Luciano Canepari & Marco Cerini (2016²)

Dutch & Afrikaans Pronunciation & Accents

Geo-social Applications of the Natural Phonetics & Tonetics Method

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12. Neutral Flemish-Dutch pronunciation

12.1. The *neutral pronunciation of Flemish Dutch* is rather similar to the international pronunciation, for it presents less marked peculiarities with respect to the Dutch spoken in the Netherlands.

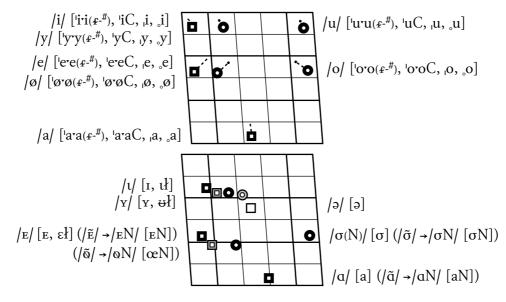
As we have already recalled, Dutch was introduced in Belgium as an official language only in recent times, precisely in 1898. Consequently, the local neutral pronunciation of Dutch has been prevented from developing considerable deviations from the inherited 'ideal' model.

To be true, one will see that also the *mediatic* pronunciation of Flemish Dutch is somewhat similar to the international pronunciation of Dutch ($cf \S 15.1$).

It goes without saying that whoever is seriously interested in acquiring a genuine Flemish pronunciation should pay attention to the subtle nuances explained hereby. Much less so, people studying Netherlandic Dutch, who theoretically could even ignore the international pronunciation at all, in spite of their great differences.

12.2. As fig 12.1.1 clearly shows, the main difference between Flemish Dutch and international Dutch is that 'long' vowels are truly longer than their 'short' counterparts, including when they are in syllables ending in |r| or other consonants. How-

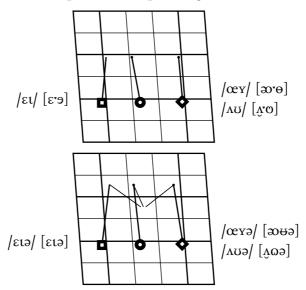
fig 14.1.1. Neutral Flemish accent: vowels.



ever 'long', yet these vowels are usually realized as monotimbric diphthongs, eg /a/ ['a'a], instead of international ['aa]. Such lengthening applies to diphthongs as well, including the phonemic and 'sequential' diphthongs (as we already know, the latter are those resulting from the juxtaposition of single vowel phonemes); no semi-chrone occurs, instead, when diphthongs are followed by schwa, thus forming a triphthong. In poststress /i, e, a, o, u, y, ø/ followed by /r/, either in checked or free syllable, one finds [VV]: leraar ['levefaaf].

A few examples: wie ['\betairi], fiets ['\text{fits}], vier ['\vert_iri\], wit ['\betait], stil ['\stil], zee ['\vert_ere], lepel ['\terep\], deel ['\derel], weer ['\betaer\], pen ['\pen], ver ['\vert_\text{e}], veld ['\vert_\text{e}\], bak ['\bak], kar ['\ka\vert_], bal ['\bal], ja ['\jara], maan ['\maran], tafellaken ['\taraf\text{e}\], lake(n)], maar ['\mara\vert_], vol ['\vert_\text{o}\], om ['(\vert_\text{o}\)om], dor ['\deret_\text{o}\], zo ['\vert_\text{o}\], boom ['\borom], oor ['(\vert_\text{o}\))oro\vert_], doe ['\duru], goed ['\hu\vert_], broer ['\b\vert_\text{vu}\vert_], nu ['\ny\vert_], duren ['\dy\vert_\text{o}\], uur ['\vert_\text{v}\vert_], beu ['\bor\vert_], beul ['\bor\vert_\text{o}\], deur ['\d\vert_\vert_\text{o}\vert_], put ['\p\vert_\text{o}\], kruk ['\k\vert_\vert_\text{v}\], stulp ['\st\vert_\text{p}], je [j\vert_\text{o}\], eerste ['\vert_\text{o}\))ere\vert_\text{stol}, kinderen ['\k\nd\vert_\text{o}\]), gemakkelijk [\ha\vert_\text{mak}\vert_\vert_\text{o}\].

fig 12.1.2. Neutral Flemish accent: phonemic diphthongs.



12.3. In Flemish Dutch, as in other native and mediatic accents, the three phonemic diphthongs have their second element slightly higher when preceding /ə/. Despite being rather narrow, these diphthongs are not monophthongs at all, ie '/ɛː, œː, ɔː/', as some phonologists (or precipitous phoneticians) have written (fig 12.1.2).

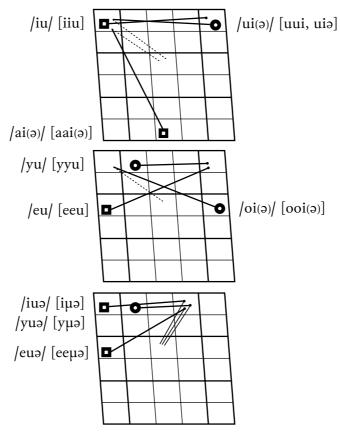
The first vocogram in fig 12.2 shows the six frequent vocalic sequences composed by one of the vowels from the first vocogram in fig 12.1.1 and either /i or /u, both in open and checked syllables. The second vocogram clearly shows that /u [μ] occurs between one of the three fronter vowels, /i, e, y/, and $/\partial$ [∂].

Let us see these examples: trein [ˈtɛɛˈən], ÿs [ˈ(ʔ)ɛˈəs], bakkeleien [ˌbakəˈlɛɪə(n)], lui [ˈlωʊ], huis [ˈhωʊəs], kruier [ˈkɛωਚəɛ], vrouw [ˈv̞ɛʌ̞ʊ], paus [ˈpʌ̞ʊs], blauwe [ˈblʌ̞ωə].

In addition: kieuw [ˈkiiu], nieuwe [ˈniµə], leeuw [ˈleeu], middeleeuws [ˈmɪdəˌleus],

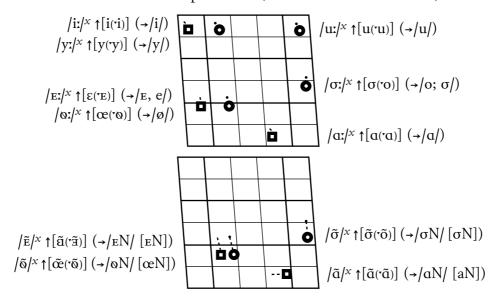
sneeuwen ['sneeµə(n)], saai ['saai], aait ['(?)aait], draaien ['draaiə(n)], fooi ['fooi], nooit ['nooit], dooien ['dooiə(n)], boei ['buui], koeien ['kuiə(n)], ruw ['ryyu], duwen ['dyµə(n)].

fig 12.2. Neutral Flemish accent: sequential diphthongs & triphthongs & tetraphthongs.



12.4. fig 12.3 shows the vowel xenophonemes required for a genuine pronunciation of loanwords, particularly the French ones, with [VV(C), V(C)] and $[\tilde{V}\tilde{V}(C), V(C)]$

fig 12.3. Neutral Flemish accent: xenophonemes (seven oral & four nasalized).



 $\[New V(C)\]$. However, loanwords are currently pronounced using normal Dutch phonemes, as shown in fig 12.1.1. At the phonemic level, the long-vowel xenophonemes are symbolized as $\[New]$, ie /ie, ee, oe, oe, ue, ye, oe/, so that they are easily recognizable, and as a practical expedient to recall that they generally lose the /e/ component, and merge with native phonemes.

Examples: team ['tirim, 'tim], pruderie [prydə'rii], crème ['kreem, 'krem], serre ['seerə, 'sefə], basket ['baraskət, 'bas-, -ket], baccarat [|baka'rara, -'raa] (/baka'rar, -ka-/), centrifuge [|sentrifyyzə], freule ['frærolə, 'frørolə], dejeuner [|dezæ'nere, |də-], controle [kon'trorolə, -olə, -orolə], loge ['lorozə, -ozə, -orozə], zone ['zoronə, 'zonə, 'zoronə], corps ['koror, 'kor, 'koror], boom (ingl.) ['burum, 'bum], atout [a'turu, a'tut] (/a/).

In addition: timbre ['tãrãbæə, 'tembæə], enfin [ã'fãrã, amˈfen], renaissance [æne-'sãrãsə, æəne-, -'sansə], restaurant [æesto'æãã, -'æanæ], pardon [paæ'dőrõ, -'dơn], parfum [paæ'færõ, -ˈfœm, -ˈfym].

As the examples above show, the typical Flemish choice for $|\sigma$:/ is $|\sigma$; σ /. In Greek loanwords containing graphemic eu, $|\sigma$ / is preferred over $|\exp$ /, which instead is an alternative (if not the only choice) for many speakers in the Netherlands.

Examples: euforisch [øˈfoːo̞ɛis], euthanasie [ˌøtanaˈziri] (/-ana-/), therapeut [ˌte̞ɛa-ˈpøːø̞ŧ] (/-a-/), Eustatius [øˈstarasiys, -tsi-].

There are also cases in which /e/ is preferred over /ə/, as in *consequent* [ˌkonse-ˈkβɛnt], *considerabel* [konˌsideˈtarabt], *reclame* [teˈktaramə], *record* [teˈkott] (for /rə-ˈkott/)... Generally, final graphemic -e (basically, in French loans) can be actually pronounced: *trance* [ˈttararas(ə), -ans(ə)], *tranche* [ˈttararas(ə), -anf(ə)].

12.5. As far as the *consonants* are concerned, let us look at fig 12.4. Then, fig 12.5 shows the orograms of all the articulations occurring in this accent.

Of course, there are three nasal phonemes, /m, n, n, n, with /n = C/(eg/n/assimilated to the point of articulation of the following consonant, thus producing a number of taxophones).

Examples: moe ['muru], komen ['koromə(n)], $om ['(2)\sigma m]$, nu ['nyry], wonen ['Boronə(n)], $zon ['z\sigma n]$, brengen ['beenə(n)], langzaam ['lanjzam] (lanj), ring ['enj]; $onfris [\sigma m]'fers]$, antiek [an'tik], rangeren [eap'zeree])], kantje ['kantje], handje ['hantje].

Regarding stops, one finds the labiodental [\mathfrak{p}] before $/\mathfrak{f}/$, [$\mathfrak{p}\mathfrak{f}$]; the denti-alveolar [\mathfrak{t}] at the end of a word in prepausal position; the prepalatal [\mathfrak{t}] before $/\mathfrak{j}/$, [$\mathfrak{t}\mathfrak{j}$]. Furthermore, there is a prevelar [\mathfrak{k}] next to $/\mathfrak{j}$, i, i, e, e, y, y, \emptyset /.

Finally, one regularly finds [g] as /g/ in loanwords, or as a taxophone of /k/ by assimilation. In Flemish pronunciation, the laryngeal stop (cf fig 3.4.B) is possible when emphasis is required before stressed vowels, especially at the beginning of a

fig 12.4. Neutral Flemish accent: consonants & contoids.

 [n] t d [ŧ] s z	n e	[t̄u]	[ŋ] [ţ]	[j] j	[k g] [x y] [h h]	η k (g) x [ɣ] h [ή]	[ʔ]
	1 [1]		[1]	J	. 1 1	1 - 12	

fig 12.5. Neutral Flemish accent: orograms of all contoids.

word, or to separate /a'V, ə'V/.

Examples: peren ['pe'efə(n)], appels ['(?)apls], ik heb [ək'hep], bet ['bet], ik ben [əg-'ben], opfrissen ['(?)oplfisə(n)], tweed ['tße'et], drie ['di'i], tjee ['tje'e], tik ['tɪk], kat ['kat], zakje ['zakjə], goal ['go'ol], zakdoek ['zagıduk], ach jee! [ax'je'e], op een ochtend [opən'(?)oxtənt], chaotisch [xa'(?)o'otis], naïef [na'(?)if] (/a/), beangst [bə'(?)aŋst].

ի հ

12.6. Flemish Dutch has the following constrictives: /f, v/ [f, v], /s, z/ [s, z]; let us note that /v, z/ at the beginning of a word are partially devoiced, [v, z], even in lexical composition. There are also /ʃ/ [ʃ], and [ʒ], the latter being a taxophone of /ʃ/ or a xenophoneme, /ʒ/. Furthermore, one has [i] in the following sequences: /tj, ntj/ [ti, nti]; and /x/ [x], whereas in international pronunciation one precisely has [x].

As a consequence of that, /x/ is articulated with a less prominent phone, the velar approximant [h], instead of international [x]; when /x/ is followed or preceded by /i, t, e/, a prevelar taxophone occurs, [h] (and the correspondent voiced taxophones, [h], are possible, too). Therefore, /x, x/ correspond to less 'harsh' articulations than in international pronunciation, and even less so than in most Netherlandic accents. Another possibility is /xC/ [xC], while /xC/ [xC] is preferred in the mediatic accent.

Among the other *approximants*, for graphemic w, one normally finds |v| [β], a velarized bilabial approximant (while, the international accent has a plain labial-

-dental, [v], as most Netherlandic accents have). Then, one has /j/[j], with a constrictive taxophone, [j], after /t/[t], as already seen.

Apart from [h, h; h, h], just explained above, there is /h/[h], whose voiced taxophone, [h], is far less common than in Flemish mediatic pronunciation and many Netherlandic accents; of [h] 3.4.E-F.

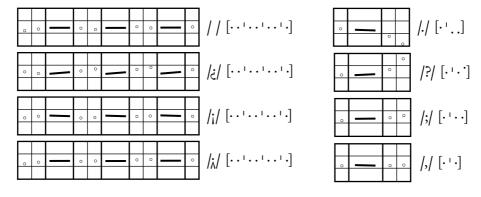
For the graphemic sequences -ns- and -rs-, /s/ is preferred over /z/ in Flanders: consul [ˈkonseł], consult [konˈselt], consumptie [konˈsympsi], transitief [ˌtɛansiˈtif], transistor [tɛanˈsɪstoɛ], cursief [kyɛˈsif], cursor [ˈkyɛsoɛ], cursus [ˈkyɛsys], conversatie [ˌkomyveɛˈsarasi]. In -tie, /si/ is more common than /tsi/: conventie [komˈvensi], politie [poˈliˈisi], natie [ˈnarasi]. In the following examples, [sj] occurs instead of [ʃ]: contradictio [ˌkontɛaˈdɪksjo] (/a/), contentieus [ˌkontenˈ(t)sjøːøs], officiaal [ˌofiˈsjarał], nationaal [ˌnatsjoˈnarał, ˌnas-]. Finally, for the digraph ch, in initial position, /k/ prevails over /x/: cholerisch [koˈle-eɛis], chloor [ˈkłooɛ], chrisma [ˈkɛɪsma].

12.7. The /r/ phoneme is a velarized alveolar tap in neutral Flemish Dutch: [4]. In prepausal position or before a voiceless consonant, a devoiced taxophone, [4], normally occurs. The only lateral phoneme, /l/, is articulated as [l] before front and front-central vowels, while a semi-velarized taxophone, [$\frac{1}{2}$], occurs before central or back vowels, as well as before consonants or pauses; in addition, /əl#/ is [$\frac{1}{2}$].

Examples: raam ['faram], straks ['stfaks], leraar ['lerefaaf] (/a/), dertig ['deftəx], les ['les], last ['last], allerlei [aləf'ler], veel ['verel].

The *intonation* of Flemish Dutch is shown in the tonograms of fig 12.6. Comparisons between different accents are useful.

fig 12.6. Neutral Flemish-Dutch intonation: protunes & tunes.



13. Mediatic Flemish-Dutch pronunciation

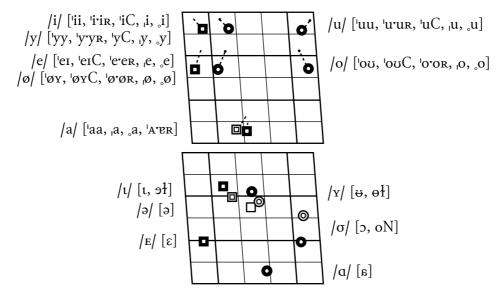
13.1. The *mediatic pronunciation of Flemish Dutch*, pretty much like its international counterpart, is rather similar to the international pronunciation, certainly much more than the Dutch spoken in the Netherlands, apart from some 'national' characteristics.

As it is known, Dutch was introduced in Flanders as an official language only in 1898. Frequently, it is also influenced by television networks from the Netherlands, too.

13.2. Stressed 'long' vowels are ['V·V] only if followed by / ϵ /, either in free or checked syllable, while /i, y, u/ in checked syllable are short; stressed /e, Ø, O/ are [eI, ØY, OU], but [eI, ØY, Oro] if followed by / ϵ /. For /e, O/ one has [eI, ON#]. In addition, / ϵ I, Y/ [ϵ I] have specific taxophones before [ϵ I]: [ϵ I]. For unstressed - ϵ I, [ϵ I] is the preferred choice. Poststress / ϵ I, ϵ I, O, u, y, Ø/, followed by / ϵ I/, are [VV]: leraar ['leterater].

Examples: wie ['&ii, '&ii], fiets ['fits], vier ['viriR], wit ['&tt, '&tt], stil ['stəl], zee ['zei], lepel ['leipl], deel ['deil], weer ['&eeR], pen ['pen], ver ['veR], veld ['velt], bak ['bek], kar ['keR], bal ['bel], ja ['jaa], maan ['maan], tafellaken ['taafəlakə(n)], maar ['maveR], vol ['vol], om ['Pom], dor ['dor], zo ['zou], boom ['boum], oor ['Poor], doe ['duu], goed ['xut], broer ['bruur], nu ['nyy], duren ['dyyrə(n)], uur ['Pyyr], beu ['bøy], beul

fig 15.1. Mediatic Flemish accent: vowels.

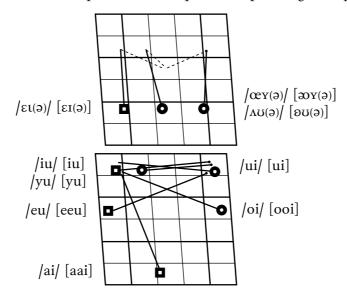


['bøxł], deur ['dørør], put ['pਚt], kruk ['krtk], stulp ['stołp], je [jə], eerste ['Pererstə], kinderen ['kındərə(n)], gemakkelijk [xəˈmskələk].

13.3. The three phonemic diphthongs are not lengthened, and their second elements do not change when followed by /9, forming triphthongs, with quite peculiar first elements –similar to those of neutral Flemish Dutch– for the last two: $/\epsilon\iota(9)$, $\varepsilon v(9)$. The first elements of these diphthongs –particularly tha last two of them– are quite peculiar and also similar to those of Flemish Dutch.

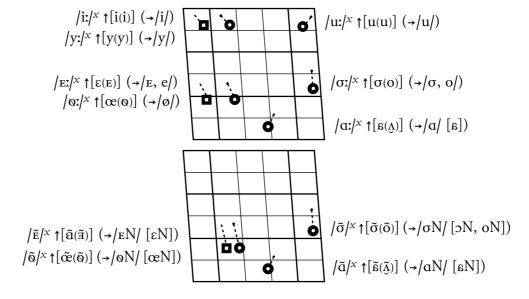
Examples: trein ['trein], ijs [?eis], bakkeleien [,bskə'teiə(n)], lui ['təy], huis ['həys], kruier ['krəyər], vrouw ['yrou], paus ['pous], blauwe ['blouə].

fig 13.2. Mediatic Flemish accent: phonemic & sequential diphthongs & triphthongs.



The second vocogram in fig 13.2 shows the six frequent diphthongal sequences composed of one of the vowels from the first vocogram in fig 13.1 and either /-i/ or /-u/, both

fig 13.3. Mediatic Flemish accent: xenophonemes (seven oral & four nasalized).



in free and checked syllables. When followed by |a| [a], |a| never changes to [μ].

Examples: kieuw [ˈkiu], nieuwe [ˈniuə], leeuw [ˈleeu], middeleeuws [ˈmɪdəleus], sneeuw-en [ˈsneeuə(n)], saai [ˈsaai], aait [ʔaaiŧ], draaien [ˈdRaaiə(n)], fooi [ˈfooi], nooit [ˈnooiŧ], dooien [ˈdooiə(n)], boei [ˈbui], koeien [ˈkuiə(n)], ruw [ˈRyu], duwen [ˈdyuə(n)].

13.4. fig 13.3 shows the vowel xenophonemes required for a genuine pronunciation of loanwords, particularly French ones, with [VV(C), V(C)] and [VV(C), V(C)]. However, loanwords are currently pronounced using normal Dutch phonemes, as shown in fig 13.1.

As we know, at the phonemic level, the long-vowel xenophonemes are symbolized as /V:/, ie /i:, E:, a:, o:, v:, y:, o:/, so as to be easily recognizable, and as a practical expedient to remind that they generally lose the /:/ component, and merge with native phonemes.

Examples: team ['tiim, 'tim], pruderie [pRydə'Rii], crème ['kREEM, 'kREM], serre ['SEERƏ, 'SERƏ], basket ['bbaskət, 'bbs-, -ket], baccarat [ˌbbka'RBA, -kb-, -'Raa] (/baka'raː, -ka-/), centrifuge [ˌsentriˈfyyzə], freule [ˈfrœolə, ˈfrøylə], dejeuner [ˌdezœˈneɪ, ˌdə-], controle [konˈtroolə, -olə, -oulə], loge [ˈloozə, -ozə, -ouzə], zone [ˈzoonə, ˈzonə, ˈzonə], corps [ˈkoor, ˈkor, ˈkoror], boom (ingl.) [ˈbuum, ˈbum], atout [ʔaˈtuu, ʔaˈtut] (/a/).

In addition: timbre [ˈtã̃bRə, ˈtɛmbRə], enfin [ʔãˈfã̃, ʔam̞ˈfɛn], renaissance [ˌRenɛ-ˈsã̃,sə, ˌRənɛ-, -ˈsanaə], restaurant [ˌRɛstoˈrãš, -ˈranŧ], pardon [parˈdõõ, -ˈdon, -ˈdon], parfum [parˈfœ̃, -ˈfœm, -ˈfæm].

As the examples above show, the typical mediatic Flemish choice for $|\sigma_i|$ is $|\sigma_i|$. In Greek loanwords containing graphemic eu, $|\phi|$ is preferred over $|\exp|$, which instead is an alternative (if not the only choice) for many speakers in the Netherlands.

Examples: euforisch [ʔøˈfo·oʀis], euthanasie [ˌʔøtanaˈzii] (/-ana-/), therapeut [ˌteʀa-ˈpøyŧ] (/-a-/), Eustatius [ʔøˈstaasiys, -tsi-].

One also finds cases in which /e/ is preferred over /ə/, as in *consequent* [ˌkonse-ˈkəɛnt], *considerabel* [konˌsideˈnaabt], *reclame* [neˈklaamə], *record* [neˈkərt] (for /rə-ˈkoɪ/)... Generally, final graphemic -e (basically, in French loans) can actually be pronounced: *trance* [ˈtras̃ʒs(ə), -sns(ə)], *tranche* [ˈtras̃ʒs(ə), -sns(ə)].

13.5. As far as the *consonants* are concerned, let us look at fig 13.4. Then, fig 13.5 shows the orograms of all articulations occurring in this accent.

Of course, there are three nasal phonemes, /m, n, n, n, with $/n \equiv C/$ (ie /n/ assimilates to the point of articulation of the following consonant, thus producing a number of taxophones).

Examples: moe ['muu], komen ['koumə(n)], om ['om], nu ['nyy], wonen ['vounə(n)], zon ['zon], brengen ['brɛŋə(n)], langzaam ['lɛŋzam] (/am/), ring ['kuŋ]; onfris [ʔomˈfrus], antiek [ʔɛnˈtiɛ], rangeren [rɛn̞ˈʒe·erə(n)], kantje [ˈkɛn̩tjə], handje [ˈhɛn̞tjə].

Finally, [g] occurs regularly as /g/ in loanwords, or as a taxophone of /k/ by assi-

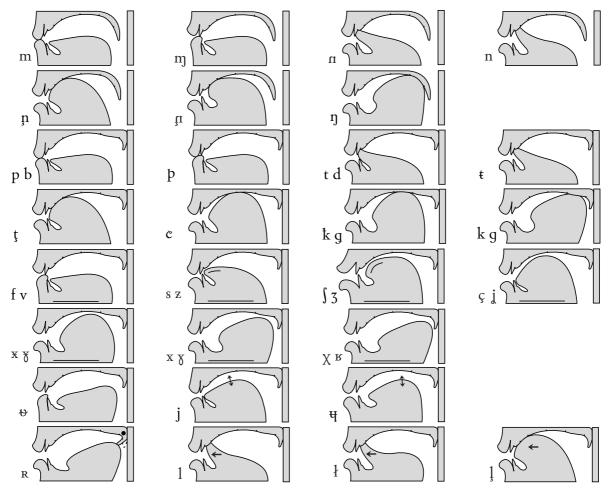
milation. In mediatic Flemish pronunciation, the laryngeal stop ([?], cf fig 3.4.B) is current especially when emphasis is required before a vowel at the beginning of a word, or a stressed vowel, or to separate /a'V, ə'V/.

Examples: peren ['pe'erə(n)], appels ['Papłs], ik heb [ək'hɛp], bet ['bɛt], ik ben [Pəg-'bɛn], opfrissen ['Popˌfrɪsə(n)], tweed ['təeɪt], drie ['drii], tjee ['t̞eɪ], tik ['tɪc], kat ['kst], zakje ['z̞skjə], goal ['goʊł], zakdoek [ˈz̞sgˌduk], ach jee! [Paxˈjeɪ], op een ochtend [Pəpən'Pəxtənt], chaotisch [xa'Po'otis], naïef [na'Pif] (/a/), beangst [bə'Paŋst].

fig 13.4. Mediatic Flemish accent: consonants & contoids.

m p b	[m] [þ]	[n] n t d [ŧ]	[ů]	[n] [ţ]	[c]	η [kg] k(g) [x x] x [y]		[3]
	fv	S Z		$\int (3)$	[ç j]	$[x \ x] \ x \ [x]$	X[R]	
	Ð				j [ų]			h [fi]
		[1]	ł	[1]	•		R	

fig 13.5. Mediatic Flemish accent: orograms of all contoids.



13.6. Flemish Dutch has the following constrictives: f, v, f, v, f, z, z, z, let us note that f, z, at the beginning of a word are partially devoiced, f, f, even in lexical composition. There are also f, and f, the latter being a taxophone of f.

or a xenophoneme, /ʒ/. We encounter [j] in the following sequences: /tj, ntj/ [ţj, ntj]. Furthermore, we have / χ / [χ] (with / χ C/ [κ C]) and / χ / [χ], as in international pronunciation. When / χ / is followed & preceded by /i, ι , e/, a palatal taxophone occurs, [ç] (and the correspondent voiced taxophones, [j, χ], are possible, too, by assimilation. Finally, prevelar taxophones [χ , χ] are possible, as well, before front(-central) vocoids or [j]).

Then, one has /j/[j], with a constrictive taxophone, [j], after /(n)t/[(n)t], as we have seen. Note that [j, t] typically feature a slight but perceptible movement that is indicated by their double arrow.

In addition, /h/ [h], has the voiced taxophone [h], especially between voiced sounds; cf fig 3.4.E-F.

Examples: fruit ['fræyt], vinden ['yındə(n)], boven ['bouvə(n)], afbrengen ['Pev-|brengen], sussen ['sesə(n)], zon ['zon], lezen ['ferzə(n)], sjouwen ['ʃəvə(n)], jus ['zyy], tjalk ['tjałk], schal ['sxał], geschiel [xəˈsxił], dag ['dax], goed ['xut], morgen ['mərxə(n)], aanslagbiljet ['Paansłaxbiljet, -kb-], lachbui ['faxıbəx, -kb-], dagdief ['daxıdif, -kd-], wegbrengen ['bexibrengen], -kb-], geen ['xein], bevlieging [bəvˈłiiçin], wat ['bət], antwoord ['Pantiboort], gewoon [xəˈboun], wiel ['bil, 'til], hand ['hant].

For the graphemic sequences -ns- and -rs-, /s/ is preferred over /z/ in Flanders: consul [ˈkonsəł], consult [konˈsəlŧ], consumptie [konˈsəmpsi], transitief [ˌtrɛnsi'tif], transistor [trɛnˈsɪstər], cursief [kərˈsif], cursor [ˈkərsər], cursus [ˈkərsəs], conversatie [ˌkom-verˈsaasi].

In -tie, /si/ is more common than /tsi/: conventie [komˈvɛnsi], politie [poˈliisi], natie [ˈnaasi]. In the following examples, [sj] occurs instead of [ʃ]: contradictio [ˌkontradicksjo] (/ra/), contentieus [ˌkontɛnˈ(t)sjøys], officiaal [ˌʔɔfiˈsjaał], nationaal [ˌnst-sjoˈnaˈał, ˌnss-] (/nɑ/, also /na/ in the Netherlands). Finally, for the digraph ch, in word-initial position, /k/ prevails over /x/: cholerisch [koˈleˈeris], chloor [ˈkloʻor], chrisma [ˈkrɪsma].

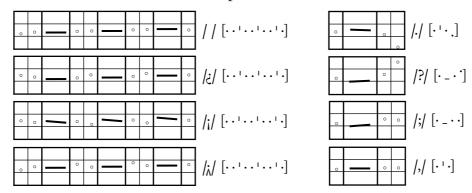
13.7. The /r/ phoneme is a uvular trill in mediatic Flemish Dutch: [R] (but a uvular constrictive, [B], or a velarized alveolar tap, [A], can also be heard, more or less frequently), including a uvular tap [R].

The only lateral phoneme, /l/, is generally articulated as a semi-velarized alveolar bilateral, $[lat{l}]$, in every position; but a plain alveolar one can be used before front and front-central vowels (although we do not show it); in addition, $/ \ni l^{\#} /$ is $[lat{l}]$.

Examples: raam ['Raam], straks ['straks], leraar ['leveraer] (/a/), dertig ['dertəx], les ['les], last ['lest], allerlei ['Palar'lei], veel ['veel].

The *intonation* of mediatic Flemish Dutch is shown in the tonograms of fig 13.6. In comparison with international intonation, a slightly rising movement in the protune can be observed. Of course, other comparisons are useful, too.

fig 13.6. Mediatic Flemish-Dutch intonation: protunes & tunes.



14. Neutral Netherlandic-Dutch pronunciation

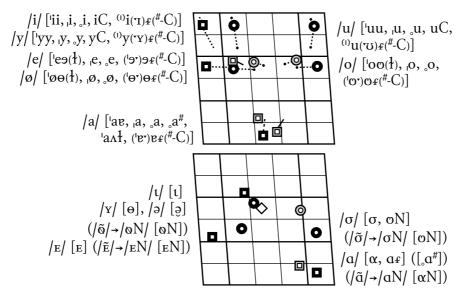
14.1. In this chapter, the neutral pronunciation of Netherlandic Dutch is presented, that is to say the Dutch language as spoken in the Netherlands (it should be noted that the frequently used place name 'Holland' actually refers only to two provinces in the mid-west of the Netherlands: South Holland and North Holland).

The vocograms given in fig 14.1.1 (which, as usual, must be compared with those of the international pronunciation) show the monophthongs. Those in the first vocogram are often realized as monotimbric diphthongs, with important taxophones: high vowels /i, y, u/ are [ii, yy, uu] in stressed unchecked syllables, but are short, [i, y, u], in checked % unstressed syllable, and [i¹ɪ, y'ႃy, u'u] (opening narrow diphthongs) in checked syllables ending in /r/ [4] (possibly followed by another consonant).

The group of non-high vowels, /e, \emptyset , o; a/, is realized as centering diphthongs in stressed syllables, [e9, \emptyset 0, o0; av], with centralized taxophones in stressed syllables ending in /r/ [x]: [99, Θ 0, ovo; vv]; in unstressed syllables, one finds [e, \emptyset , o; a]; furthermore, there is /al/ ['ant, _at]. Poststress /i, e, a, o, u, y, \emptyset /, followed by /r/ [x], in free or checked syllable, are [VV]: leraar ['le94vvx].

The second vocogram provides the monophthongs that are always short, even in stressed syllables: $|\iota|$ [ι], $|\nu|$ [ε], $|\sigma|$ [ε] (with the taxophone [ε] + $|\sigma|$, $|\sigma|$ [ε] (with the taxophone [ε] + $|\sigma|$, both in checked and free syllables) and $|\sigma|$ [ε] (half-

fig 14.1.1. Neutral Netherlandic accent: vowels.



-rounded, cfr fig 14.3). Again, the second vocogram of fig 14.1.1 presents the usual realizations of the four nasalized xenophonemes, $/\tilde{E}$, $\tilde{\alpha}$, $\tilde{\sigma}$, $\tilde{\omega}$ /, which normally pass to [VN] sequences. The vowels in questions are the three 'normal' phonemes /E/[E], $/\alpha/[\alpha]$, $/\sigma/[\varpi]$, to which $[\varpi]$ is added.

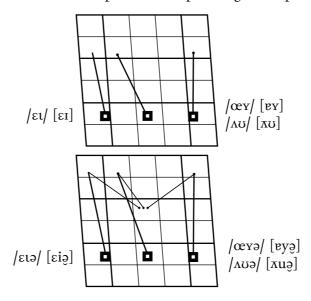
Their nasalized realizations, more typical of an intentionally 'committed' pronunciation, are given in the second vocogram of fig 14.4.1; [\emptyset] precisely comes from [$\widetilde{\emptyset}(\widetilde{\Theta})$]. As far as final -a in unstressed syllables is concerned, one finds oscillation between [a] (/a/) and [α] (/ α /), depending on the words in question and the speakers: it was decided to introduce [a] first, being the most frequent realization.

Examples: wie ['vii], fiets ['fits], vier ['vits], dik ['dtk], stil ['sttl], zee ['zee], deel ['deel], weer ['vees], veld ['velt], ver ['ves], dat ['dαt], kar ['kαs], bal ['bαt], ja ['jae], tafellaken ['taefəlakə(n)], maar ['meres], taal ['tanl], vol ['vol], om ['Pom], dor ['dσs], zo ['zoo], boom ['boom], oor ['Poros], doe ['duu], goet ['χut], broer ['bsuros], nu ['nyy], duren ['dyysə(n)], uur ['Pyyss], beu ['bøθ], beul ['bøθl], deur ['dθrθs], put ['pθt], kruk ['ksθk], stulp ['stθlp], je [jə], eerste ['Peresstə], kinderen ['kundəsə(n)], gemakkelijk [χəˈmαkələk].

14.2. fig 14.1.2 shows the three phonemic diphthongs, whose first elements are not lengthened even in stressed syllables: $/\epsilon\iota$, \exp , $\hbar\upsilon$ / $[\epsilon\iota$, \exp , $\hbar\upsilon$] (first vocogram), with a higher second element when followed by $/\flat$ / $[\flat]$ (second vocogram): $/\epsilon\iota\flat$, $\exp\flat$, $\hbar\upsilon$ / $[\epsilon\iota\flat$).

Examples: trein ['t̄εɪn], ijs [ˈʔɛɪs], bakkeleien [ˌbαkə̞ˈlɛiə̞(n)], lui [ˈt̄ex], huis [ˈhexs], kruier [ˈk̄εvə̞ϵ], vrouw [ˈȳεκυ], paus [ˈpκυs], blauwe [ˈbt̄κυə̞].

fig 14.1.2. Neutral Netherlandic accent: phonemic diphthongs (& triphthongs).



The first two vocograms of fig 14.2.1 illustrate other six supplementary diphthongs (and triphthongs) formed by a sequence of one of the following: /i, e, a, o, u, y/ + /i/ or /u/; the third vocogram shows the less frequent variants, which are a bit more complex: [e9u, avi, ovi].

In the first and second vocograms of fig 14.2.2, one can see the triphthongs resulting

fig 14.2.1. Neutral Netherlandic accent: sequential diphthongs (with variants).

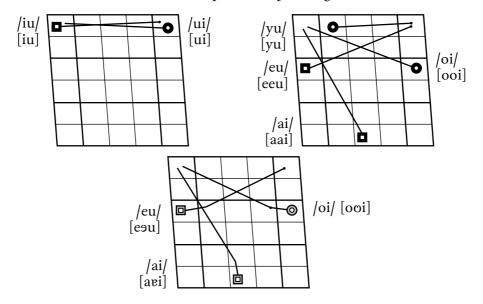
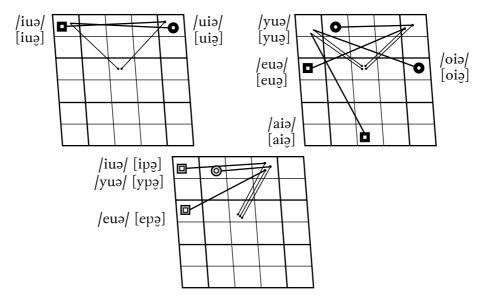
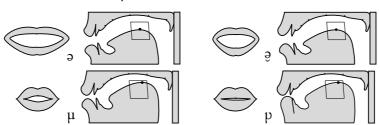


fig 14.2.2. Neutral Netherlandic accent: sequential triphthongs (with variants).



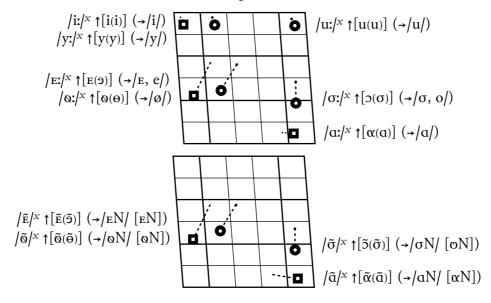
by adding /9/[9]: /iu(9), eu(9), ai(9), oi(9), ui(9), ui(9), ui(9); eeu, eu9; aai, ai9; ooi, oi9; yu(9)]. Furthermore, for /iu, eu, yu/, in addition to [VuV], one often finds [VpV] (as shown in the third vocogram, with the front-central labiodentalised vocoid [p], that is to say a vocoid with the lips in the same position as for [v], of fig 14.3).

fig 14.3. Neutral Netherlandic: a comparison between 'normal' $[\mathfrak{d}, \mu]$ and the half-rounded taxophone, $[\mathfrak{g}]$, and the labialized one, $[\mathfrak{p}]$.



Examples: kieuw ['kiu], nieuwe ['niuə, 'nipə], leeuw ['leeu, 'leəu], middeleeuws ['mu-dɨ̞eus], sneeuwen ['ṣneuə(n), 'ṣnepə(n)], saai ['ṣaai, 'ṣaɐi], aait ['ʔaaiṭ, 'ʔaɐiʈ], draaien ['d̞aaiə(n)], fooi ['fooi, 'fooi], nooit ['nooiṭ, 'nooiṭ], dooien ['doiə(n)], boei ['bui], koeien ['kuiə(n)], ruw ['̞գyu], duwen ['dyuə(n), 'dypə(n)].

fig 14.4.1. Neutral Netherlandic accent: xenophonemes.



14.3. fig 14.4.1 shows the vowel xenophonemes, with $[{}^tVV(C), {}_\circ V(C)]$ and $[{}^t\tilde{V}\tilde{V}(C), {}_\circ\tilde{V}(C)]$. In the first vocogram, one can see the seven oral vowels (including their merging with the usual phonemes presented in the first vocogram of fig 14.1.1); in the second one, we have the four nasalized vowels (with their respective simplification, as shown in the second vocogram of fig 14.1.1).

The stressed vowels at the beginning of a word are normally preceded by [?]; the same is true for non-initial stressed vowels if preceded by |a, a| and for vowels in half-stressed syllables after a pause.

The phonemic status of [?] is problematic to assess. From one point of view, the laryngeal stop is not indispensable to distinguish minimal pairs. However, in many parts of the Dutch-speaking world, [?] is perceived as 'necessary' for a truly genuine pronunciation. In theory, one might systematically omit it, but native speakers could regard such omission as a sloppy and inaccurate choice.

In addition: timbre ['tẽ϶̄b϶϶, 'teəmb϶϶, 'temb϶϶], enfin [α̈ˈfẽ϶, αm̞ˈfen], renaissance [ˌεeneˈṣα̃α϶, ˌε϶-, -ˈsαn϶], restaurant [ˌεestoˈ̞εα̃α, -ˈ̞εαnʈ], pardon [pα̞-td϶̃α, -ˈdon], parfum [pα̞-tfͽ̃θ, -ˈføm, -ˈføm].

In words of Greek origin with eu, both /ø/ and /œy/ may occur: euforisch [ø'foroeis, ey-], euthanasie [ˌʔøtanaˈʒii, ˌʔey-] (/-ana-/), therapeut [ˌte-eaˈpøof, -eyf] (/-a-/), Eus-

tatius [eyˈstaatsiys, -aasi-, ø-]. Furthermore, there is /ə/ in such cases as the following: consequent [ˌkonsəˈkuent̪], considerabel [konsidəˈfaebt̩], reclame [fəˈklaemə], record [fəˈkloof, -of].

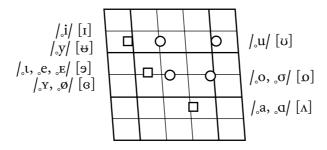
It is customary not to pronounce word-final -e after constrictive phones: trance ['teαns], tranche ['teαns]] (there is oscillation in other words).

14.4. The vocogram in fig 14.4.2 shows the reductions (and a few cases of neutralization) affecting the twelve main vowel phonemes (ie those given in the first two vocograms of fig 14.1.1), in free unstressed syllable.

These seven vocoids, /i/ [1], /y/ [θ], /u/ [υ], /t, e, E/ [θ], /Y, Ø/ [θ], /a, a/ [Λ] and /o, σ / [σ] can be the highest degree of timber reduction, in such situation, without ever switching to / θ / [θ] in neutral pronunciation (contrary to mediatic pronunciation). Of course, no diphthongs, either phonemic or phonetic (ie 'sequential'), nor vowels in checked syllables, undergo such a reduction.

Examples: minuut [mi'nyt, mi-], muziek [my'zik, mu-, -z-], poelier [pu'litif, pu-], spinnijdig [spu'neidək, spe-], summier [su'mitif, su-], metaal [mu'tant, me-], reuzin [fu'zin, fu-, -z-], lokaal [to'kant, to-], herrijzen [he'feizə(n), he-, -z-], pommade [pu'maudə, po-], banaan [ba'naun, bn-], kassier [ku'sitif, -z-], benzine [ben'ziinə, be-, -z-], kanton [kun'ton, kn-], kwartier [kuuf'titif], portier [pu'litif, po-].

fig 14.4.2. Neutral Netherlandic accent: possible vowel reductions in unstressed syllables.



14.5. As far as the *consonants* are concerned, fig 14.5 shows all the C occurring in this accent; while fig 14.6 provides their orograms; for [h, h], of fig 3.4.E-F.

To the three *nasal* phonemes, a number of taxophones must be added for $/n \equiv C/$ (homorganic /n/), like the post-alveopalatal $[\mathfrak{p}]$ before $[\mathfrak{g}]$; the pre-palatal $[\mathfrak{p}]$ before $[\mathfrak{g}]$; the palatal $[\mathfrak{p}]$ before $[\mathfrak{g}]$; and the uvular $[\mathfrak{p}]$ before $[\mathfrak{g}]$. One also finds $/x\mathbb{G}/$, while the Netherlandic mediatic accent prefers $/x\mathbb{G}/$.

Examples: moe ['muu], komen ['koomə(n)], om ['Pom], nu ['nyy], wonen ['voonə(n)], zon ['zon], brengen ['b̄εεηə(n)], langzaam ['d̄αηzam] (/-am/), ring ['ειη]; onfris [om'f̄ειş], onwel [om'vef], antiek [αn'tik], rangeren [ϵαμ'zeəϵə(n)], kantje ['kαμţçə], handje ['hαμţçə], bronchitis [b̄ϵον'κiitə̞s].

As far as *stops* are concerned, one can note [p] before /f/ [pf]; an alveolar [t] at the end of a word in pre-pausal position and in the sequence /ts/ [ts]; prepalatals [t, d] before [c, j]; a palatal [c] before [c]; a prevelar [k] before front(-central) vocoids. In addition, there is [?], not only for emphasis before initial stressed vowels within a sen-

m p b	[m] [b] f	t d	n [†] \$ z,		[ţ d]	[p] [c] [ç j]	[t]	ŋ k (g) [x]		[3]
	ν υ		1	£ [1]	[1]	j	[#-	[x]	k [k]	h [fi]

fig 14.5. Neutral Netherlandic accent: consonants & contoids.

tence, but also before a stressed vowel preceded by /a, $\ni/$ in a word and half-stressed post-pausal vowels.

Examples: peren [ˈpe϶϶϶(n)], appels [ˈʔαpt̞s], ik heb [əkˈhep], bet [ˈbet̞], ik ben [əg-ˈben], opfrissen [ˈʔσpt̞fειsə(n)], tweed [ˈtue϶t̞], drie [ˈdɹei], tjee [ˈt̞ce϶], tik [ˈtɪk], zakje [ˈʒαc-çə̞], kit [ˈkɪt̞], kat [ˈkαt̞], goal [ˈgoʊt̞], zakdoek [ˈʒαgˌduk], ach jee! [ˌʔακ̞ˈçe϶], op een ochtend [ˌʔσpənˈʔσκtənt̞], chaotisch [κaˈʔoʊtis̞], naïef [naˈʔif] (/a/), beangst [bəˈʔαŋs̞t].

14.6. For the *constrictives*, let us observe that /v/ is [v], a partially devoiced labial-dental semi-constrictive in all occurrences, but [vb, vd]; /s, z/ are alveolar, [s, z] (and [z], by assimilation); $/\sqrt{/}$ and the xenophoneme /z/ feature no labial protrusion, [x, z]; one also has: prepalatals [x, z] before [x, z]; palatals [x, z] in [x, z] (uvular constrictive) with the correspondent voiced phones resulting by assimilation: [x, z].

Before front or front-central vowels, a *velar* constrictive trill, [x] or a constrictive, [x], may occur. For $/\chi$, x/, the Netherlandic accent uses the 'strongest' (and generally the least 'pleasant') articulations among most European languages.

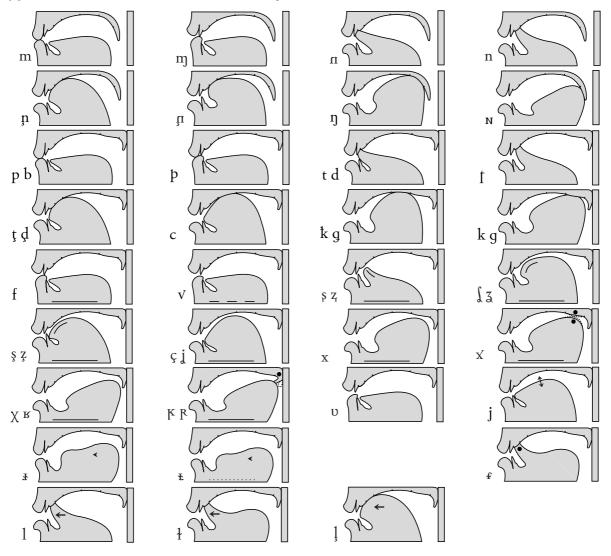
Examples: fruit [ˈf̄̄̄̄ɐvt], vinden [ˈvində(n)], boven [ˈboovə(n)], afbrengen [ˈʔαv-ˌb̄̄̄ɛŋə(n)], sussen [ˈs̄oṣə(n)], zon [ˈz̄on], lezen [ˈleəzə(n)], misdrijf [ˈmuzˌd̄̄ɛɪf], sjouwen [ˈʃ̄xuə(n)], jus [ˈz̄yy], tjalk [ˈt̄̄cαtk], schal [ˈs̄καt], dag [ˈdακ], aanslagbiljet [ˈʔaɐnˌstακ-bilˌiet, -kb-], wiegje [ˈuiix̄çə], goed [ˈxut], morgen [ˈmō̄xyə(n)], wegbrengen [ˈueκˌb̄̄ɛ-ŋə(n), -k-], geen [ˈxeən], wat [ˈuat], antwoord [ʔαntˌuoō̄t], gewoon [χə̞ˈuoōn], wiel [ˈuit], hand [ˈhαnt].

For the *approximants*, one finds $|\upsilon|$ [υ]; then, |j| [j], with the correspondent constrictive taxophone [j, ς] in the following sequences: |nj|, |nt|, |nt|

The phoneme |t| should be realized as $[\mathfrak{x}]$ in every position, in neutral Netherlandic pronunciation; nowadays, however, mediatic % regional $[\mathfrak{B}]$ (a uvular constrictive, in every position) or $[\mathfrak{x},\mathfrak{x}]$ (prevelar uvularized approximant or semi-approximant, whose most accurate representation would be $[\![\mathfrak{x},\mathfrak{x}]\!]$, in post-nuclear position) are largely prevailing, and it is no longer possible to exclude them neutral pronunciation.

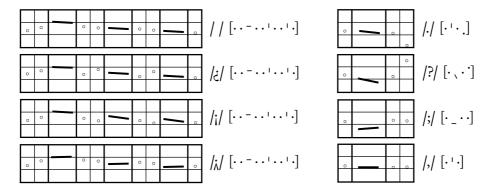
The /l/ phoneme is realized as [l] before front or front-central vowels, but [ł] before back or back-central vowels, as well as before consonants and pauses; [ṭ] also occurs.

fig 14.6. Neutral Netherlandic accent: orograms of all contoids.



14.7. It should be noted that (in spite of being a Germanic language) Dutch has no 'aspirated' C, but there is complete voice assimilation for all obstruents (though approximants remain voiced even in contact with voiceless consonants. Finally, let us observe the following sequences: /ts/ [ts], which never merges into something like [ts]; /vɪ/ [vɪ], irrespective of the graphemic rendering wr; and /sx, sxɪ/ [sk, skɪ] sch, schr.

fig 14.7. Neutral Netherlandic-Dutch intonation: protunes & tunes.

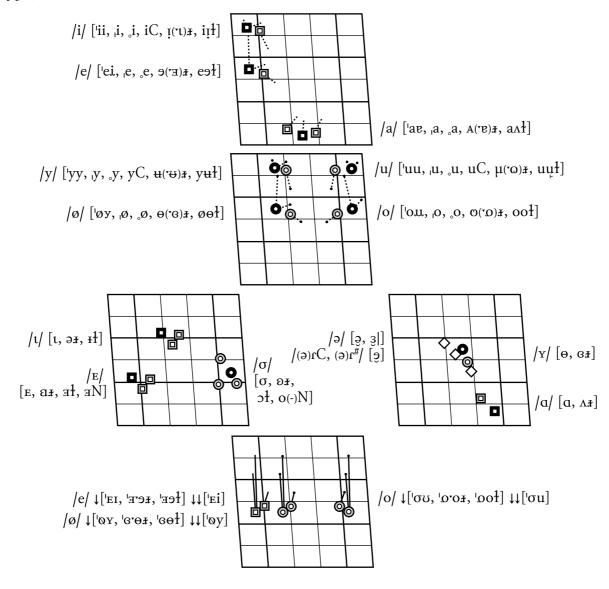


The *intonation* of Netherlandic Dutch is clearly presented in the tonograms of fig 14.7, which should be carefully compared with the tonograms of further accents, starting from those of the international pronunciation.

15. Mediatic Netherlandic-Dutch pronunciation

15.1. The mediatic accent of Netherlandic Dutch is now commonly heard on radio and TV broadcastings all over the Netherlands, as well as in movies and also among native speakers who cannot be regarded as using either the neutral accent or a regional one. This mediatic accent can be found even in the audio recordings

fig 15.1.1. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: vowels.



attached to language courses. For many people, the mediatic accent is a sort of neutral pronunciation; and in fact, nowadays it is increasingly more widespread in professional environments than the 'neutral' proper.

The vocograms of fig 15.1.1 show the monophthongs and should be compared with those provided in other chapters, as usual, in order to understand the similarities and differences. The monophthongs in the first two vocograms are often realized as narrow monotimbric or ditimbric diphthongs, with important taxophones. The high vowels, /i, y, u/, are realized as [ii, yy, uu] in stressed free syllables, but as short [i, y, u] in checked % unstressed syllables. As a rule, [rux, uvx, μv x] occur in checked syllables ending in /r/ or /rC/; and [iɪ, yu, uu] when followed by [t].

In stressed syllables, the non-high vowels, /e, ø, o/, are realized as closing diphthongs, [ei, øy, ou], with their second elements being indicated by special symbols (almost [ei, øy, ou]; see the first two vocograms of fig 15.1.1).

Otherwise, /e, ø, o/ are realized as centering diphthongs, [9 π , Θ 6, Θ 0] (and /a/ [a ν]), in stressed syllables ending in /r/ [π], a prevelar uvularized approximant (more rigorously, [π]), or even a semi-approximant [π] ([π]). In syllables ending in [π], /e, ø, o; a/ become [e9, ø π , oo; a π]; whereas, in unstressed syllables, they are realized [e, ø, o; a].

Poststress /i, e, a, o, u, y, ø/, followed by /r/ [##, #C, BV], are [VV]: leraar [leibar].

15.2. The third and fourth vocograms of fig 15.1.1 provide the monophthongs that are always short, even in stressed syllables, with various taxophones: $|\iota|$ [ι , $\vartheta *$, $\vartheta *$], $|\Psi|$ [Θ , $\Theta *$], $|\Psi|$ [Θ , $\Theta *$], $|\Psi|$ [Θ , $|\Psi|$], $|\Psi|$ [Θ , $|\Psi|$], $|\Psi|$ [$|\Psi|$], $|\Psi|$], $|\Psi|$ [$|\Psi|$], a half-rounded vocoid — which is lower and backer, [$|\Psi|$], at the end of a word and before pauses.

For /(3)rC, (3)r#/, [3] or [4] occurs (the latter is uvularized and intense or –officially–'syllabic'; again, [4] or [4] would be more precise, but not really necessary). As for unstressed -a at the end of a word, the most common realization is /a/ [a].

The fifth vocogram in fig 15.1.1 shows more marked variants of /e, ø, o/: \[ei, θε, σε, σε, σε, σε, σε], \[i] [εi, ων, σα].

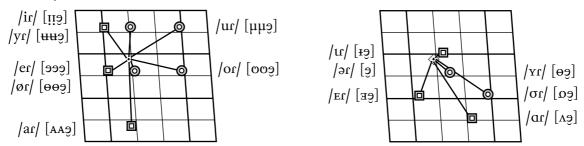
Examples: wie ['vii, 'v-], fiets ['fiṭs], vier ['fṭrtā, 'v-], kasjmir ['kaʃmɪtā], viel ['fiṭł, 'v-], dik ['dtk], stil ['sttł], wirwar ['və̄t, vʌā, 'yə̄t, y-], zee ['sei, 'z-, t-ei, tt-ei], weer ['və-āt, 'y-, t-e-āt], deel ['deel, t-e-al], veld ['felt, 'v-], ren ['kea, 'kea, 'kea, 'kea, 'kea], ver ['faā, 'v-], dat ['dat], kar ['kʌā], bal ['bal], ja ['jaɐ], tafellaken ['taɐfəˌłakʒ, -ə̞n, -ə̞n], maar ['mavēt], taal ['taʌl], vol ['fəl, 'v-], om ['ʔom, trom], dor ['dəā], zo ['sou, 'z-, t-ou, tt-ou], boom ['boum, trou-, tt'bou-, t-oūm, tt-oūm], oor ['ʔoroa, troo-āt], doe ['duu], goet ['yut], broer ['bʁμroāt], veevoer ['feifμōt, 'veiv-, t-ei, tt-ei], poel ['puul].

And: nu ['ayy], duren ['dyyk3, -9a, -9a], uur ['au-ai], spreekuur ['spkeikuai, \le -ei, \le -ei], ridicul [kidi'kyuł], beu ['bøy, \le -oy], deur ['do-oa, \le -o-ai], beul ['bøoł, \le -ool], put ['pot], kruk ['kkok], spurt ['spoat], stulp ['stolp], je [jo], eerste ['o-aast3], kinderen ['kundous, -9a, -9a], gemakkelijk [xo-makolos].

In fig 15.1.2, the vocalization of /(ə)r/ combined with the various vowels is provided: [ə]. Examples for /Vr, Cər/ [ə]: vier [ˈfiiə, ˈv-], kasjmir [ˈkoʃmiə], wirwar [ˈuə-uə, ˈv-ə, ver [ˈdə-, ˈv-], kar [ˈkaə], maar [ˈdoə], dor [ˈdoə],

oor ['σσθ], broer ['bκμμθ], veevoer ['feifμθ, 'veiv-], uur ['ʔθθθ], spreekuur ['spκeikθθ], deur ['dθθθ], spurt ['spθθf], stulp ['stθfp], verbruiker [feˈbκaθkθ, v-], polder ['pɔfdθ].

fig 15.1.2. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: vocoidal realization of /(3)r/[3], either after C or different V elements. Also phonemic and phonetic diphthongs can combine with /(3)r/, as [-i3; -y3; -u3; -y3; -y3].



15.3. fig 15.1.3 shows the three phonemic diphthongs, whose first elements are never lengthened, even in stressed syllables: $|\epsilon\iota$, \exp , $\Delta\upsilon/[\epsilon\iota$, au, $\alpha\iota$] (first vocogram), including the taxophones occurring in the triphthongs formed with $|\epsilon|$): [$\epsilon\iota$, au, $\epsilon\iota$, au, $\epsilon\iota$].

The second vocogram provides the 'good' variants of the three diphthongs: $\uparrow [\varpi i, a \upsilon, \alpha \upsilon]$, including $\uparrow [\varpi \imath i]$. The third vocogram shows the sociophonically marked variants of the diphthongs and triphthongs: $\downarrow [Ai(\vartheta), A\iota i, Bu(\vartheta), \alpha u(\vartheta), (-\vartheta)]$.

fig 15.1.3. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: phonemic diphthongs.

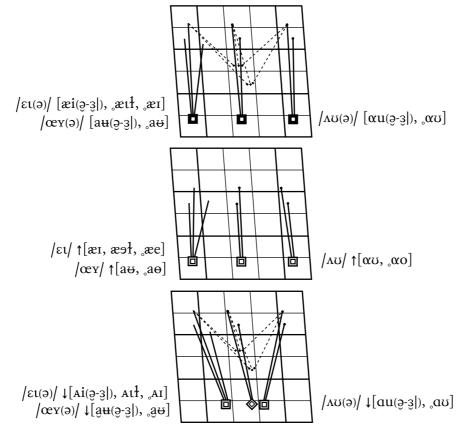
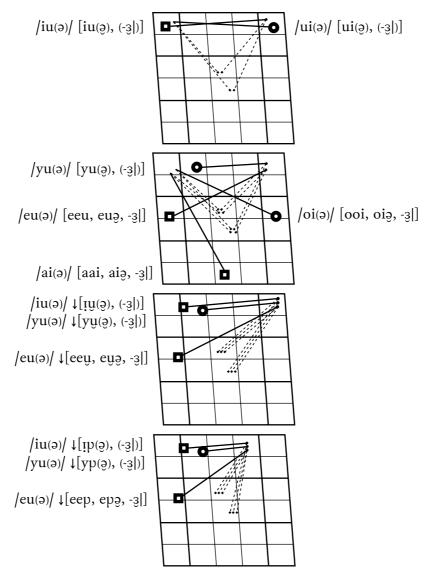


fig 15.2. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: sequential diphthongs & triphthongs (and variants).

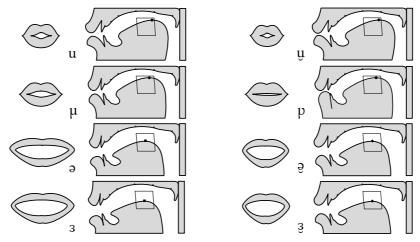


The first two vocograms in fig 15.2 provide the six supplementary diphthongs that derive from the juxtaposition of /i, e, a, o, u, y/ + /-i/ or /-u/, including the triphthongs with /ə/; in the third and fourth vocograms, the most marked variants of /iu, eu, yu/ are presented, with a hyper-rounded second element, [u], or a back-central labiodentalized one, [p] (cfr fig 15.3): [iu, eu, yu], or [ip, ep, yp].

Examples: *trein* ['tʁ̞æiɪ•, -æɪ̄•, ↑-æɪ-, ↓-Ai-], *ijs* [ˈʔæiṣ, †ˈʔæiṣ, †ˈʔaiṣ], *bakkeleien* [ˌbɑ-kəˈfæiʒ, ↑-æɪʒ, ↓-Aiʒ, -əɪə, -əɪə], *lui* [ˈfau, ↑-aʊ, ↓-au], *huis* [ˈhauṣ, ↑-aʊṣ, ↓-auṣ], *kruier* [ˈkʁ̞auə̞ɹ, ↑-aʊ-, ↓-au-], *vrouw* [ˈfʁ̞αu, ↑-αυ, ↓-αu, 'ɣ-], *paus* [ˈpαuṣ, ↑-αυṣ, ↓-αυṣ], *blauwe* [ˈbfαuʒ, ↑-αυʒ, ↓-αυʒ].

In addition: kieuw [ˈkiu, ˈkiu, ˈkiu], nieuwe [ˈniu3, ˈniu3, ˈniu3], leeuw [ˈleeu, ˈleeu, ˈleeu, ˈleeu], middeleeuws [ˈmɪdtˌeus, -eus, -eps], sneeuwen [ˈsneu3, ˈsneu3, ˈsneu3, -ən, -ən], saai [ˈsaai], aait [ˈlaait], draaien [ˈdɪai3, -ən, -ən], fooi [ˈlooi], nooit [ˈnooit], dooien [ˈdoi3, -ən, -ən], boei [ˈbui], koeien [ˈkui3, -ən, -ən], ruw [ˈsyu, ˈsyu, ˈsyu, ˈsyp], duwen [ˈdyu3, ˈdyu3, -ən, -ən, -ən].

fig 15.3. Mediatic Netherlandic: a comparison between 'normal' $[u, \mu, \vartheta, 3]$ and some taxophones: hyper-rounded [u], labiodentalized [p], half-rounded $[\vartheta, \vartheta]$.

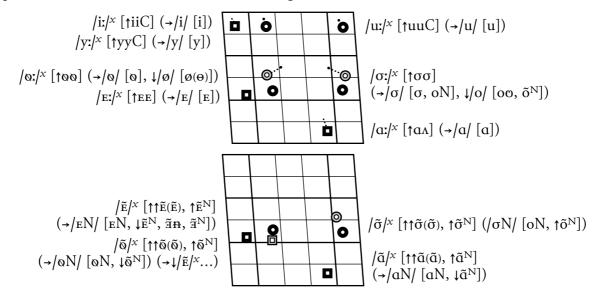


15.4. fig 15.4.1 shows the vowel xenophonemes. In the first vocogram, the seven oral xenophonemes are presented, while the second vocogram shows the four nasalized ones. For all of them, the simplified forms are indicated, which derive from the change to the native phonemes, that are remarkably more common; as a matter of fact, sticking to the xenophonemes denotes intentionality, and it is sociophonically marked as \(\tau\).

Generally, stressed vowels in initial position are preceded by [?]; the same is true for other stressed vowels following /a, ə/, as well as for half-stressed vowels after a pause.

Examples: team ['tiim, 'tim, 'tim, 'tim], pruderie [pķydə'sii], crème [ˈkʁ̞eem, ˈkʁ̞em, ˈkʁ̞em], serre [ˈseeʁȝ, ˈseʁȝ], basket [ˈbɑʌskə̞t, ˈbɑṣ-, -keʈ], baccarat [ˌbɑka-ˈsɑʌ, -ˈsaɐ] (/bɑkaˈɾɑː/), centrifuge [ˌsentʁ̞iˈfyyʒȝ, ˌsẽa-], freule [ˈfʁ̞ootȝ, ˈfʁ̞oo-], dejeuner [ˌdeʒoˈnei, ˌdə-], controle [kon-ˈtʁ̞ootȝ, -outȝ, kōa-], loge [ˈtootȝ, ˈtou-], zone [ˈsoonȝ, ˈsou-, ˈʒ-], corps [ˈkootȝ, ˈkotȝ, ˈkootȝ], boom (Engl.) [ˈbuum, ˈbum, ˈbum, ˈbum, ˈbum], atout [aˈtuu, aˈtut] (/a/).

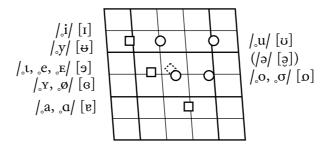
fig 15.4.1. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: xenophonemes.



In addition: timbre ['tẽĕbʁȝ, 'tẽm-, 'tem-], enfin [ɑ̃ˈfēĕ, ɑ̃m̪ˈfē¤, -ɑ̃¤, aṃˈfe¤, -ˈfə¤], renaissance [ˌʁe¤eˈsα̃ᾱs, ˌʁǝ-, -ˈsᾱ¤s, -ˈsα¤s], restaurant [ˌʁestoˈʁα̃ᾱ, -ˈʁᾱ¤, -ˈʁα¤t̞], pardon [pʌɪ/dõō, -ˈdō¤, -ˈdōn], parfum [pʌɪ/fōo, -ˈfom, -ˈfəm].

15.5. The vocogram in fig 15.4.2 shows the reductions (and a few cases of neutralization) affecting the 12 main vowel phonemes (ie those given in the first two vocograms of fig 15.1.1). In the mediatic accent —in non-slow speech— these forms occur, most often, in unstressed syllables, particularly when immediately before a stressed one, but also in positions closer to the beginning of polysyllabic words, even with rhythmic secondary stress.

fig 15.4.2. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: frequent vowel reductions in unstressed syllables.



These seven vocoids, /i/ [1], /y/ [ϖ], /u/ [υ], /t, e, E/ [9], /y, Ø/ [Θ], /a, α/ [ε] and /o, σ / [σ] represent the first degree of timber reduction, before the further possible switch to / σ / [φ] (taken from fig 15.1.1, with the addition of a dotted outline). No diphthong, either phonemic or phonetic (ie 'sequential'), undergoes such a reduction. Less frequently, the reduction can occur in checked syllables, including the loss of /-n, -r/. As can be seen from fig 15.4.2, these vocoids correspond to those possible in fast colloquial neutral speech, with the tiny difference of /a, σ / [ε], instead of [σ]. But, of course, in mediatic pronunciation, they are much more frequently used, even in non-quick speech, together with the change from /i, y; e, o; a/ into /t, y; E, σ ; σ /.

Examples: minuut [mi'nyt, mɪ-, mu-, mə-, mə-], muziek [my'sik, mə-, mə-, mə-, mə-, -z-], poelier [pu'lṛū-, pu-, pə-], spinniydig [spuˈhæidək, spə-, spə-], summier [sə-ˈmṛū-, sə-, sə-], metaal [meˈtaʌł, me-, mu-, mə-, mə-], reuzin [køˈsū-, kə-, kə-, -ū-], lokaal [loˈkaʌł, to-, to-, tə-], herriyzen [heˈkæisɜ, hə-, hə-, -ə̄-, -ə̄-, pommade [poˈmaɐ-dɜ, po-, pə-], banaan [baˈhaɐ-, bo-, be-, bə-, -aē-], kassier [kuˈsṛū-, ke-, kə-], benzine [benˈsiinɜ, bən-, kən-, kən-,

More examples that also show the possibility of entirely dropping [ə], when the new syllable structures can correspond to normal ones, especially in words of foreign origin: politiek [ˌpołi'tik, ˌpołɪ-, -łə-, -łə-, poł'tik], politie [po'liţsi, po-, pə-, p'li-, 'pli-, -iṣi, -iẓi], paradijs [ˌpaʁa'dæiṣ, ˌpɑʁɑ-, ˌpɐʁe-, ˌpɐʁə-, paɪ'd-, paɪ'd-, -ɪ'd-], chocola [ʃoko'laɐ, ʃoko-, ʃok-, ʃokl-, ʃo'kl-], locomotief [ˌlokomo'tif, ˌlokomo-, ˌlokəmo-, ˌlokəmo-, ˌlokəmə-, ˌ

As far as $/\tilde{V}/$ are concerned, intermediate realizations are possible, $[\uparrow \tilde{V}^N]$, with

full nasalization ($[\tilde{V}]$, or semi-nasalization, [V]) added to the vocoid and semi-nasalization of the nasal contoids (ie with partial de-nasalization, as happens to native /VNC/ sequences, which, in this case, are classified as $[\downarrow \tilde{V}^N]$). Some examples have been provided above; others will follow.

15.6. As far as the *consonants* are concerned, fig 15.5 shows all of them, while fig 15.6.1-2 contain all their orograms; for [h, h], ff fig 3.4.E-F). The readers are advised to pay attention to 'new' phones, such as [f, s] (labiodental and alveolar semi-constrictives) for [v, z], which have no vocal folds vibration, but are weaker than the corresponding full constrictives [f, s].

Therefore, at least in theory, /v, $z/[f, \S]$ can keep a slight difference between /f, $s/[f, \S]$; but both pairs are often merged into /f, $s/[f, \S]$. The same happens to $/\chi$, x/v very often merged into $/\chi/v$, although with oscillating realizations: $[\kappa, \chi]$ —however, in our transcriptions, the difference will be kept.

We also recommend to take good notice of [by], a mediatic taxophone of /v/ [v, y], which can occur before V. After all, [by] is still a labiodental articulation with lip rounding (as shown in fig 15.6.2, including its partial magnification), but much tenser than [v]. In fact, the articulation in question is a semi-stop-semi-constrictive. The first 'semi-' indicates that the stop phase is attenuated, as the occlusion is not complete; the second 'semi-' implies that the second part of the phone is less than a full constrictive, ie semi-constrictive.

The simple semi-constrictive variant, [v], is a bit less marked than [bv], but as frequent as [v]. Also from an auditory point of view, [v] is distinguishable enough from |v|, which in the mediatic accent is more customarily realized as a voiceless or partially devoiced phone, [f, v] (unless voice assimilation takes place in consonant sequences, in which case [v] occurs).

[n n p l		[m] [m] þ]	el a	[n] t d	[n] n [t]	[#]	[t] [t]	[a] [n] [t d]	[ɲ] [n]	[ŋ]	n k (g)	[N]	[5]
	•	f f [v]	[by]		\$ [z _i]		([z)	[ş ţ]	[ç j]	Γ	[x]	[] Χ R	1. rc1
		υ			1	[1 - 7]		[1]	J	[#-¥	[x]	k [k] [s] [a]	h [h]

15.7. The three *nasal* phonemes are accompanied by various taxophones for $n \equiv C$ (homorganic /n/, including its semi-nasal realizations). Consequently, in addition to [m, m; m, m; n, n; n, n; n, n] (where [n] is *provelar*, while [n] is dental), one finds postalveopalatal [n, n] before [\(\frac{1}{2}\), \(\frac{1}{2}\)]; prepalatal [n, n] before [\(\frac{1}{2}\)]; palatal [n, n] before [c]; uvular [n, n] before [\(\frac{1}{2}\), \(\frac{1}{2}\)].

There are also different contoids for /n/ in all contexts: velarized alveolar nasal

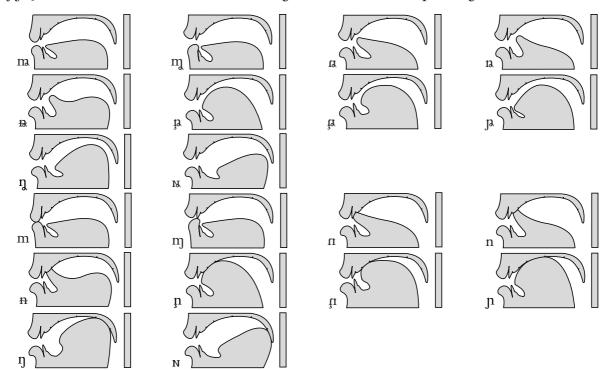


fig 15.6.1. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: orograms of nasal & corresponding seminasal contoids.

and semi-nasal, respectively [n, n] (the former being systematically used in the most typical mediatic accent, including before V).

Examples: moe [ˈmuu], komen [ˈkoumȝ, -϶ϝ, -϶϶], om [ˈʔoum, ˈʔoũm], nu [ˈѣyy], wonen [ˈvouਜȝ, -϶ϝ, -϶϶, -ϟϝ, -ϟϝ, -ϟϝ], brengen [ˈbeਜȝ, -դ-, -϶ϝ, -϶϶], langzaam [ˈłɑŋ,βam, ˈłɑ̃ŋ,βam, -ˌz-] /-am/, ring [ˈʁuŋ, -ũŋ]; onfris [omˈfʁ̞uṣ, om̞-, om̞-, om̞-], antiek [ɑ冉ˈtik, ɑ̃ե-], rangeren [ʁɑn̞ˈzeəʁȝ, -϶ϝ, -϶ϝ, καμ̞-], kantje [ˈkɑn̞tçȝ, ˈkɑ̃μ̞-], bronchitis [bʁonˈκiit϶ṣ, -ο̃ե-].

Regarding *stops*, notice –in particular– a labiodental [\mathfrak{p}] before /f/, [\mathfrak{p} f]; an alveolar [\mathfrak{f}] in word-final or prepausal position, and in /ts/ sequences, [\mathfrak{f} s]; prepalatal [\mathfrak{f} , \mathfrak{q}] before [\mathfrak{g} , \mathfrak{g}]; a palatal [\mathfrak{g}] before [\mathfrak{g}]; a prevelar [\mathfrak{k}] before front or front-central V, or after them in word-final position. As already said in § 15.4, [?] occurs not only for emphasis, but also before initial stressed V; or before any stressed V if preceded by /a, \mathfrak{p} / within a word, in order to make pronunciation easier; finally, [?] also occurs before half-stressed V in post-pausal position.

Examples: peren [ˈpeiʁʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ], appels [ˈʔɑpt̞s], ik heb [ə̞kˈhep], bet [ˈbet̞], ik ben [ə̞gˈbeħ, -ヨħ, -āħ], opfrissen [ˈʔopˌfʁ̞uṣʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ], tweed [ˈtveit̞], drie [ˈdʁii], tjee [ˈt̞cei], tik [ˈtɪk], kat [ˈkɑt̞], zakje [ˈsɑcçʒ, ˈʒ-], goal [ˈgoot̄, ˈχ-], zakdoek [ˈsɑgˌduk, ˈʒ-], ach jee! [ˌʔɑpˈcei], op een ochtend [ˌʔopəħˈʔoptəħ], chaotisch [kaˈʔoutis], naïef [ħa-ˈʔif] (/a/), beangst [bəˈʔɑŋṣt, -ˈʔɑ̃ŋst̞].

15.8. Regarding the *constrictives*, /s, z/ are alveolar [s, z], with [z] by voice assimilation; for /z/, an alveolar semi-constrictive [s] can occur (cf \S 15.6).

In mediatic pronunciation, $/V(N)s^\#V/$ sequences are often realized as $[V(N)z^\#V]$. Furthermore, just like in a more traditional kind of pronunciation, the numerals

fig 15.6.2. Mediatic Netherlandic accent: orograms of all the remaining contoids.

40, 50, 60 and 70 (veertig, vijftig, zestig, zeventig), in addition to 'normal' |#f, #s|: vijftig, zestig ['fæiftək, 'sestək], can have |#v, #z|. There are also |\infty| and the xenophoneme |z|, which lack labial protrusion, [\infty, z]; prepalatal [\infty, z] before [\infty], while palatal [\infty, i] are normal in [Cj] sequences.

Additional realizations are: $/\chi/[\kappa]$ (a uvular constrictive trill), $/\kappa/[\chi]$ (a plain uvular constrictive); the correspondent voiced contoids, $[\kappa, \kappa]$, occur by assimilation. Furthermore, *velar* taxophones are possible before front or front-central $V: [\kappa]$ (constrictive trill) and $[\kappa]$ (constrictive).

Mediatic Netherlandic Dutch prefers $/\chi C/[PC]$ over /xC/[PC]. As already seen, for /v, z/, semi-constrictive $[f, \S]$ are frequent, very similar to $[f, \S]$, but weaker.

Examples: fruit [ˈfʁ̞aʉt̞, ↑-aʊt̞], vinden [ˈfɪħdʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̃ħ, 'v̥-, -ĩħ-], boven [ˈboufʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ, -v̞-], afbrengen [ˈʔαvˌbʁɛŋʒ, -ēŋ-, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ], sussen [ˈsəsʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ], zon [ˈsəħ, -ōħ, ˈz̞-], lezen [ˈleisʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ, -z̞-], sjouwen [ˈʃαuʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ], jus [ˈʒyy], tjalk [ˈt̞catk], schal [ˈs̞καt], dag [ˈdακ], aanslagbiljet [ˈʔaɐħˌstakbul̞,jet, ˈaɐ̃ħ-, -pb-], wiegje [ˈuiixçʒ, ˈv̞-], goed [ˈxut̞], morgen [ˈməɪxʒ, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ], wegbrengen [ˈueκˌbʁɛŋʒ, -ēŋ-, -ə̞ħ, -ə̞ħ, -ȳ-,

-Rib-], geen ['Xein, -eĩn], wat ['vaṭ, 'Y-], antwoord ['antivooxṭ, 'ān-], gewoon [Xə'voun, -oũn, -'Y-], wiel ['viṭł, 'Y-], hand ['hanṭ, -ānṭ].

A few examples for [V(N)s[#]V, -z̄-]: de dekens uitschudden [dəˈdeikə̞n̄s ˈʔaut̞s̞κ̞odʒ, -¤z̄, -də̞n̄, -də̃n̄], nergens anders [ˈnēxχə̞n̄s ˈʔandə̞x̄s, -χə̞n̄z, -χə̞n̄s, -χə̞s̄, -ʔān̄-], er anders overdenken [ə̞xˈʔandə̞x̄s ˌof̞ə̞xˈdeŋkʒ, -də̞x̄z, -kə̞n̄, -kə̃n̄, -kə̃n̄, -yaˈʔān-, -ˈdēn̄-, ˌov̞-], appels en peren [ˈʔapt̞s ə̞mˈpeikʒ, -t͡z-, -kə̞n̄, -kə̃n̄], als het ware [ˌʔat̞sə̞tˈvaɐkʒ, -z̄ə̞-, ˌʔat̞s-, aṣ-, ə̞s-, -ˈy-], zijn jas aan de kapstok hangen [ṣạ̞nˈjas ə̞ndə̞ˈkapˌstok ˈhanʒ, -ˈjaz̄, -ə̞n̄, -ə̄n̄, -han̄-, z̄-].

For the *approximants*, |v| is [v] (and [v] after tautosyllabic voiceless obstruents, and [v, v] as frequent variants); |j| [j] with the constrictive taxophones [c, j] in |nj|, (n)tj, (n)sj, (n)sj

15.9. For /(V)rV/, mediatic pronunciation employs [\mathfrak{g}] (or also [\mathfrak{g}]) between V too; with [\mathfrak{g}] (or [\mathfrak{g}]) after voiceless obstruents (and often before pauses). However, in syllables ending in /r/, it is normal to find a prevelar uvularized approximant, [$V\mathfrak{g}$], or a semi-approximant, [$V\mathfrak{g}$] (with even more space between the articulators, which, as already said, should be better indicated by special symbols with an inverted diacritic, [\mathfrak{g} , \mathfrak{g}], but here we prefer not to add too many symbols to an already rich list).

Finally, instead of [x, x] (and their intense versions, [x, x], after C, which is the most frequent case) some speakers employ [y] (clearly indicated in the second vocogram of fig 15.1.1; this vocoid is still quite different from [y], being fronter and higher).

Auditorily, the change from [x] to [x] and then to [y] can be seen as a scale ranging from the most to the least marked variants, though all of them are quite distant from the neutral-pronunciation type.

It is not uncommon to hear [k, h, r] before C or pauses, but these variants will not be systematically indicated. They are only shown here (leaving out the other possibilities): kaar ['ka'ek, 'ka'ek, 'ka'ek], kart ['kakt, 'kakt, 'kart].

For /l/, [1] can occur in all contexts in spite of being less favored in absolutely initial position; however, /lj/ is [1]; [1] is normal, too. In addition, for post-nuclear /l/ in final or pre-consonantal position, [1] is possible (a semi-lateral contoid, that is to say a contoid lacking full contact with the alveolar ridge, and the relevant intense version [1 C 1]. In a less typical kind of pronunciation, [1] might occur at the beginning of a word, and [1] in final or preconsonantal position.

Between *V*, greater oscillation and variation are possible, according to a certain 'coloring' scale, which normally behaves as follows: [l] after front or front-central *V*, semi-velarized [ł] after *C* or central *V*, and a fully velarized [ł] after back or back-central *V*; however, in our transcriptions, [ł] will always be used.

Examples (only here, the possible variants for $/V_f/[V_{\bar{k}}] & /l/[l, l, l, l]$ are shown): raam ['karm, l-arm], straks ['straks], leraar ['leikar, -Ar, -Ar, -Ar, -Ar, ['dartig ['dartyk, 'dar, 'day-], polder ['pɔldə*, -də*, -da, -da, -də], les ['les, 'les], last ['last, 'l-], allerlei ['lalə*'lai, -ə*l-, -a-, -a-, -a-, -a-, -a-], hilarisch [hi'laris, -'lar-], beleg [bə'lək, -l-], veel ['feəl, 'v-, -a-]; wil je ['vul-ja].

15.10. The following sequences occur regularly: /ts/ [\uparrow s] ts, ds, /vr/ [\uparrow g, \uparrow g, \downarrow g,

Furthermore, the mediatic accent also shows the insertion of /9/[9], in word-final position, in sequences of heterorganic C, formed by /r/[B, R] (rather than [a]) and /m, p, k, f, $\chi/$, and also for non-homorganic /rn/, [B]. The same happens with /l/[a] —rather than [a]—and the same C (but there are no native words with $/ln^{\#}/$). Instead of [a], [a], intense contoids are possible, as well: [m], [a]. These /a/-epentheses can also be frequent in the neutral accent, in familiar or colloquial speech.

Examples: arm [ˈʔʌɜ̞m, ˈʔɑʁə̞m, ˈʔɑʁm̩], urn [ˈʔɡɜ̞n, ˈʔəʁə̞n, ˈʔəʁa̞], dorp [ˈdəɜ̞p, ˈdoʁə̞p], werk [ˈvɑɜ̞k, ˈve], zelf [ˈsatf, ˈsetə̞f, ˈɣ-], erg [ˈʔaɜ̞κ, ˈʔeʁə̞κ], kalm [ˈkatm, -tə̞m, -tm̩], help [ˈhatp, ˈhetə̞p], melk [ˈmatk, ˈmetə̞k], dolf [ˈdətf, ˈdotə̞f], alg [ˈat̞κ, ˈatə̞κ].

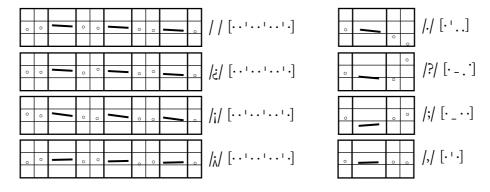
The same happens in compound words: *mergbeen* ['mā̄̄ˈki,bē̄-, 'mekə̄k-, -k̄-, -ē̄̄-,], *melkboer* ['mā̄̄-q,buō̄-, 'met̄-q-].

Instead, inside a word (not at its end), such an insertion denotes a very broad accent: *arme* ['ʔʌ̞శmʒ, ˌ/ʔɑʁə̞mʒ], *sterkste* [ˈsta̞̞kstʒ, ˌ/steʁə̞kstʒ], *morgen* [ˈmə̞̞xʒ, -ə̞̞ឝ, -ə̞̞ឝ, ˌ/moʁə̞χʒ], *halma* [ˈhaɫma, ˌ/haɫə̞ma], *helpen* [ˈhɜɫpʒ, -ə̞̞ឝ, -ə̞̞ឝ, ˌ/heɫə̞pʒ].

A minimal pair like *toorn* and *toren* /'torn, 'torə(n)/ is kept different in the mediatic pronunciation, too: ['toukəħ, -kḥ] vs ['toukɜ, -əħ, -ɔ̣əħ].

15.11. The mediatic *intonation* patterns are shown in the tonograms of fig 15.7, which, as usual, should be carefully compared with those of the neutral Dutch pronunciation, particularly in its Netherlandic version (fig 15.7), and by reading the numerous examples provided in \mathfrak{G} 10-11.

fig 15.7. Mediatic Netherlandic-Dutch intonation: protunes & tunes.



18.

Afrikaans Pronunciation

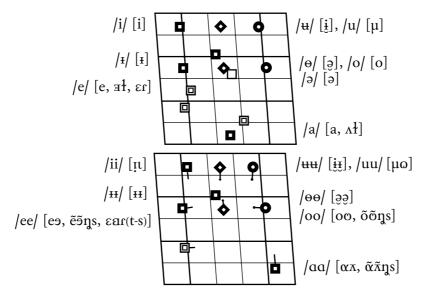
18.1. Modern Afrikaans (or 'South-African Dutch') derives from the Dutch language brought to South Africa three and half centuries ago. Here, the phonemes of Afrikaans will be shown as *intralinguistic* not very abstract entities, and in no necessary relation with those of Dutch. Of course, our phon(oton)etic transcriptions will use ^{can}IPA symbols.

The accent of Dutch as spoken by Afrikaners (ie White South-African speakers of Afrikaans) has been described in the 17, referring to the International-Dutch phonemic system used in this book.

Examples: *skiet* ['skit], *bed* ['bet], *wel* ['Vał, -aɨ], *herberg* ['hɛɾbɛɾκ̞], *nuus* ['nɨ̞s], *dit* ['dɨt], *kus* ['kə̞s], *vereniging* [fəˈreənəκəŋ, -χ-], *ek maak* [ʔəkˈmαxk], *kat* [ˈkat], *al* ['ʔʌł, -ʌɨ̞], *rok* ['rok], *boek* [ˈbuk].

In the upper part of the second vocogram of fig 18.1.1, you can see /ii, $\frac{1}{1}$ uu/, three rather narrow diphthongs, [$\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{1}$, $\frac{1}{1}$, which only occur followed by /r/ (equally plus /#, V, C/). Examples: mier ['miu], muur(e) ['mits(3)], voer ['fuor].

fig 18.1.1. Main Afrikaans vowels.



Examples: sê [ˈseə], mens [ˈmē϶ηs], perd [ˈpεart], brûe [ˈbɾ϶϶], môre [ˈmooɾə], spons [ˈspõοηs], taak [ˈtαxk], Afrikaans [ˌʔafɾəˈkα̃ҳηs, -ri-], lîe [ˈlɪɪ].

In regional pronunciations, the structure /VVns/ [VVns] (both in final or internal position in a word) may be extended to other phonemes, as for instance /i, ‡, ə, θ, θə/ (here we just transcribe the neutral and the strictly corresponding non-neutral variants): diens ['dins, ↓↓'dr̃ūns], insig ['r̄nsək, -χ, ↓↓'r̄t̄n-], erns ['r̄eərns, ↓↓'r̄earə̄ns], kuns ['kəns, ↓↓'kə̄ns], seuns ['sɨəns, ↓↓'sɨə̄ns].

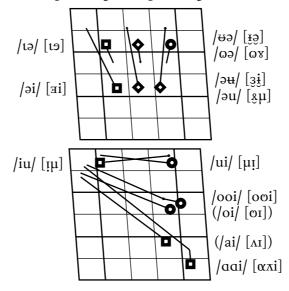
18.2. The first vocogram of fig 18.1.2 shows the three phonemic (closing) diphthongs, shared with Dutch, though a bit different not only in their starting points, /əi, əu, əu/ [π i, 3i, μ], and the three descending diphthongs, typical of Afrikaans, / μ ə, μ

Examples: ryp [ˈraip], vuis [ˈfɜ̞is], hout [ˈfi̞s̞ut]; lees [ˈlɪəs], Koetzee [kutˈsɪə], reuk [ˈraɜk], rook [ˈraʊk].

The second vocogram of fig 18.1.2 gives six vowel sequences obtained by combining some of the elements already seen. Two are very common, /aai, ooi/ [α xi, ooi]; two are less common, /iu/ [μ], /ui/ [μ]; while the other two are quite rare, /ai/ [Λ I], /oi/ [σ I].

Examples: *haai* [ˈhαxi], *hooi* [ˈhoʊi]; *leeu* [ˈlɪ̞μ], *moeilik* [ˈmμɪ̞lək]; *baie* [ˈbʌɪə], *toiings* [ˈtoɪəŋs].

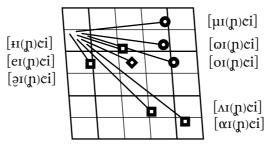
fig 18.1.2. Main Afrikaans true diphthongs & triphthongs.



The vocogram of fig 18.1.3 adds the eight transitional diphthongs, typical of diminutives. They are formed by one of the stressed V - / e, t, θ , u, o, a; o, ad [e, t, θ , u, o, a] – combined with /i(p)ki/[I(p)ci], where the /i/-[I]-element can be more or less evident (also as [i, i], sometimes, including $[\emptyset]$, zero, especially because /p/ can be sufficient, when present).

Examples: bedjie ['beɪci], prentjie ['preɪnci], pitjie ['pɨɪci], kindjie ['kɨɪnci], putjie ['pəɪci], puntjie ['pəɪnci], hoedjie ['huɪci], soentjie ['suɪnci], pootjie ['poɪci], oondjie ['Poɪnci], rotjie ['roɪci], mondjie ['moɪnci], matjie ['mʌɪci], randjie ['rʌɪnci], maatjie ['mɑɪci], aandjie ['ʔɑɪnci].

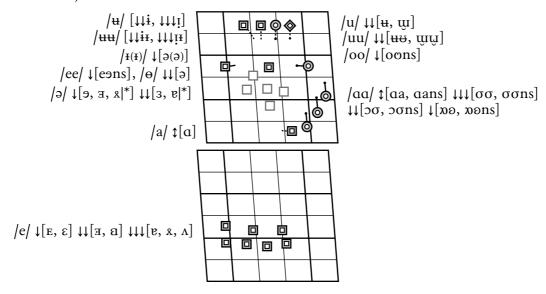
fig 18.1.3. Afrikaans diphthongs used in some types of diminutives.



18.3. Now, a number of *non-neutral variants* is added. Thus, fig 18.1.2 and fig 18.1.3 only show the differences, without repeating what is shared between the neutral and the mediatic accents of Afrikaans. Most variants are *mediatic* ones, indicated as \downarrow (corresponding to m), a few are *regional*, indicated as $\downarrow\downarrow$, $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow$. In a certain way, someone might interpret both \downarrow as a personal target, if just aiming at the mediatic accent, instead of at the neutral one. After all, enough is as good as a feast. But, we also include |a| $\uparrow [a]$ and |aa| $\uparrow [aa$, $\tilde{a}a$ (shown in the first vocogram of fig 18.2.1), which (subjectively) may be felt as being 'better international realizations'.

The vocogram of fig 18.2.1 gives the opener realizations of /4, $4 \neq 1$, $4 \neq 1$,

fig 18.2.1. Differences between neutral and mediatic Afrikaans vowels (including some non-neutral variants).



Again in the first vocogram of fig 18.2.1, one can also see both the *mediatic* (and Southwestern, including Cape Town to Namibia) realizations of $|\alpha\alpha| \downarrow [n\theta, n\theta]$ and the broadest regional ones, $\downarrow\downarrow [n\theta, n\theta]$, $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow [n\theta, n\theta]$, $\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow [n\theta, n\theta]$, most typical of the former Transvaal area, now ascribable to northeastern South Africa.

Examples: nuus [↓↓ˈnɨs, ↓↓↓ˈnis], muure [↓↓ˈmɨre, ↓↓↓ˈmɨre, ↓-Ջ], boek ↓↓[ˈbɨk, ˈbwk], voer ↓↓[ˈfɨð, ˈfwuɪ], nens [↓ˈkat], dit [↓ˈdət], lîe [↓ˈləə], kus [↓↓ˈkəs], kat [‡ˈkat], ek maak [‡ʔəkˈmaak, ↓ʔakˈmæk, ↓↓ʔekˈmæk, ↓↓↓-σωk], Afrikaans [‡ˌʔafrəˈkaans, ↓ˌʔafrə-kans, -ri-, ↓↓,ʔafraˈkəʊns, ↓↓↓,ʔafreˈkoʊns], spons [↓ˈspoʊns]. Afrika is [ˈʔαxfrə-ka, -fri-, †ʔaafrɨ-ka, ↓ʔæfra-ka, ↓↓/ʔəσfra-ka, ↓↓↓/ʔəσfra-ka].

The second vocogram of fig 18.2.1 shows both the light *mediatic* (and Southwestern) variants of $|e| \downarrow [E, \epsilon l, \epsilon l]$ and the broadest ones (coinciding with some regional realizations, as well, of central and northeastern South Africa) $\downarrow \downarrow [\Xi, \alpha l, \alpha l, \alpha l]$ $\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow [E, \alpha l, \alpha l, \alpha l]$.

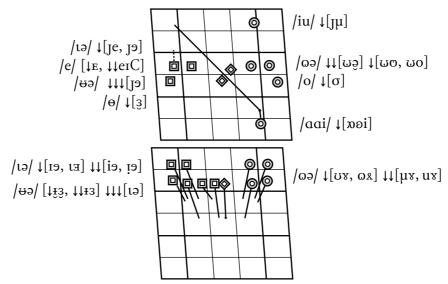
Examples: bed [\downarrow 'bet, $\downarrow \downarrow$ 'bet], $wel \downarrow [' \forall \epsilon 1, -\epsilon_{\bar{1}}] \downarrow \downarrow [' \forall \epsilon 1, -\epsilon_{\bar{1}}], \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow [' \forall \epsilon 1, -\epsilon_{\bar{1}}], herberg$ [$\downarrow \downarrow$ 'harbark, $\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow$ 'harbark].

18.4. The first vocogram of fig 18.2.2 shows the frequent *mediatic* realizations of seven phonemes. For three of them, instead of diphthongs, one finds [CV] sequences of semiapproximants plus vocoids, /iu, 1ə, 0ə/ \downarrow [J μ ; Je, Jə; ω ə, ω o, ω o]; in addition, for /e, Θ , o/, there are also \downarrow [E, 3, σ] (the first one is less centralized than in the second vocogram of fig 18.2.1; from an international point of view they might be considered as 'better variants': \$\pma\$); then, /\alpha\alpha| \pma\$[\pi\in\in\in], as well.

Examples: leeu [ψ]μ], lees ψ[lges, lges], Koetzee ψ[kμt'sge, -'sge], rook ψ['rωok, 'rωok] ψ['rωgk]; bed [ψbet, ψbeit], kus [ψkgs], rok [ψrok], haai [ψhαei].

Those with a higher starting point are most typical both of the *mediatic* accent and of southwestern South Africa, including Cape Town (to Namibia, where Afri-

fig 18.2.2. Further differences between neutral and mediatic Afrikaans vowels (including some non-neutral variants).



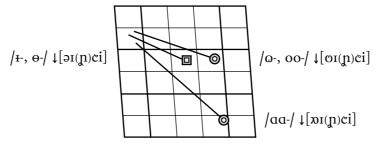
kaans is also spoken currently). So, in spite of being more different from the neutral realizations we have seen, they might be considered either as \$\dagger\$, or even \$\dagger\$.

Examples: lees [lies, 'lies, 'lies, 'ltes], Koetzee [kμt'sie, -ie, -ie, -ie], reuk [lies, 'lies, 'l

In fig 18.2.3, you can see the neutralization of two couples of diphthongs formed in diminutives (/ \pm , Θ -/, / Θ -, oo-/) and the timbres for / Θ -/.

Examples: pitjie ['pəɪci], kindjie ['kəɪnci], putjie ['pəɪci], puntjie ['pəɪnci]; pootjie ['poɪci], oondjie ['Poɪnci], rotjie ['roɪci], mondjie ['moɪnci]; maatjie ['mɒɪci], aandjie ['Pɒɪnci].

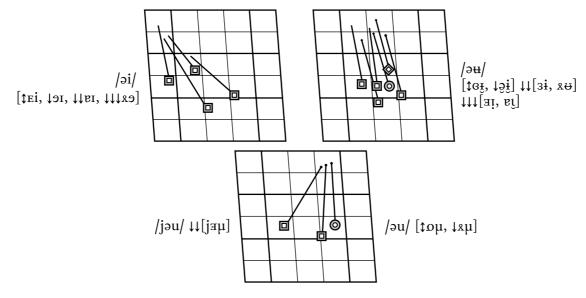
fig 18.2.3. Some differences and neutralizations in diphthongs for diminutives.



Let us now consider fig 18.3. The three vocograms show the *mediatic* \downarrow variants of the three phonemic diphthongs /əi, əu, əu/ (including some mediatic and regional variants of /əi/, and the 'better international variants' \downarrow for all of them), /əi/ [‡ei, ↓əɪ, ↓əu, ↓əu/ [‡ou, ↓əu/ [‡ou, ↓əu/ [‡ou, ↓əu/ [‡u]].

Examples: ryp [t'reip, t'reip, tt'reip, tt'reip], vuis [t'feţs, t'feţs] tt[fsis, faes] ttt[fais, feɣs], hout [t'hout, t'hout], jou [tt'jau]. Of course, different native hearers would certainly be rather puzzled, should they ever happen to hear words like uitreik, uiteinde ['ʔɜ̞t̞tˌraik, 'ʔɜ̞tˌʔaində] pronounced with [et] and [et] together in the very same word, as something unreal, like *['ʔeʊ̞tˌreɪk, 'ʔeʊ̞tˌʔeɪndə]; but, luckily,

fig 18.3. Differences between neutral, mediatic and some regional variants in the three typical phonemic diphthongs.



no sane native speakers would possibly say anything of the kind. In fact, they would spontaneously use realizations sufficiently apart in the vocogram.

We decided to use /p/, to avoid that people might think that /nj/ corresponds to $[n^{\#}j]$, which is typical of many Germanic languages, as for instance English *onion* ['ep-jən]. Lexeme-final /rm, lm/ are generally realized as [rəm, ləm] or [rm, lm], while /rn, ln/ are only occasionally realized as [rən, lən] or [rm, lm] (in Dutch this phenomenon is much more widespread, with further C).

Examples: *maa* ['mαx], *nach* ['naκ], *oranje* [ʔo'rapə], *tong* ['toŋ]; *envelop* ['ʔαxmfə-lop], *stand* ['stant], *van sjokola* [fan[okəˈlαx], *mandjie* ['mʌɪn̞ci], *ons* ['ʔõỡn̞s], *bank* ['bank], *van chloor* [fanˈκloɤɾ]; *film* [ˈfɪləm, -lm̩], *storm* ['storəm, -rm̩].

Let us add *psalm* [pəˈsaləm, -lm] to show another example of schwa insertion in the sequence /#ps/, where a potential monosyllable becomes a trisyllabic word!

When *nie* /'ni/ 'not' forms a rhythm unit with a preceding word, it is weaker [,ni], and undergoes assimilation and reduction: *jy sal nie* [j(x)i'sa,li], *ek weet nie* [əg'vtə,ti].

In addition, there is [?] occurring before stressed V, or between V, or word-beginning. We also have $[(\mathfrak{p})\text{ci}]$ for $/(\mathfrak{p})\text{ki}/-(n)tjie$, -(n)djie in diminutives, as we have already seen; and $[\mathfrak{f},\mathfrak{d}]$ in the homoganic sequences $[\mathfrak{f},\mathfrak{d}_{\mathfrak{f}}]/(\mathfrak{f},\mathfrak{d}_{\mathfrak{f}})$ used in foreign words.

Examples: pop ['pop], ribbe ['rɨbə], tent ['tent], dood ['doxt], knie ['kni], berge ['bɛɾgə], brugge ['bɾəgə], ek dink [ʔəg'dɨŋk], ghrop ['gɾop], uitjie ['ʔɜ̞i̞ci], tjap [ˈʃʃap], jellie [ˈʃʃeli, ˈʃʒ-, ↑ˈdʒ-, 'j-].

Words in /-Vndər/ (with a short V) are colloquially changed into /-Vnər/: kinders ['kɨnərs], onder [Ponər] (also onder-). Words in /-Vndə(l)/ generally keep their /d/; while an intervocalic /d/, in an unstressed syllable, may become a flap, [1], in a very colloquial way of speaking (even if deriving from //td// \rightarrow /(d)d/, following a typical assimilation rule, shared with Dutch.

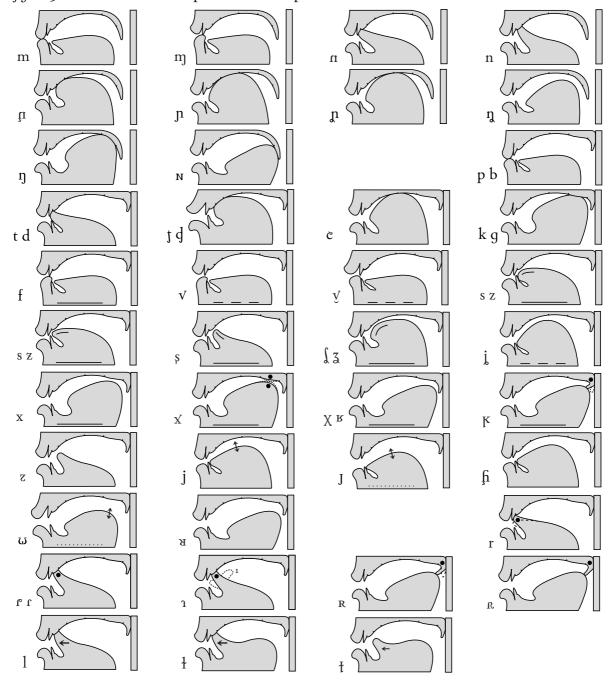
But, by this same rule, on the contrary, for the grammeme -de, we have $\|-\mathbb{C}d\theta\| \rightarrow -\mathbb{C}d\theta$: middel ['midt, -1-, t], middag ['midak, -1-, - χ], wat die... ['Va(d)di, 'Va1i], but wat dan? ['Va(d) 'dan], vertraagde [fər'traxktə, - χ tə]. Also the $-\mathbb{C}d$ of the grammeme die $-\mathbb{C}d$ if 'the', when preceded by another grammeme, undergoes assimilation and reduction: in die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ **, op die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***) op die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***), were die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***) deur die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***), voor die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***), voor die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***), voor die [$-\mathbb{C}d$ ***).

As for the *constrictive* phonemes of Afrikaans, one has /f/ [f] (f, v) and the semi-constrictive /v/ [v] (w; with [y] after tautosyllabic C). Then, we find /s/ [s] (s, z)

fig 18.4. Table of Afrikaans consonants: phonemes, taxophones and variants.

	m	[ŋ]	[n]		n		[ů]	ŋ	[ฏ]	[ŋ]	ŋ		[N]	
p	Ъ			t d				[ţ d]		[c]	k	c (g)			[5]
		fν	[v]	s (z)	[s z]	[ş]		([z)	[jූ]		[x-	x]	$[\chi]$	-k [†R]	
						[t]		j	[↓J] [ត្រ]		[1	[ឃ]	[₹]	ĥ
						[r] $[r-1]$								↓[R-R]	
						1	[1-4]								

fig 18.5. Afrikaans contoids: phonemes, taxophones and variants.



and the xenophonemes /z/z, $/\!\!\!//[\int\!\!\!\!/](sj)$ and /z/ in the sequence $/dz/[\uparrow z, d z, f \int\!\!\!\!/](j)$ together with $/t \int\!\!\!/[f \int\!\!\!\!/](tj)$, or the original spelling) for loan words. Let us observe

that we use [s, z], although one can also hear denti-alveolar [s, z] and even alveolar [s] especially in /rs, s*, sk/.

Then, there is a uvular constrictive *trill* [κ] for χ (*ch*, *g*), which can lose its trilled nature, becoming [χ], and with two constrictive velar taxophones (again as a trill or not) before front V, [κ , κ].

Examples: vyf ['faif], wind ['Vint], swem ['syem], see ['sta], zero ['starox, 'z-], Zoeloe ['zµlµ], sjef ['fef], genie [[3'ni, †z-], gewig [ka'Vik, xa'Vix], geel ['Xtaf, 'x-, -i].

Among the *approximants*, /j/[j] can become a semiconstrictive, [j], for emphasis or precision. In the *mediatic* accent, one also finds two semi-approximants -[j], ω , palatal, and velar rounded— for the variant realizations of /iu, ee, oo/ $[i\mu$, ee, oo], which become $[j\mu$; je, je; ω 0, ω 0, ω 9] (first vocogram of fig 18.2.2, in the table of C, they are shown as \downarrow).

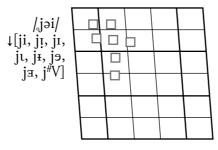
The laryngeal approximant is a voiced /h/ [\hbar], also after pauses or in contact with voiceless C, that may become voiced, whereas –in grammemes and suffixes–it readily drops entirely. Before non-back V, /h/ [\hbar] may become palatal [\hbar].

Then, there is an alveolar tap $/\mathfrak{r}/[\mathfrak{r}]$ in any context (but it can become partially devoiced, $[\mathfrak{r}]$, or completely voiceless, $[\mathfrak{r}]$, before a pause); one can also find $[\mathfrak{r}]$ for emphasis or precision; or $\downarrow [\sharp z, z\sharp]$ in *mediatic* pronunciation. In Southwestern South Africa $/\mathfrak{r}/\mathfrak{r}$ is very frequently uvular $\downarrow \downarrow [\mathfrak{k}, \mathfrak{k}, \mathfrak{k}, \mathfrak{k}]$ in any context.

To end with the C of Afrikaans, there is an alveolar lateral /l/ [l], which becomes velarized, [$\frac{1}{2}$] or –especially, but not exclusively, in the *mediatic* accent– semi-lateral velarized, [$\frac{1}{4}$] (both of them also intense for / $\frac{1}{2}$ l*, $\frac{1}{4}$]).

Examples: raar ['rαxr, -r, -r, 'rαxr], portier [por'tiur, -r, -r, por'tiur], kleur ['klɨ̞ər, -r, -r, 'klɨ̞ər], lap ['lap], slyp ['slaip], nul ['nə̞ł, -ɹ], belg ['baɫκ, -ɹ-, -χ].

fig 18.6. Possible reduced forms for unstressed jy.



First of all, any unstressed monosyllabic grammeme certainly has a form without

stress, while possibly keeping its normal vowel timbres. And this certainly is a kind of reduced form, too.

But there are several other *reduced forms* that can be heard in current speech, in addition to the enclitic possessive *se* [sə], which grammars present, although without explicitly saying that it has a real phonic reduced form.

Thus, here are those that one is very likely to hear in spontaneous speech: is [əs, s], as [əs], het [hət, ət], ek [ək], en [ən, ən], by [bə], my [mə], ny [nə], vir [fər], wil [vɨ], dit [dət], dat [dət, dʌt], doen [dən], te [tə] (even if meaning 'too'), om [əm], soos [səs], met [mət, mət], moet [mət], hom [həm, əm], jou [jə, jx], jou is [jxɪs], jy is [ja(i)s], -V hy [Vai], dis is [dɪs], maar [mxr], na [na], vandag [fənˈdak, -x], vanaand [fənˈʔɑxnt], vanmiddag [fə(m)ˈmɪdak, -x]...

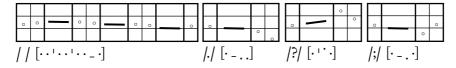
Let us also note: ek is sewe [ʔəkˈsuəvə], wie is jy? [¿vis-jai..], gedoen het [kəˈdunət, x-], terug [ˈtrək, -x], telefoon [ˌteləˈfoxn, talˈfoxn], telefoongids [ˈteləfoxnˌkəts, ˈtal·foxn-, -ˌxəts], ek het hom gesien [ʔekətəmkə_sin.., -x-], toe om die kinders [ˌtumi_kənərs..], is dit genoeg? [¿ʔəstə(t)kəˈnuk·, -xəˈnux·]...

Let us observe: *Kaapstad* ['koxp_istat], *Pretoria*[prə'toxria], *Bloemfontein* [ˌblum-fon'tain]. Lastly, let us carefully compare: *jool* ['joxt, -t], *ioon* [?i'?oxn].

18.8. The fundamental intonation patterns of Afrikaans are shown in fig 18.7. Here are some examples:

```
Verskoon dat ek in die rede val
[fər'skovn dxt'?ek. +ndi_redəfʌ1...] [-+]
(Excuse me for interrupting)
Iets te drink?
[:'Pits tə'drank':]
([May I offer you] something to drink?)
Dit is lank sedert, ek jou laas gesien het
[,dttəs_lank...| stədərt?ək'j&μ _lαxs κə_sin,tt...] [-χ-]
(It has been a long time, since I saw you last)
Tot siens, ek het die tydjie baie geniet
(Goodbye, I had a delightful time)
Is die pad goed?
[¿¡ʔɨsiˈpat· ¿ˈκμt·.] [-χ-]
(Is the road good?)
Dag!
[;-daκ.·] [-χ.·]
(Goodbye!).
```

fig 18.7. Fundamental intonation patterns of Afrikaans.



Groningen Leeuwarden Assen Emmeloord Alkmaar Zwolle Lelystad Haarlem Hengelo Amsterdam Apeldoorn O_{Leiden}: O Utrecht Den Haag Nümegen O Rotterdam Den Bosch Breda O OTilburg Middel-O Eindhoven Antwerpen Dun-0 Brugge Genk 0 Gent Brussel Maastricht O Tienen O Liège 0 Lille

fig 16.0.2. The provinces & principal towns & cities, with the 7 general accent divisions.

As a matter of fact, to be honest, the number of speakers who use this kind of accent is certainly higher than that of neutral speakers (even including 9-per-cent ones). Thus, often –and more and more so, indeed– mediatic pronunciation is widely considered to be a kind of neutral pronunciation. Perhaps an easy-going type, less sophisticated, but even less camp, which requires less commitment by native speakers.

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16.0.3. Moreover, there is a multitude real regional pronunciations (or local pronunciations), which do not coincide exactly with local (traditional) dialects, although the latter are the determining factor for the local accents. Any dialects have more or less different pronunciations, as well as different vocabulary and grammar. This does not mean, of course, that regional speakers use perfect official vocabulary and grammar,