but you may lengthen the vowel a little to give you time to make both the fall and the rise:

"Six
"This
"What
"Stop
'Which
'That
'Us
'Yes

Always be sure that you start high, go low and finish higher. Now some longer examples, which are easier, rather like a fall followed by a Take-Off. Keep the syllables after the fall down low until you reach the rise:

'I, couldn't ,help it 'Someone's ,got to ,do it 'Mary would .probably /tell you 'John ,came .home to /day

'Several .people have .told me they .thought it .looked /pretty

Now try adding other words before the fall-rise:

'Don't "worry

'Don't be "late

You 'mustn't "lose it

You can 'have it for a 'couple of "days

'Try 'not to 'break /that

I 'went up to 'London by 'car to ,day

'John 'told me he was 'going on 'holiday .next /week

I 'hear there's 'been a 'great 'deal of 'trouble a ,bout ,that |

7.6 How to use the tunes

Statements

i Use the Glide-Down for statements which are complete and definite:

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How to use the tunes

| It was 'quite 'good I 'liked it 'very 'much I 'wouldn't 'mind 'seeing it a 'gain j.

2 If the statement is intended to be soothing or encouraging use the Glide-Up:

I 'shan't be /long |

'John'll be 'here /Soon)

I 'won't 'drive 'too /fast (so don't worry).

3 If the statement is a grumble, use the Take-Off:

I .didn't /hurt you (so why make all that fuss?)

You .can't .possibly ,do /that (you ought to know better)

I /did (grumbling contradiction),

4 If the statement is not complete but leading to a following word-group, use the Dive:

I "looked at him (and recognized him at once)

She 'took the "car j (and drove to London)

When'ever he 'comes to "visit us | (he tries to borrow money).

5 If the statement is intended as a question use the Glide-Up:

You /like it?

You 'can't ,go?

He 'doesn't 'want to ,lend you it?

6 For statements which show reservations on the part of the speaker and which might be followed by but... or by you must admit or

I must admit use the Dive:

He's "generous (but I don't trust him)

He's "handsome (you must admit)

He could 'take you 'there to "morrow| (but not today)

I 'like your "hat (I must admit)

It 'wasn't a 'very 'nice 'thing to "do| (you must admit).

7 If the statement is a correction of what someone else has said, use the Dive:

(He's forty-five) ' Fo rty"six

(I like him a lot) You 'used to ,like him

(I can't do it) You'can't do it'that ,way .

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[Ten ^|Five|
 ^Sing ^Come
 ^|Bad |^|Long
 ^Good |^|Bob
 |^Ann

The voicing of the final consonant will help you with above: the rising part of the Duce is on the final consonant, so use it.

More difficult are the short vowels followed by consonants with no voice, but you may lengthen the vowel a little to give you time to make both the fall and the rise:

[Six ^|Which
 ^Thin ^|That
 ^|What |^|Us
 ^|Stop |^|Yes

Always be sure that you start high, go low and finish higher. Now some longer examples, which are easier, rather like a fall followed by a Take-Off. Keep the syllables after the fall down low until you reach the rise:

[I 'couldn't 'help it
 ^|Samuel's got to 'do it
 ^|Mary would 'probably 'kill you
 ^|John 'came 'home 'today
 ^|Several 'people have 'piled 'on they 'thought it 'looked 'pretty

Now try adding other words before the fall-rise:

[He'n's 'worry
 ^|Don't be 'late
 ^|You 'mustn't 'lose it
 ^|You can 'have it for a 'couple of 'days
 ^|Try 'not to 'break 'that
 ^|I 'went up to 'London by 'car 'today
 ^|John 'told me he was 'going on 'holiday 'next 'week
 ^|There 's been a 'great 'deal of 'trouble 'about 'that

7.6 How to use the tunes

Statements

1 Use the Glide-Down for statements which are complete and definite:

[It was 'quite 'good
 ^|I 'kissed it 'very 'much
 ^|I 'wouldn't 'mind 'seeing it a 'gain

8 If the statement is intended to be soothing or reassuring use the Glide-Up:

[I 'shan't be 'long |
 ^|John 'll be 'here 'soon |
 ^|I 'won't 'drive 'too 'fast (to don't worry)

9 If the statement is a gentle one use the Take-Off:

[I 'don't 'hate you (so why make all that fuss?)
 ^|You 'can't 'possibly 'do 'that (you ought to know better)
 ^|I 'did (grounding command)

4 If the statement is not complete but leading to a following word-group, use the Dive:

[I 'looked at him (and recognised him at once)
 ^|She 'took the 'car | (and drove to London)
 ^|When 'ever he 'comes to 'visit us | (he tries to borrow money)

4 If the statement is intended as a question use the Glide-Up:

[You 'like it?
 ^|You 'can't 'go?
 ^|He 'doesn't 'want to 'lend you it?

6 For statements which show reservation on the part of the speaker and which might be followed by *but*... or by *you must admit* or *you see* use the Dive:

[He's 'generous (but I don't trust him)
 ^|He's 'handsome (you must admit)
 ^|I 'could 'take you 'there to 'morrow (but not today)
 ^|I 'like you 'that (I must admit)
 ^|It 'wasn't 'a 'very 'nice 'thing to 'do (you must admit)

7 If the statement is a correction of what someone else has said, use the Dive:

[He's 'fifty-five | 'Fifty-six
 ^|I like him a 'lot | You 'mustn't 'like him
 ^|I 'can't 'do it | You 'can't 'do it 'that 'way

How to use the tunes

8 If the statement is a warning, use the Dive:

You'll be 'late | I 'shan't 'tell you a ^gain | You 'mustn't ^shake it ,too ,much .

9 If the statement has two parts, of which the first is more important than the second, use the Dive, with the fall at the end of the first part and the rise at the end of the second:

I 'went to 'London on ,Monday | You can 'keep it if you ,really ,want it | He was 'very 'well when I ,last ,saw him | I'm 'very 'comfortable ,thank you .

Wh-questions (containing Which, What, Who, etc.)

10 Use the Glide-Up if you want to show as much interest in the other person as in the subject:

'How's your /laughter?
 'When are you 'coming to ,see us?
 'When did you get 'back from ,holiday? |

n Use the Glide-Down if you want the question to sound more business-like and interested in the subject, and also for one-word questions (unless they are repetition-questions, see 12):

'Why did you 'change your 'mind?

'Who on 'earth was 'that? |
'Which? .

12 For repetition-questions, when you are repeating someone else's question or when you want the other person to repeat some information, use the Take-Off:

,WhendidI*go? (Or where?)
|7Why? (Because I wanted to)
(I arrived at ten o'clock) ,When? |
(It took me two hours) ,How 'long?
(John told me to do it) ,Who -told you to -do it? 1.

Notice that in examples like the last three, where the other person is being asked to repeat information, the rise begins on the wh-word.

Yes-No questions (questions answerable by Yes or No)

13 For short questions used as responses, like Did you?, Has she ?, etc., use the Glide-Down:

L=J (John's on holiday) | 'Is he?
(I went to the theatre last night) | 'Did you? |.

14 For all other Yes-No questions use the Glide-Up:

'Have you ,seen him *yet? |
'Did 'John 'post 'that ,letter?
'Can I ,seeit?

Notice that the Glide-Up is also used for repetition-questions of this type:

(Have you seen him yet?) 'Have 17seen him *yet? |
(Will you help me?) 'Will I ,help you?).

Tag-questions (short Yes-No questions added on to statements or commands)



For tag-questions after commands, use the Take-Off:

'Come over 'here /will you?
'Let's have some 'music | /shall we?
'Hold'this for me | /would you? .

16 If neither the statement nor the tag-question have the word not in them, use the Take-Off:

\mSml You'liked it /lid you?
They'd 'like some 'more | /would they?||.

17



Where the word not occurs in either the statement or the tag-question use the Glide-Down to force the other person to agree with you:

It's'cold to,day | 'isn't it? (Forcing the answer Yes.)

It was a 'very 'good 'film 'wasn't it? |
 You , won't /worry 'will you? (Forcing the answer No)
 He 'can't 'really"help it j 'can he? .

18 When you don't want the other person to agree with you, but to give his opinion, use the Take-Off:

You're 'coming to 'tea with us ,aren't you?|

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Intonation

8 If the statement is a warning, use the Dive:
 You'll be 'late
 I 'shan't 'tell you a 'gain
 You 'mustn't 'shake it, 'too 'much .

9 If the statement has two parts, of which the first is more important than the second, use the Dive, with the fall at the end of the first part and the rise at the end of the second:
 I 'went to 'London on 'Monday
 You can 'keep it if you 'really 'want it
 He was 'very 'well when I 'last 'saw him
 I'm 'very 'comfortable 'thank you .

Wh-questions (containing Which, What, Where, etc.)

10 Use the Glide-Up if you want to show a search for news in the other person as in the subject:
 'How's your 'daughter?
 'When are you 'coming to 'see us?
 'When did you get 'back from 'holiday?

11 Use the Glide-Down if you want the question to sound more factually and interested in the subject, and also for one-word questions (unless they are repetition questions, see 13):
 'Why did you 'change your 'mind?
 'Who on 'earth was 'that?
 'Which? .

12 For repetition-questions, when you are repeating someone else's question or when you want the other person to repeat some information, use the Take-Off:
 'When did I 'go? (Or where?)
 'Why? (Because I 'wanted to)
 (I arrived at ten o'clock) 'Which?
 (It took me two hours) 'How 'long?
 (John told me to do it) 'Who 'told you to 'do it? .

Notice that in examples like the last three, where the other person is being asked to repeat information, the rise begins on the wh-word.

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How to use the tone:

Yes-No questions (questions answerable by Yes or No)

13 For short questions used as responses, like Did you?, Has she?, etc., use the Glide-Down:
 [John's on holiday] | 'Is he?
 [I went to the theatre last night] | 'Did you? .

14 For all other Yes-No questions use the Glide-Up:
 'Have you 'seen him 'yet?
 'Did John 'post 'that 'letter?
 'Can I 'see it? .

Notice that the Glide-Up is also used for repetition-questions of this type:
 (Have you seen him yet?) 'Have I 'seen him 'yet?
 (Will you help me?) 'Will I 'help you? .

Tag-questions (short Yes-No questions added on to statements or comments)

15 For tag-questions after comments, use the Take-Off:
 'Come over 'here , 'will you?
 'Let's have some 'music | , 'shall we?
 'Hold 'this for me | , 'would you? .

16 If neither the statement nor the tag-question have the word *not* in them, use the Take-Off:
 You 'liked it, 'did you?
 They'd 'like some 'more | , 'would they? .

17 Where the word *not* occurs in either the statement or the tag-question use the Glide-Down to force the other person to agree with you:
 It's 'cold to-day | 'isn't it? (Forcing the answer Yes.)
 It was a 'very 'good 'film 'wasn't it?
 You 'won't 'worry 'will you? (Forcing the answer No.)
 He 'can't 'really 'help it | 'can he? .

18 When you don't want the other person to agree with you, but to give his opinion, use the Take-Off:
 You're 'coming to 'tea with us , 'aren't you? .

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You 'weren't 'here on /Wednesday /were you? He , 'didn't , look /ill | /did he? .
 Commands



19 If you want the command to sound pleading, more a request than an order, use the Dive, with the fall on Do or Don't if they occur, or on the main verb if not, and the rise at the end:

'Shut the /Window

'Do have some ,more ,tea? |

'Send it as ,soon as you ,can 'Don't ,make me ,angry

Notice commands with only one important word:

""Try""Take it

['Lend it to them .

20 For strong commands use the Glide-Down:

LmJ 'Don't be a 'stupid 'idiot

'Take your 'feet off the 'chair'Come and have 'dinner with us'Have some 'cheese .

Exclamations

21 For strong exclamations use the Glide-Down:

'Good 'Heavens!

'How extraordinary!

What a 'very 'pretty 'dress!

'Nonsense!

'Splendid! .

Remember that Thank you comes in this class when it expresses realgratitude:

'Thank you

'Thank you 'very 'much .



22 For greetings and for saying goodbye use the Glide-Up:

'Good /morning'Hul/o

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How to use the tunes

'Good /bye |

'Good /night].

23 If the exclamation is questioning use the Take-Off:

S /Oh?

/Really? |

/Well? .

24 For exclamations which refer to something not very exciting or unexpected, use the Glide-Up:

iSml /Thank you

/Good'All /right'Good /luck .

The 24 rules given here for using the tunes will help you to choose a tune which is suitable for whatever you want to say. This does not mean that English speakers always follow these rules; if you listen carefully to their intonation (as you must!) you will notice that they often use tunes which are not recommended here for a statement or command, etc. You must try to find out what tunes they use and when, and just what they mean when they do it. But if you study the rules carefully and use the tunes accordingly you will at least be using them in an English way, even though you will not have the same variety or flexibility in their

use that an English speaker has. This will only come with careful, regular listening and imitation. Don't be afraid to imitate what you hear, whether it is sounds or rhythm or intonation, even though it may sound funny to you at first. It won't sound half as funny to an English ear as it does to you, and in any case you'll soon get used to it!

7.7 Exercises

(Do not look at the answers on p. 136 until you have completed all these exercises.)

1 Practise again all the examples given in this chapter. Be sure that you understand the relation between the short and the long way of showing the intonation.

2 Transcribe the following conversation phonetically; divide it into word groups and rhythm units and then underline the important words:

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Intonation

Can you recommend somewhere for a holiday? Conversational passages for practice

What an odd coincidence! I was just going to tell you about our holiday!

Really? Where did you go? The South of France again?

No, this time we went to Ireland!

Oh, you went to Ireland, did you? You were thinking about it the last time we met.

Oh yes, I mentioned it to you, didn't I?

You were thinking of Belfast, weren't you?

Dublin. But we didn't go there in the end.

Didn't you? Where did you go?

Which? To Galway.

That's on the West coast, isn't it? Was the weather good?

Reasonably good.

Tell me about the prices there, would you?

They weren't too bad. You should go there and try it. But you ought to go soon. Summer's nearly over!

It isn't over yet. But thank you very much for your advice.

Good luck. Have a good time.

Thank you. Goodbye.

3 Study the rules for using the tunes and then rearrange them so that all the rules concerning the Glide-Down are brought together; and similarly with those concerning the Glide-Up, the Take-Off and the Dive.

4 Using the rules, mark the intonation of each word group in the conversation

in 2. After you have finished the whole conversation check your marking carefully with the answer on p. 136 and notice any differences. Then practise saying each part of it separately until you are satisfied that it is correct, and finally put the parts together so that you can say the whole thing fluently, rhythmically, and with English sounds and intonation.

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Intonation:

Can you recommend somewhere for a holiday?
 What an odd coincidence! I was just going to call you about our holiday!
 Really? Where did you go? The South of France again?
 No, this time we went to Ireland!
 Oh, you went to Ireland, did you? You were thinking about it the last time we met.
 Oh yes, I mentioned it to you, didn't I?
 You were thinking of Dublin, weren't you?
 Dublin. But we didn't go there in the end.
 Didn't you? Where did you go?
 Where? To Galway.
 That's not the West coast, is it? Was the weather good?
 Reasonably good.
 Tell me about the prices there, would you?
 They weren't too bad. You should go there and see it. But you ought to go soon. Summer's nearly over!
 It isn't over yet. But thank you very much for your advice.
 Good luck. Have a good time.
 Thank you. Goodbye.

Conversational passages for practice

- 3 Study the rules for using the times and then rearrange them so that all the rules concerning the Glide-Down are brought together, and similarly with those concerning the Glide-Up, the Take-Off and the Dive.
- 4 Using the rules, mark the intonation of each word group in the transcription in 2. After you have finished the whole conversation check your marking carefully with the answer on p. 136 and notice any differences. Then practise saying each part of it separately until you are satisfied that it is correct, and finally put the parts together so that you can say the whole thing fluently, rhythmically, and with English sounds and intonation.

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Conversational passages

v8aets a.nais ,sju:t ai'haevnt x\$ i:nit bi,fb: | ,haevai||xnau itsfla'feis 'taim
 aivxwa:nit ^ktjali ai'aunli xgDtit a.baut,fb:,deiza,gau ju:xlaikit ,du:ju:
 'veri xmAtJ 'didju: 'haevit 'spejli ,meid a: 'didju: 'bait 'DfS9speg||
 ai'haedit xmeid| ai'veri xreali (bai a/Sjuitlsauai'Bsit aid'haevitxteild
 anaim'kwait xpli:zdwi8it||aijudx0iqks9u| its'veri xhaensam 'meiai 'a:sk 'we9
 ju:,gDtit ||5a'seim 'pleis azai'gDt maixla:stwAn |'naintiin xjiaza,gau'naintiin Jiazll
 dajui'riali 'mi:n ta,telmi:| jui'haevnt 'haed a'sjuit'sins ,8en
 'Saets ,rait ai'daunt 'ofn xwear a.sjuit jui.siilsauflei'tendta'laist 9'Idq xtaim
 I'naintiin 'jiaz iz's3itnli a'log^taim | an'iivan ifjui'daunt xwea8am,mAtJ
 jair'auldwAn 'mAstav 'laistid^wel |xau itxdid flei,did a veri 'gud 'djDbomt,WDt
 waz5a*neim av8a*teila

xfilipsn its'kwait axsma:l ,Jt>p['rait atdii'end av'kirj ,stri:t||

'ai ,nauit 'ra:3ar axJaebi ,lukig ,pleis| aiv'neva bim^indeaai'wudnt 'kailit^Jaebi
batit'iznt'veri^modn aiad'mit hau'eva]Seia'veri axblaid3ig an.teik a'greit 'di:l
avxtrAb||

'sauaikanxsi: ai'Sigk ail'gau ax(Dgflea aixni:d a,njj: ,sju:t |xau|'baida'wei 'wot
sa:t avxpraisizda8ei,tja:d3'priti xri:znabl ,riali '81\$ waz'eiti xpaundzx8aets ,not
,baed ai'Bigk ail'luk 'inflea taxmorau|xjes xdu:|'menjan 'mai xneim ifju:,laik|
it'waunt'duiem^haim)amt'mait 'du:samxgud aiv'd3AS 'peid maixbil|

That's a nice suit. I haven't seen it before, have I ?

No. It's the first time I've worn it, actually. I only got it about fourdays ago.
You like it, do you?

Very much. Did you have it specially made, or did you buy it offthe peg?

I had it made. I very rarely buy a suit, so I thought I'd have ittailored, and
I'm quite pleased with it.

I should think so. It's very handsome. May I ask where you got it?

The same place as I got my last one, nineteen years ago.

Nineteen years? Do you really mean to tell me you haven't had asuit since
then?

That's right. I don't often wear a suit, you see, so they tend to lasta long time.

Nineteen years is certainly a long time; and even if you don't wearthem
much, your old one must have lasted well.

Oh, it did. They did a very good job on it.

What was the name of the tailor?

Philipson. It's quite a small shop right at the end of King Street.

I know it. Rather a shabby-looking place. I've never been in there.

I wouldn't call it shabby, but it isn't very moderm, I admit. However,they're
very obliging, and take a great deal of trouble.

So I can see. I think I'll go along there. I need a new suit. Oh, by theway,
what sort of prices do they charge?

Pretty reasonable, really. This was eighty pounds.

That's not bad. I think I'll look in there tomorrow.

Yes, do. Mention my name if you like. It won't do any harm, andit might do
some good. I've just paid my bill.

Conversational passages

ai'niid a'kApj avv J3its 'grei vterali:n ,pli:z

ps3:tnli,S31 ail'djAS 'getsAm xaut 'wudju: 'maind 'teikig dysi:t I

fara'minit ai'Jairt bijorj

xnau xdsunt bi.tu: ,Idq ai'haevnt 'veri 'mAtJ xtaim'veri ygud *S3: 'hiaza.nais
J3:t wii'sel a'lot avy6iswAnxdu:ju:,nau xjes itsda'ssitav x\$tail ai,WDnt

batai'a:stfaxgrei'6isiz Np31pj

,p3:pl *S3: 'Juab, not its'wot 'wi: ko:\ 'silva xblu:welit'luks vp3:pj ta,mi:
xeniwei aid'laik'SAm0ig a'litj lesxbrait 'mo:'laikda'WAn aim'wearig

x3u x5aet ,sDit av.grei ai haevnt 'si:n '6aet faxjazai'bDitit xhia, 'siks xmAn0s
a gaudidju: /riali*S3: it mAstavbiin 'auld xstDkwel'sinfjuiv'stil gDt'em xleft
/Wilju:

xa:,jes xhia wi: a: aimxSDri a.baut 3a,dASt *S3: kaenai'lendju:a/haeQkatJi:f
'nau ,03er)kju: ail sa,vaiv xjes x6aet ,luks ,beta 'hasvju: a'nAdawAnJaikit
aima freid xnDt ,S3: its'probabli 6a la:st in6axkAntrixau d:I ,rait aihteikit
'haumAtJ xizit'twelv xpaundz ,S3: itwaza'veri 'gud xj3:t initS/taimaijudx0igk
,sau at twelv ,paundz 'kaenai lpei bai,tjekxS3:tnli ,S3: ju:xhaev aytjekka:dxjes
aixhaev

an wudju: ^as 'putja: neim ana'dreson6a/baek
aikan'nevar Andaxstaend y6aet 'if da'tjek waz'nau^gud aid'put v
axfDls ,neim ana,dres|'wudnt ,ju:
jo:xd jaukiQ ,s3:r I afxka:s ai naetjarali a'sjuim jai'tjek izxgud |
'veri xtrAstiQ .ovju: itxizaza,maetar av/aektiz6ear'em0ig xels ju:,ni:d
.sai^taiz ySDks ,ve\$tsai.daunt ,0igk*sau| ^aegkju: 'gud ^ainig
'gud ,dei,S311 |

I need a couple of shirts. Grey terylene, please.

Certainly, sir. I'll just get some out. Would you mind taking a seat for a
minute. I shan't be long.

No, don't be too long. I haven't very much time.

Very good, sir. Here's a nice shirt; we sell a lot of this one.

Do you, now? Yes, it's the sort of style I want, but I asked for grey. This is
purple.

Purple, sir? Surely not. It's what we call silver-blue.

Well, it looks purple to me. Anyway, I'd like something a little less bright,
more like the one I'm wearing.

Oh, that sort of grey. I haven't seen that for years.

I bought it here, six months ago.

Did you really, sir? It must have been old stock.

Well, see if you've still got any left, will you?

Ah, yes, here we are. I'm sorry about the dust, sir. Can I lend you a
handkerchief?

No, thank you, I'll survive. Yes, that looks better. Have you another one like
it?

I'm afraid not, sir. It's probably the last in the country.

Oh, all right, I'll take it. How much is it?

aima freid ai'daunt xnau .mAtJ a.baut ,haus plaints bataiv'gDtaxbuk
.SAMwea 3at,mait ,help lets xsl: xa: ,jes xhiarit,iz3a'kear av'haus .plaints xmi
x3ast ,luks juisfldajui haepan ta'nau 3a,laetin •neimavitaima'freid aixdaunt 'bizi
xliziz dli.aunli ,neim aiv,h3id |

1 wDt dazitxluk ,laik

welits.got a rai3a 'wDitari 'lukig^stem 'veri 'peil ,gri:n an'feali'small 'pigk
xflauaz'hau mem xpetjz

'gud xgreijas aiv'neva xkauntid3am 'fair aixfaiv aisa,pauz|3eia'ra:3a laik'
waild xrauz petjz

ail lukAp 'bizi 'Tiznn3iixindeks 3eixmei ,givit| xje\$|xhiarit,iz peidj nairti xeit
x8ear iz,3aetit

mai xW3id x3aetsa7bigwAn 'mainz aunli'gDt'wAn xstem |an'3aet•siimzta
haev xdAznz batai 0igkits3a seim^wAn

wel3ei'laik~lait bat'nDt xhlit 'waitadam'wel in3a^\$Ama| bat'nDt'veri
'mAtJinxwinta an 3aets a'baut xail xau| x3aets ,rai3a ,nais||it'sez'hia
3at3axd33iman ,neimfarit| .miinzin'dAstrias ixlizaba0'mAtJ 'graenda
dan'bizi^lizi

ai'0igk aid'raiSa haeva'bizi xlizi inmai^ausIdananin'dASTriasTlizaba0
bat'0aegkjui'veri xmAtJ| aim veri xgreitfj tuijui 1 praepsailbii'eibj ta'kiipit axlaiv
,nau ai ju^uali 'haev adixzaistrasi,fektDn,pla:nts

| aijud'aunli 'waitarit 'v/Ans axmAn0 ,nau| An'til 3axsprig |\3a,waiz
juil'probabli xkilit |

| xgud | ailxdui 3aet '0aegks axgen |

You're a gardener, aren't you? Do you know anything about BusyLizzies?

About what? Busy Lizzies? What on earth are they?

Oh, I thought you'd know. They're house-plants; I've just beengiven one, by
my sister, and I want to know how to look after it.

I'm afraid I don't know much about house-plants, but I've got a book
somewhere that might help. Let's see. Ah, yes, here it is.

'The Care of House-Plants'. Mm, that looks useful.

Do you happen to know the Latin name of it?

I'm afraid I don't. Busy Lizzie's the only name I've heard.

What does it look like?

Well, it's got a rather watery-looking stem, very pale green, and fairly small
pink flowers.

How many petals?

Good gracious, I've never counted them. Four or five, I suppose. They're
rather like wild rose petals.

I'll look up Busy Lizzy in the index. They may give it. Yes, here it is.

Page ninety-eight. There, is that it?

My word, that's a big one! Mine s only got one stem, and thatseems to have dozens. But I think it s the same one.

Well they like light, but not heat; water them well in the summer, but not very much in winter. And that s about all. Oh, that s rathernice; it says here that the German name for it means IndustriousElizabeth! Much grander than Busy Lizzie.

I think I'd rather have a Busy Lizzie in my house than an IndustriousElizabeth. But thank you very much, I'm very grateful to you. PerhapsI'll be able to keep it alive now. I usually have a disastrous effect onplants.

I should only water it once a month now, until the spring. Otherwise,you'll probably kill it.

Good. I'll do that. Thanks again.

1

Answers to exercises

Chapter 1 (p. 12)

1 write, 3 /r, ai, t/; through, 3 /θ, r, u:/; measure, 4 /m, e, 5, a/; six, 4

/ʃ, 1, k, s/; half, 3 /h, a:, f/; where, 2 /w, ea/; one, 3 /w, a, n/;first, 4/f, 3:, s, t/; vo/ee, 3 /v, di, s/; cast/e, 4 IK s> ■/*» ^toors, 5 /«, 1, z>9,z/; sfcouM, 3 /J, d/; judge, 3 /dʒ, a, d^/,/atfar, 4 (f, a:, d, a/; /omfc,

3 /I, m/.

2 Some examples are: forjourjorehi; see, seash; sent, scent, cent sent;sole, soul saul; choose, chews tju:z; herd, heard h3:d; meet, meat, metemi:t; too, to, two tu:; sight, site sait.

3 rait,0ru:, meja, siks, ha:f, wea, WAn, f3ist, vdis, ka:sl, sizazjud,djAd3,fa:6a, laem.

maet, met, mi:t, meit, mait, kot, kAt, ka:t, lik, luk, b3:d, ba:d,laud, laud, baiz, ba:z, beazjia, Jua, kDpa, grim, tja:d3, sDQ,faiv,wi5, tru:0, jelau, ple3a, halau.

4 mAda, fa:da separate/m, a, f, a:/.

Chapter 2 (p. 22)

2 Complete obstruction (glottal stop); vibration (voice); and openposition (breath).

4 You cannot sing a voiceless sound; tune depends on variations inthe frequency of vibrations of the vocal cords, and voiceless soundshave no vibrations.

5 It allows the breath stream to pass into the nasal cavity, or preventsit.

10 The tongue moves from a low to a high front position for/ai/, from a low back to a high front position for/ai/,and from a low to a highback position for

/au/.

12 The side teeth gently bite the sides of the tongue because the sides are touching the sides of the palate and the side teeth.

Answers to exercises

Chapter 3 (p. 63)

i You should concentrate on the phoneme difficulties first.

Chapter 5 (p. 89)

■4 baeg, baek; kAb, kAp; ha:v, half; tog, bk; ka:d, ka:t; pul, puj; lu:z, lu:s; S3id3, S3itj; seiv, seif; raiz, rais; djoiz, d3ais (Joyce)', kaud, kaut; hauz (vb.), haus (n.); fiaz, fias; skeaz, skeas; buaz (boors), buas (Bourse).

Chapter 6 (p. 105)



i,6,8 aiv*nl:didsam*nju:*buk*J'elvz fara*bg*taim sau*djuarigmai*ht>ladi
aidi*saidid ta*taekj 3a*d3Db mai*self *nDt3ataim*veri *kleva wi3mai*haenz
batit*didnt *siim *tu:*difikjt anazaida:l*redi *sed 5atwi:*kudnt a*fa:d
ta*gaua*wei ai*0a:titadbi*pru:dnt *nDtta*spend *mAm *haevigit*dAn
pra*fejanali ai*ba:t 3a*wud at3a*laukl *haendi*kra:ft*fop anaihaed*plenti
av*skru:z batai*faund3atmai*auld *sa: witjadbi:n*left bi*haind
bai3a*pri:vias*aunarav3a*haus *WDznt *gud i*nAf anaidi*saidid
ta*baia*nju:wAn *3ast wazmai*f3ist mi*steik mai*sekandwazta*gau
ta3a*bigist *aian *mAggar in*Undan an*a:skfara*sa: ju:d*0igk itwaz*simp!
*wudntju: ta*baia*sa:|batit*iznt ai*sed ta3a*maen bi*haind 3a*kaunta
ai*wDnta*sa: hi:waza*nais *maen an*didiz *best fa*mi: *jess3i[*WDt *kaind
av*sa: *au a*sa:fa*kAtig *wud *jess3ibatwi:haev*fif *ti:n *difrant *kaindz
fa*difrant *d3Dbz |

*wDt didju:*wDntit *fb: ank*spleind a*baut mai*buk*felvz an*felt
laikan*ignarant *fu:l ina*w3ild av*eksp3itwitjwaz*tru: hi:*sa: 3ataiwaza*mms
anwaz*veri *kaindhi:*tauldmi: *wDt aijud*ni:d anad*vaizdmi: ta*haev
a*leidiz*saiz *i:zia ta*maenid3faSabi*ginas3i hi:*WDznt *bi:ig*na:sti *d3Ast
*helpful anaiwaz*greitful *tu:im hi:*3ilsau*sauldmi: a*bukDn*wudw3ik
fa*xku:| *baiz anaivbi:n*ri:digit wi5*greit *intrast 3a*nekst *taim
aimon*hDladiail*meik a*sta:t Dn3a*Jelvz .

2 3ei *keim ta 3a *d:>: 3ea wa *tu: av 3am *WDtaju:sa*praizd aet
Ji:zaz*auld az3a *hilz Ji: haez an *Agkj an a*kAzn ai Jj bi: *aeggri *hu:l *mi:t
im at 3i: *ea *pa:t

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Answers to exercises

*ai *wil *wDt\$ 3: *faun *nAmba *WDt daz *6aet *maeta |ai d *laik sam *ti:
wel *meik *sAm *wots *djDn *kAm fb:|far iz*sa: 8at ju: *boraud *wot kan ai
*du: *m:>:6an*ai*kaen hi: waz*pli:zd *WDznt i: av *ka:\$ i: *wdz *wen am

ai *gauig ta *get it aim *nDt *Jua aiv *teikan it fram 6a*Jelf *jesai*0a:t
ju:*haed 6eid a:l*redi *red it bat*sauad *ai

3 Have, some, for, a. To, the. That, am, but, not, and, as, had,that, not, to,
would, be, to. The, at, the, and, of, but, that, had,the, of, the, not, and, to, a. Was,
to, to, the, and, for, a.

Would, was, to, a. But, not. To, the, the, a. Was, a, and, his.

Of. A, for. But, for. And, an, a, of, was. That, was, a, and, was.And, to, a. To,
for, the. Not, and, was, him. A, for, and, have.The, am, shall, a, the.

7 haen(d)z, itabbi pruidnt, spen(d) 6a mAni, dAm prafejanali,haendikra:f(t)
Jbp, ai haeb plenti, aifaun(d) 6at, aul(d) sa:,witjab biin, lef(t) bihain(d) bai,
wdziJlCgud,f3is(t) misteik,wudntju:, bihain(d) 6a kaunta, bes(t) fa mi:., wok
kaind,difragk kain(d)z, taul(d) mi:., advaiz(d) mi:., wozmp bi:ig,helpfl, greitfj,
saul(d) mi:., neks(t) taim.

Chapter 7 (p. 125)



2,4 The number in brackets after each word group is the number of the rule
which has been used to select an appropriate tune.

kaenju: reka'mend SAMwea fara,hDladi (14)wDtan'Dd kau'insidans (21)
aiwaz'djAS 'gauig ta telju: a'baut.holadi (1)

,riali (23) 'wea didju:,gau (10) 6a'sau0 av,fra:ns a*gen (5)xr»au (1) x6is
7taim (4) wi:'went tu:xaialand (1)xau(21) ju:'wenttu:xaialand (1) ,didju:(16)
ju:wax0igkiga,bautit (4)|6axla:s ,taim wi:,met (1)

| 'au xjes (1) aixmenjandit ,tu:ju: (1)| xdidntai (17)ju:wa'0igkig avbelxfa:st
(1),w3:ntju: (18)

^dAblin (7) batwi:'didnt xgau6ear in6i:,end (9)xdidntju: (13) 'wea xdidju:
,gau (11)ywea(12) taxga:lwei (1)

'6aets Dn6a'west xkaust (1) ,izntit (18) 'wdz 5a,we6a•gud (14)

xri:znabli ygud (6)

'telmi:a'baut 6axpraisiz ,6ea (20) | ,wudju: (15)

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1

Answers to exercises

6ei'w3:nt 'tu: /baed (2) ju:Judxgau,6ea (1)|anxtrant(1)|I batju:'a:t ta'gau^sum
(8) 'SAMaz 'mail xauva (1)

* it,iznt ,auva ,jet (3) bat'0aegkju: 'veri 'mAtJfaja:radxvais

(21)

'gud ,lAk (24) xhaeva ,gud ,taim (19)
 | x0aegkju: (21) 'gud ,bai (22)
 3 Glide-Down: Rules 1,11,13,17, 20, 21.
 Glide-Up: Rules 2, 5,10,14, 22, 24.
 I Take-Off: Rules 3,12, 15,16,18, 23.
 f Dive: Rules 4, 6, 7, 8,9,19.

I
 I
 1
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Answers to exercises

*ai 'we:l *we:ks: *'fa:n 'sə:mbe: *we:p dɔ:z *dɔ:z *mɔ:ts |
 a: d 'hɜ:k sɜ:m *'θe: wɜ:l *me:k *'i:z *'wɔ: *dʒɔ: *'kɜ:m fɔ:ʃ
 be: a: *'sɔ: dɔ:t ju: *'θɔ: sɔ:d *'wɔ: sɔ:n a: *'dɔ: *'nɔ: dɔ:n *'i:
 *'kɜ:m hi: wɜ:l *'plɪ:z *'wɔ:m kɪ: *'sɔ: kɪ: i: *'wɜ: *'wɜ:m wɜ:
 a: *'gɔ:ŋ tɔ: *'gɔ:t a: sɜ:m *'hɜ:t *'fɔ: a: v *'tɜ:kən a: frɔ:m dɔ:
 *'fɔ:l *'jɔ: a: *'θɔ:t ju: *'hɜ:d dɔ: dɔ: d *'rɜ:d *'rɜ:d tɪ: hɜ:t *'sɔ:
 a: d *'ɜ:

- 3 Have, some, for, a, To, the, That, am, but, not, and, as, had,
 that, use, so, would, be, to, The, at, the, and, of, but, that, had,
 the, of, the, not, and, to, a, Was, to, to, the, and, for, a,
 'Would, was, to, a, But, not, To, the, the, a, Was, a, and, in,
 Of, A, for, But, for, And, an, a, of, was, That, was, a, and, was,
 And, to, a, To, for, the, Not, and, was, him, A, for, and, have,
 The, am, shall, a, the.
- 7 hɜ:m(d)z, stæblz, grʌdʒ(z), spɛn(d) dɜ: mɔ:n, dʌm prɒfɛʃən əb,
 hɜ:ndkɜ:ft(z) fɔ:p, a: nɜ:b plɛnt, a: fɔ:n(d) dɔ:n, rʊl(d) tɔ:
 wɜ:ʃ əb hɜ:n, lɛft(z) hɜ:tɜ:(d) hɜ:t, wɜ:ʒkɪ gɔ:t, frɪʃ(t) mɛstɜ:z,
 wɔ:dətʃu:, bɪhɜ:m(d) dɔ: sɜ:mbe:, sɜ:(z) fɔ: mɪ, wɜ:k kɜ:nd,
 dɪfrɛŋk kɜ:(d)z, tɔ:l(d) nɜ:, ɔ:dʒɪz(d) wɪ, wɜ:mp bɪrɪŋ,
 hɛlp(z), grɜ:ʃ(z), sɔ:l(d) mɪ, rɛk(z) tɜ:m.

Chapter 7 (p. 125)

2.4 The number in brackets after each word group is the number of
 the rule which has been used to select an appropriate tone.

1. kɜ:ŋju: rɛk: mɔ:nd sɜ:mwe:z fɔ:z, hɜ:lɪd(z) (14)
 wɜ:tɜ:nd kɜ: 'mɜ:ndɜ: (21) a: wɜ:l dʒɔ: 'gɔ:ŋ tɜ: tɛlʃu: a: 'hɜ:t
 tɜ:m, hɜ:lɪd(z) (1)
 ,rɜ:lz (23) *wɜ: dɪd ju: ,gɔ: (10) dɔ: sɔ:l əv /rɜ:m əv ɜ:ŋ (5)
 *hɜ:n (1) 'dɪz ,tɜ:m (4) wɜ: wɜ:nt tɔ: 'mɜ:lɜ:nd (1)
 *tɜ: (7) ju: 'wɜ:nt tɜ: 'mɜ:lɜ:nd (1) ,dɪd ju: (14) ju: wɜ: 'θɜ:ŋkɪŋ
 ə ,bɜ:stɪz (4) dɔ: 'hɜ:l ,tɜ:m wɪ: nɔ:t (1)
 | ən 'tɜ: (1) a: 'mɛnʃɜ:ndɪz ,tɜ:ʒu: (1) *dɪdɔ:z (17)
 ju: wɜ: 'θɜ:ŋkɪŋ əv hɜ:l 'fɜ:t (1) ,wɜ: 'tɜ: (18)
 *dɪ hɪm (2) bɜ: wɪ: 'dɪdɔ: 'gɔ: bɜ:z a:nd, ənd (9)
 'dɪdɔ: ju: (12) *wɜ: 'dɪd ju: ,gɔ: (15)
 ,wɜ: (12) tɜ: 'gɔ: wɜ: (1)
 dɜ:m ənd a: wɜ:st *kɜ:st (1) ,tɜ:ʒɪt (18) *wɜ: dɔ: ,wɜ:lɔ:
 'gɔ:d (14)
 *'lɪ:zəbl: ,gɔ:d (6)
 *lɜ:m: ə ,bɜ:st dɔ: 'prɜ:zɜ: ,hɜ: (20), wɜ:l ju: (15)

Answers to exercises

dɜ: wɜ:nt 'tɜ: ,hɜ:d (1) | u: 'ju: 'gɔ: ,hɜ: (1) | dɜ: 'tɜ:m (1) |
 bɜ:t ,tɜ: sɜ:l tɜ: 'gɔ: 'tɜ: (8) *hɜ:mɜ: 'hɜ:lɪz wɜ:l (3)
 tɜ:ʒɪt ,tɜ:m ,tɜ: (3) bɜ:t dɜ:ŋkɪŋ 'wɜ: 'mɔ:l fɛ:lɜ:nd 'hɜ:n
 (21)
 'gɔ:d ,lɜ:k (24) *hɜ:vɜ: ,gɔ:d ,tɜ:m (19)
 *bɜ:k ju: (21) 'gɔ:d ,hɜ: (22)

- 3 Glide-Down: Rules 1, 11, 13, 17, 20, 21.
 Glide-Up: Rules 2, 5, 10, 14, 22, 24.
 Take-Off: Rules 3, 12, 15, 16, 18, 23.
 Dive: Rules 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 19.

*
 Appendix 1
 The difficulties of English pronunciation for speakers of Arabic, Cantonese,
 French,

German, Hindi and Spanish

!

On the following pages are very short summaries of the main difficulties in English pronunciation for speakers of six major languages (Arabic, Cantonese, French, German, Hindi and Spanish). Some of the consonants and vowels are referred to as equivalent in English and the other language, but you must understand that this does not mean that you need not bother with these sounds. It means that these sounds are independent in the language concerned, that they are a useful starting-point for acquiring the correct English sound and that they will probably not cause any misunderstanding if they are used in English.

In some cases an equivalent sound may be very different from the English one, e.g. the tongue-tip roll or tap for /r/ in Arabic and |

Spanish, but English listeners will nevertheless recognize it as /r/.

Sometimes, also, the equivalent of the English sound is not the one which first comes to mind (or which is most often used by the learner), but it is there and can be found. An example is /a/ for French speakers: they usually use a vowel which is quite foreign to English (the vowel in Fr. *ceuf* 'cgg*') when the vowel in Fr. *patte* 'paw*' would be very much nearer.

The main difficulties are listed and speakers of these languages are advised to pay special attention to those parts of this book which deal with these difficulties, but do not assume that these are the only difficulties; for everyone, including the many readers whose languages are not discussed here, the only reliable guide is a critical ear and, if possible, a good teacher.

i

Arabic (Cairo colloquial)

Consonants

EQUIVALENTS

/f, s, z, J, h, t, k, b, d, g, tj, m, n, l, j, w, r/.

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Arabic

DIFFICULTIES

1 /f/ and /v/ may be confused, /f/ being used for both, but /v/ may

2 occur in Arabic in borrowed names.

/0/ and I&I occur independently in some forms of Arabic (Iraqi, Saudi Arabian, Kuwaiti, etc.) but not in Egyptian Arabic, where they are replaced by /s/ and /z/.

3 /3/ occurs in Arabic only in borrowed words and is often replaced by either /J/ or /z/.

4 /p/ and /b/ are confused, /b/ being used for both.

5 /t/ and /d/ are dental stops in Arabic.

6 Stops are not generally exploded in final position in Arabic and the strong stops are often unaspirated.

7 /tj/ and /dʒ/ may be confused, /tj/ being used for both, though in practice does not usually give difficulty.

8 /l/ does not occur independently in Arabic and is replaced by /Qk/ or /Qg/.

9 /r/ is a tongue-tip roll or tap in Arabic and is often used before consonants and before a pause.

10 /I/ occurs in both its clear and dark forms in Arabic, but they are distributed differently and may sometimes be interchanged in English.

Sequences of three or more consonants do not occur in many forms of Arabic and careful attention must be paid to these, especially in order to prevent the occurrence of a vowel to break up the consonant sequence.

Vowels

EQUIVALENTS

/i:, e, ae, a:, o:, u, u:, a, ai, au, di/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /i/ and /e/ are confused, /e/ being used for both.

2 /ae/ and /a:/ are not entirely independent in Arabic and there is danger of replacing one by the other in some places.

3 /a/ and /d/ are confused, an intermediate vowel being used for both.

4 /a:/ is not always made long, and is then confused with /a/ or /d/.

5 /ʒ:/ is replaced by a vowel of the /a/ or /e/ type followed by Arabic /r/.

6 /ei/ is replaced by the usually non-diphthongal vowel in Arabic belt 'house*.

7 /au/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel in Arabic mo:z 'bananas*, and this may cause confusion with English /d:/.

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8 /ia, ea, ua/ are replaced by the nearest vowel sound /i:, ei, u:/ + Arabic /r/.

Cantonese

Consonants

EQUIVALENTS

/f, s, h, p, t, k, b, d, g, tj, m, n, r), j, w/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 No weak friction sounds (/v, d, z, ʒ/) occur.

2 /v/ is replaced by /w/ in initial position and by /f/ in final position.

3 /θ/ and /ʒ/ are replaced either by /t/ and /d/ or by /f/.

4 /z> L 3/ are aU replaced by /s/.

5 /b, d, g/ do not occur finally in Cantonese and are confused with /p,t,k/.

6 /p, t, k/ are not exploded in final position.

7 /tf/ and /d3/ are confused, /tj/ being used for both.

8 /I/, jn/ and /r/ are confused in some or all positions, /I/ (often nasa-lized) being used for all three. Before consonants and finally /I/ is replaced by /u:/.

The only consonants which occur finally in Cantonese are /p, t, k, m,n, 0/; the English final consonants and the differences among them need great care. Consonant sequences do not occur in Cantonese, and the English sequences, particularly the final ones, also require a great deal of practice.

Vowels

EQUIVALENTS

/i:, a, a:, u:, 3:, a, ei, au, ai, au, di, ia, ea, ua/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /I:/ and /I/ are confused; sometimes /i:/ is used for both and some-times /i/, depending on what follows.

2 /e/ and /ae/ are confused, an intermediate vowel being used for both; the same vowel also replaces /e 1/ before consonants.

3 /d/ and /a:/ are confused, an intermediate vowel being used for both.

4 /u:/ and /u/ are confused; sometimes /u 1/ is used for both and some-times /u/ depending on what follows.

5 /3:/ and /a/ usually have lip-rounding, /a/ is often replaced by other vowels because of the spelling.

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Cantonese

6 The difference between long and short vowels and the variations of vowel length caused by the following consonant and by rhythm grouping are very difficult and need special care.

Cantonese is a tone language in which each syllable has a fixed pitch pattern. On the whole this does not make English intonation more difficult than it is for speakers of other languages, but it does affect the rhythm and particular attention should be paid to this.

French

Consonants

EQUIVALENTS

/f, v, s, z, J, 3, p, t, k, b, d, g, I, m, n, j, w, r/. /tf/ and although they have no equivalents in normal French words, do not cause difficulty.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /θ/ and /ð/ do not occur in French and are replaced by /s/ and /z/, or less commonly by /f/ and /v/.

2 /h/ does not occur in French and is omitted in English.

3 /p, t, k/ are generally not aspirated in French, which may lead to confusion with /b, d, g/ in English.

4 /l/ and /d/ are dental stops in French.

5 /ŋ/ does not occur in French and is replaced in English by the consonant at the end of French *gagne* 'earns'.

6 /l/ in French is always clear.

7 /r/ in French is usually a weak, voiced, uvular friction or glide sound.

Although sequences of four final consonants do not occur in French and sequences of three are rare, English consonant sequences cause little difficulty except when /θ, ð, h, g/ are concerned.

Vowels

EQUIVALENTS

/i:, e, a, a:, d, u:, a, ai, au/. /di/ has no obvious equivalent in French but causes no difficulty.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /i:/ and /i/ are confused, /i/ being used for both.

2 /æ/ and /a/ are confused, /a/ being used for both.

3 /d/ is often pronounced in a way that makes it sound like English /a/.

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4 /d:/ is replaced by the vowel + /r/ in French *forme* 'shape', when there is a letter r in the spelling, or by the vowel in French *beau* 'beautiful', when there is no r.

5 /au/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel in French *beau*, which causes confusion with /a:/.

6 /u:/ and /u/ are confused, /u:/ being used for both.

7 /ɜ:/ is replaced by the lip-rounded vowel + /r/ in French *heure* 'hour'.

8 /ei/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel in French *gai* 'gay'.

9 /ia, ea, ua/ are replaced by the vowel + /r/ in French *lire* 'read', *ferre* 'earth', *lourd* 'heavy'.

10 /a/ is often replaced by other vowels because of the spelling.

Vowels are usually short in French, compared with English, and care must be taken to make the long vowels of English long enough.

Each syllable in French has approximately the same length and the same stress. English rhythm based on the stressed syllable and the resulting variations of syllable length cause great difficulty and must be given special attention, together with weak forms of words, which do not exist in French.

German

Consonants

EQUIVALENTS

/f, v, s, zj, ʒ, h, p t, k, b, d, g, tf, dj, m, n, g, l, j, r/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /θ/ and /ð/ do not occur in German and are replaced by /s/ and /z/.

2 /b, d, g, dʒ, v, z, ʒ/ do not occur in final position in German, but the corresponding strong consonants /p, t, k, tʃ, f, s, f/ do, which causes confusion between the two sets in English, the strong consonants being used for both.

3 /ʃ/ and /dʒ/ occur only in borrowed words in German and they may be replaced by /j/ and /tʃ/.

4 The sequence /r)g/ does not occur in German and is replaced in English by simple /g/.

5 /l/ in German is always clear.

6 /w/ and /v/ are confused, /v/ being used for both.

7 /r/ in German is either a weak, voiced, uvular friction sound or a tongue-tip trill.

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German

English consonant sequences cause no difficulty except when /θ, ʒ, w/ are concerned or when / b, d, g, dj, v, z, ʒ/ are part of a final sequence.

Vowels

EQUIVALENTS

/i:, ɪ, e, a, a:, d, u, u:, a, ai, au, di/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /e/ and /æ/ are confused, /e/ being used for both.

2 /jo:/ is replaced by the vowel + /r/ of German Dorf 'town' when there is a letter r in the spelling, or by the vowel of German Sohn 'son' when there is no r.

3 /au/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel of German Sohn, which causes confusion between /d:/ and /au/.

4 /ɜ:/ is replaced by the lip-rounded vowel + /r/ of German Dorfer 'towns'.

5 Non-final /a/ is usually too like English /i/, and final /a/ usually too like English /d/.

6 /ei/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel in German See 'lake'.

7 /ia, ea, ua/ are replaced by the vowel + /r/ of German vier 'four', Herr 'gentleman', and Uhr 'clock'.

German has long and short vowels as in English, but the influence of following consonants is not so great and care must be taken in particular to shorten the long vowels when they are followed by strong consonants.

A stressed vowel at the beginning of a word and sometimes within a word is preceded by a glottal stop. This must be avoided in English for the sake of smoothness.

Hindi

Consonants

EQUIVALENTS

/s, z, ʃ, h, p, t, k, b, d, g, tʃ, dʒ, m, n, l, j, r/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /f/ and /p/ are confused, /p/ being used for both.

2 /t/ and /ʃ/ are replaced by dental stops, which causes confusion with /t/ and /d/.

3 /z/ is sometimes replaced by /dʒ/ or /dʒ/.

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4 /ʃ/ and /z/ are confused, /z/ (or sometimes /dʃ/ or /dz/) being used for both.

5 /t/ and /d/ are made with the extreme edge of the tongue-tipped curled back to a point just behind the alveolar ridge. These retroflex sounds colour the whole speech and should be avoided.

6 /p, t, k/ are often made with no aspiration even though the aspirated consonants occur in Hindi; this may cause confusion with /b, d, g/.

7 /q/ may occur in final position, but between vowels it is always replaced by /gg/.

8 /l/ is always clear in Hindi.

9 /w/ and /v/ are confused, an intermediate sound being used for both.

10 /r/ is often like the English sound in initial position, but elsewhere is a tongue-tip trill or tap.

11 Final consonants are often followed by /a/ when they should not be, causing confusion between e.g. bit and bitter.

Vowels

EQUIVALENTS

/i:, ɪ, ə, a, a:, u, u:, ʌ, ai, au/. /ai/ has no obvious equivalent in Hindi but causes no difficulty.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /e/ is replaced by either /æ/ or /ei/.

2 /a:, d, a:/ are confused.

3 /ɜ:/ is replaced by /a/+Hindi/r/.

4 /a/ in final position is often a shortened form of /a:/, and in all positions may be replaced by other vowels because of the spelling.

5 /ei/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel in Hindi rel 'train', and as this vowel is often quite short it may be confused with English /e/.

6 /au/ is replaced by the non-diphthongal vowel in Hindi log 'people'.

7 /ia, ea, ua/ are replaced by /i:Ar, eAr, u:Ar/.

The English long vowels are made much too short by Hindi speakers, especially in final position, and care must be taken to lengthen them considerably whenever they are fully long in English.

Rhythm in Hindi is more like that of French than English. There is much less variation of length and stress and no grouping of syllables into rhythm units as in English. The wrong syllable of a word is often stressed and great care must be taken with this and with rhythm in

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Hindi

general. There is also difficulty in identifying the important words on which tune shape partly depends.

Spanish

Consonants

EQUIVALENTS

/f, θ, s, h, p, t, k, g, tʃ, m, n, l, ʝ, w, r/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /v/ and /b/ are confused; sometimes /b/ replaces /v/ and sometimes the reverse, /b/ must be a complete stop in all positions, and /v/ a lip-teeth friction sound.

2 /θ/ and /d/ are confused; sometimes /d/ (a very dental variety) replaces /θ/ and sometimes the reverse. /d/ must be a complete alveolar stop in all positions, and /θ/ a dental friction sound.

3 /g/ is often replaced by a similar friction sound; this does not generally lead to misunderstanding but should be avoided; /g/ must be a complete stop in all positions.

4 /ʃ/ and /z/ are confused, /s/ usually being used for both, though only /z/ occurs before voiced consonants. /ʃ/ before other consonants is very weak and in Latin American Spanish is often replaced by /h/.

5 /ʒ/ occurs in Argentinian Spanish but not elsewhere and both /ʝ/ and /ɣ/ are then replaced by /s/.

6 /dʎ/ and /tʃ/ are confused, /tʃ/ being used for both.

7 In Latin American Spanish /h/ is usually acceptable for English. In Peninsular Spanish /h/ is replaced by a strong voiceless friction sound made between the back of the tongue and the soft palate. This does not cause confusion, but gives a disagreeable effect, and the mouth friction must be avoided.

8 /t/ is very dental in Spanish.

9 /q/ does not occur independently in Spanish and is replaced by /n/ or /QS/-
10 /!/: is always clear in Spanish.

11 /r/ in Spanish is a tongue-tip roll or tap.

12 /p, t, k/ are not aspirated in Spanish.

Consonant sequences in Spanish consist of an initial stop or /f/+r, l, w/
or /j/. Other initial consonants may be followed only by /j/ or /w/.

Many of the English initial sequences and almost all final sequences are
very difficult and need much practice.

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Appendix i: Difficulties

, Vowels-' j

^EQUIVALENTS/i:> e, a, o, u:, ei, ai, au, di/.

DIFFICULTIES

1 /I:/ and /i/ are confused, the replacement being a vowel usually more I
like /!/: than /i/.

2 /ae/, /a/ and /a:/ (if there is no letter r in the spelling) are all confused,
/a/ being used for all three. Where r occurs in the spelling, /a:/ is
replaced by the vowel+/r/ of Spanish carta 'map*.' |

3 /d/, /au/ and /a:/ (if there is no letter r in the spelling) are all confused, a
vowel intermediate between /d/ and /o:/ being u^cd for all three.

Where r occurs in the spelling jo:/ is replaced by the vowel+/r/
of Spanish porque 'because*.'

4 /u:/ and /u/ are confused, the replacement being a vowel usually f
more like /u:/ than /u/.

5 /3:/ is replaced by the vowel + /r/ of Spanish 5er 'be*.'

6 /a/ is usually replaced by some other vowel suggested by the spelling
(with / r/ added if the spelling has r). 1

7 /ia, ea, ua/ are replaced by the vowel -p /r/ of Spanish ir 'go*', ser 'be', duro
'hard*.'

8 There is no distinction between long and short vowels in Spanish,
and all vowels have the same length as the English short vowels.]

Special attention must be given to lengthening the long vowels.

Rhythm in Spanish is like that of French or Hindi. Stressed syllables occur,
but each syllable has approximately the same length and there is none of the
variation in length which results in English from the grouping of syllables into
rhythm units. Special attention must be given to this, to the use of /a/ in weak
syllables and to the weak forms of unstressed words, which do not occur in
Spanish.

M|ipCIIUIA A

Useful materials for
vurvner svuujd

A

Textbooks

0&CQq@q

•OOQOQOBritish cqunC||MOSCOW

Gimson, A. C. An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.

Edward Arnold, 1970

Jones, D. An Outline of English Phonetics. Cambridge University Press, 9th edn, 1975

Jones, D. English Pronouncing Dictionary. Dent, 14th edn, 1977
Kenyon, J. S. American Pronunciation. Wahr, 10th edn, 1958
MacCarthy, P. A. D. The Teaching of Pronunciation. Cambridge University Press, 1978

O'Connor, J. D. and Arnold, G. F. Intonation of Colloquial English.

Longman, 1973 (with recording)

Roach, P. English Phonetics and Phonology. Cambridge University Press, 1983

Practice books (with recordings)

Arnold, G. F. and Gimson, A. C. English Pronunciation Practice. University of London Press, 1973

Baker, A. Introducing English Pronunciation. Cambridge University Press, 1982

Baker, A. Ship or Sheep? Cambridge University Press, 2nd edn, 1981

Baker, A. Tree or Three? Cambridge University Press, 1981
Barnard, G. L. and McKay, P. S. Practice in Spoken English.

Macmillan, 1963

Gimson, A. C. A Practical Course of English Pronunciation. Edward Arnold, 1975

Hill, L. A. Drills and Tests in English Sounds. Longman, 1967
Mortimer, C. Elements of Pronunciation. Cambridge University Press, 1985

Trim, J. L. M. English Pronunciation Illustrated. Cambridge University Press, 1975

Appendix 2: Useful materials

Phonetic readers (with intonation marking and recordings)

O'Connor, J. D. Phonetic Drill Reader. Cambridge University Press, 1973

O'Connor, J. D. Advanced Phonetic Reader. Cambridge University Press, 1971

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Glossary

alveolar ridge: see palate.

aspiration: short period after the explosion of /p, t, k/ when air leaves the mouth without voice.

consonant: one of a set of sounds in which air from the lungs is seriously obstructed in the mouth, and which occur in similar positions in words.

diphthong: a smooth glide from one vowel position to another, the whole glide acting like one of the long, simple vowels.

Dive: the falling rising tune in intonation.

friction consonants: sounds made by narrowing the air passage until the air is interfered with and causes friction.

Glide-Down * the falling tune in intonation

Glide-Up: one of the two rising tunes.

gliding consonants: consonants with no stop or friction which have a rapid glide to a vowel.

glottal stop: air from the lungs is compressed below the closed vocal cords and then bursts out with an explosion.

glottis: the space between the vocal cords.

intonation: the patterns of pitch on word groups which give information about the speaker's feelings.

larynx: structure at the top of the wind-pipe from the lungs, which contains the vocal cords.

lateral consonant: a consonant (/l/) in which the tongue-tip blocks the centre of the mouth and air goes over the sides of the tongue.

lateral explosion: the release of /t/ or /d/, when followed by /l/, by lowering only the sides of the tongue, causing the compressed air to burst out over the sides.

nasal consonant: a consonant in which the mouth is blocked and all the air goes out through the nose.

nasal explosion: the release of a stop consonant by lowering the soft palate, causing the compressed air to burst out through the nose.

nasalized vowel: a vowel in which the soft palate is lowered and air goes out through both the mouth and the nose.

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Glossary

palate: the roof of the mouth, divided into the soft palate at the back, the hard palate in the middle, and the alveolar ridge, just behind the teeth. phoneme: a set of similar sounds which contrasts with other such sets to differentiate words.

phonemic transcription: the representation of each phoneme by a single symbol.

Received Pronunciation: that kind of pronunciation which is used by many educated speakers, particularly in south-east England. Sometimes called B.B.C. English.

rhythm unit: one stressed syllable which may have unstressed syllables before and/or after it.

stop consonants: consonants in which the air is completely blocked and therefore compressed and released with an explosion. stress: greater effort on a syllable or syllables in a word or longer utterance than on the other syllables. stress group: the stressed syllable and any syllable(s) which follow it in a rhythm unit.

strong consonant: a consonant in which air is pushed out by the lungs with considerable force. strong form: see weak form

syllabic consonant: normally a syllable contains a vowel; sometimes /n/ or /l/ replace the vowel they are then syllables (e.g. in *ritn*, *midi*). syllable: a unit consisting of one vowel or syllabic consonant which may be preceded and/or followed by a consonant or consonants.

Take-Off: the second rising tone in intonation, tongue: when the tongue is at rest, the back is under the soft palate, the front under the hard palate, and the blade under the alveolar ridge.

The tip is the part right at the front of the blade. vocal cords: bands of elastic tissue in the larynx which can vibrate, causing voice, can allow free passage of the air, for voiceless sounds, and can completely stop the air-flow, giving the glottal stop. voice: musical note generated by vibration of the vocal cords. Voiced sounds have this vibration (e.g. /m, l, a:/), voiceless sounds do not (e.g. /p, s, tj/).

vowel: one of a set of voiced sounds in which air leaves the mouth with no interference and which occur in similar positions in words. weak consonants: consonants in which air is pushed out by the lungs with little force.

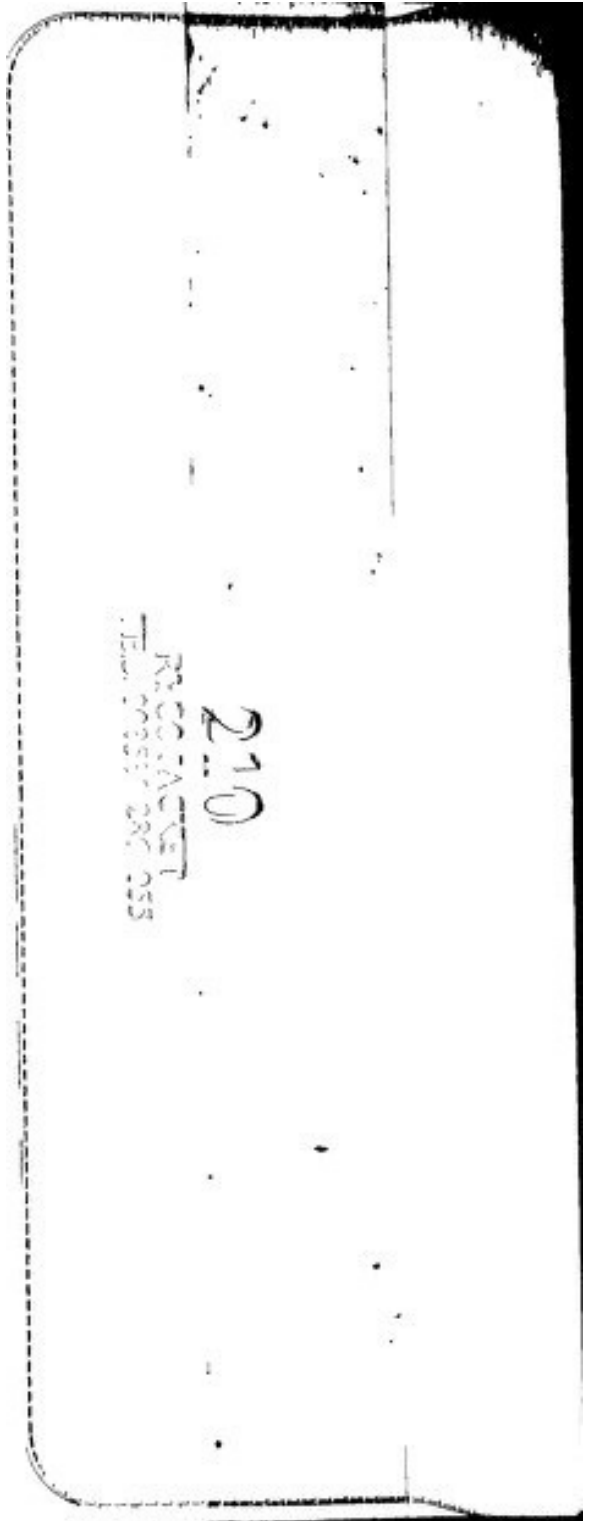
weak form: certain words are pronounced differently when they are not stressed. This unstressed pronunciation is the weak form, and the stressed pronunciation is the strong form.

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