2. English

2.0. In this chapter we will deal with the American and British neutral accents (or (standard accents)). We will also make a teaching proposal for an (international) accent of English that could usefully be employed in pronunciation books and pronouncing dictionaries (and in common dictionaries, too), as well as in every-day teaching. The kind of transcription we use is *diaphonemic*, expressly devised for this kind of description, together with its corresponding *phonetic* and *phonotonetic* transcriptions.

Furthermore, we will also consider the American and British (mediatic) accents (from non-local TV & radio), which are now as frequently heard as the neutral ones, in the news, in the movies, and in songs.

To conclude, we will describe (without going into great detail, mainly by using our usual accurate symbols and many diagrams) some other accents (with internal variations): those of Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and England (for the latter we will give the traditional, affected, and Cockney accents). In a book in progress –*English Pronunciation*— we will deal with all the native accents of English all over the world (including many non-native accents), by working directly on a substantial number of recordings, as well.

2.1. It will be useful to list the correspondences between our diaphonemic symbols and the phonemic symbols used in recent dictionaries, and especially in the three current English pronouncing dictionaries (Longman, Cambridge, Oxford). These do not always agree for certain aspects, but we show them (between $\langle \cdot \rangle$) after the diaphonemes, with examples.

Vowels

|i| \| |i, i| \| |lady || |leidi| ['leidi] | |i| \| |i| \| |bit | |bit | ['bit] | |e| \| |e, e| \| |let || |let| ['let] | |w| \| |w, a| \| |hat || |hat | ['hat] | |a || |ihet || |b | |a || | |a || |ihet || |b | |a || |a || |ihet || |b | |a || |a || |ihet || |b || |a || |a || |ihet || |b || |a || |a || |ihet || |b || |a ||

/ει/ </eɪ/> day /ˈdει/ [ˈdeːɪ] /aε/ </aɪ, ʌɪ/ > fly /ˈflaε/ [ˈfla-ə] /aɔ/ </aʊ/> *cow |*ˈkaɔ/ [ˈkha·o] $|\Im u| < |\Im u$, $|\Im u| > go$ $|\Im u|$ $[\Im u]^a$ $[\Im u]^b$ $|\nabla \mathbf{u}| < |\mathbf{u}|, \ \mathbf{u}| > who \ |\mathbf{h} \nabla \mathbf{u}| \ [\mathbf{h} \nabla \mathbf{u}]^a \ [\mathbf{h} \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}]^b$ $/i/\langle 1, \vartheta, i, \frac{1}{2} \rangle$ wishes $/wi\int iz/[wi\int \partial z]^a$ $|x'| < |x, \alpha| > last / |x + | |x|$ ['læst] ['læst] |x| > last / |x $|\alpha'| < |\alpha'|, \approx |\alpha'|$ parsta | ['pharsta]^a ['phæste]b $\langle v \rangle \langle v \rangle$ song $\langle v v \rangle$ ['sɔːŋ]^a ['sɒˈŋ]^b ['fo⁻ls, 'fols]^b /ə/ ⟨/ʌr, ɜː, ɜːr, ər, ə/> hurry /ˈhəːi/ $['h \cdot i]^a ['h \cdot i]^b$

/əːɪ/ </ɜːr, əːr, ər, ɜː/> furry /ˈfəːɪi/ [ˈfɪ̞ri]a [ˈfɜːɹi]b /əːɪ/ </ɜː, əː, əː, ər, ɜː/> fur /ˈfəːɪ/ [ˈfɹ̞ː]a

[fax]b

/ ϵ əi/ </e>, ϵ :, er, ϵ r, eər, eər, ϵ ə/> there / δ eəi/ [δ e-i]a [δ e-i]a

/ບອກ/ (/ບອ, ບອr, ບr, ບອ^r, ບ^ar, ບອ/) *moor*/ˈmʊəɪ/ [ˈmʊ་ɹ]^a [ˈmɒrɐ]^b (with further pronunciations)

/uəɪ/ ‹/uə, ʊə, uər, ʊər, uə, uər, ʊər, uər, uər, uər, uər, rescuer /ˈɪɛskjuəɪ/ [ˈɪɛskjuɪ] a [ˈɪɛskjuɐ] b

/iiəɪ/ </iiə, iːər, iːər, iːər, iːər, iːə/> seer /ˈsɪiəɪ/ [ˈsɪiɪ]^a [ˈsɪiɐ]^b

/ɛɪəː/ ‹/eɪə, eɪər, eɪər, eɪər, eɪə/›

player /ˈplɛɪəː/ [ˈphleɪɹ]a [ˈphleɪɐ]b

d[geal] < [aiə, Aiə, aiər, aiə, aiər], aiər, aiər, aiər, aiar, aia

/၁ɛəː/ \langle /ɔɪə, ɔɪər, ɔɪər, ɔɪər, ɔɪə/ \rangle employer /ɪmˈplɔɛəː/ [ɪmˈphlʊəː] a [ɪm-ˈphlʊəɐ] b

/aɔəi/ </auə, auər, auə, auər, auər, auə/>
tower /taɔəi/ [ˈthaoɪ]a [ˈthaoɐ]b

/၁૫૩i/ </br/>
/১૫૩i/ </br/>
/১૫૩i/ ('slɔuəi/ ('slɔuəi) ('slɔuəi)

/ouəi/ </u:ə, u:ər, u:ər, u:ər, u:ər/> doer/ouəi/ ['douaj] a ['dµue] b

/ə̞ɹ/ ‹/ər, ər, ər, ə/> wondering /ˈwʌndəɹɪŋ/ [ˈwʌndəɹɪŋ, -d̞ɹɪŋ]^a [ˈwendəɹ̞ɪŋ,
-ŋdɹɪŋ]^b

/ɪə̞ɹ/ </ɪər, ɪər, ɪr/> hearing /ˈhɪə̞ɹɪŋ/ [ˈhuɹuŋ]^a [ˈhuə̞ɹɪŋ]^b

(ε = 1) (ε = 1, ε = 1, ε = 1) ε = 1 (ε = 1) ε = 1

|υ϶ϫ| ‹/υ϶τ, υər, υτ| › curing |ˈkju϶ϫτη|
[ˈkhjωϫτη]^a [ˈkhjω϶ҳτη]^b (with f. pron.)
|ε̞| ‹/ə, e, ε/> dictionary |ˈdɪkʃənε̞ϫi/

 $['d\iota k \int n_i E_i i]^a ['d\iota k \int n_i i]^b$

 $\langle z | \langle -a, z | \rangle$ repertory | 'lepaitz:li | ['lepaitz:li | ['lepaitz:li | b' | color | colo

Consonants

|m| <|m| > some | 'sam| ['sam:] a ['sem:] b | n| <|n| > sun | 'san| ['san:] a ['sen:] b | η| <|η| > sung | 'saη| ['san:] a ['sen:] b | η| <|ρm, °m, m| > rhythm | '!πδη| ['!πδ-η] a ['!-] b | η| <|ρm, °n, n| > cotton | 'kotη| ['khafη] a ['kho-] b

/tʃ/ </tʃ/> *chain |*'tʃɛɪn/ ['tʃheːɪn] /dʒ/ </dz/> *Jane |*'dʒɛɪn/ ['dʒeːɪn]

|f| <|f| > few |fjou| [fjμu] |v| <|v| > view |vjou| [vjμu] |θ| <|θ| > wreath |πiθ| [πiθ]^a [πiθ]^b

 $|\delta| < |\delta| > wreathe | \pii\delta| [\pii\delta]^a [\pii\delta]^b$

|s| <|s| > ice |'aɛs| ['aəs] |z| <|z| > eyes |'aɛz| ['aəz]

 $\int \int \langle j \rangle dilution / dr | Uu \int pn / [de | Uu \int pn]^a$ $[du | \mu u \int p | b$

/ʒ/ \langle /ʒ/ \rangle delusion /d $_{\rm H}$ luuzən/ [dəˈluuzən] a [duˈluuzə] b

/t/ </t, t/> city /ˈsɪṭi/ [ˈsɪni]^a [ˈsɪṭi]^b
/ɪ/ </-, r/> car /ˈkɑːɹ/ [ˈkhɑːɹ]^a [ˈkhɑː]^b
/j/ </j, -/> new /ˈnjʊu/ [ˈnʊ·u]^a [ˈnjμ·u]^b
/ḥ/ </h, -/> when /ˈḥwɛn/ [ˈwɛnː; ˈhwɛnː;
ˈˈhvɛnː]

/ł/ </l/>
/l/> lull /lʌł/ [ˈlʌ̞łː]ª [ˈlʌɫː]^b
/ḷ/ </l/>
/li/> little /ˈlɪṭḷ/ [ˈluːḷ]ª [ˈluːʈḷ]^b

Vowels

2.1.1. English has a high number of vowel phonemes, so it may be advisable to subdivide them into groups, rather than keeping them all together. This is also useful to make easier comparisons with other languages, and to avoid possible confusions. The essential English vowel phonemes are: (short and long) *monophthongs* $|I, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \alpha, \alpha, \lambda, \upsilon, \omega, \varepsilon, \varepsilon|$ and *diphthongs* $|Ii, \varepsilon I, \alpha \varepsilon, \omega, \alpha, \omega, \omega|$. Furthermore, there are some *diaphonemes*: $|\varepsilon, \alpha, \upsilon, \omega, \omega, \varepsilon|$, and unstressed |Ii, u, v| (plus some other possible devices). But, in the volume *English Pronunciations*, instead of $|Ii, uu; \varepsilon, \alpha, \upsilon, \omega, \varepsilon, \varepsilon, \varepsilon|$, which are more convenient.

We definitely prefer to deal with English pronunciation in a diaphonemic way. It is important to show especially what the American and British accents have in common, so that their structural differences are made clearer and more natural.

American monophthongs

Let us now illustrate the phonemes in fig 2.1. It must be recalled that the transcriptions, including phonemic ones, bear a stress mark, even for monosyllabic words, unless they are usually unstressed in sentences, like the preposition *in* /ɪn/ [un], compared to the adverb *in* /un/ [un], or to the noun *inn* /un/ [un]): [hut] /hut/ hit, [jes] /jes/ yes, [mæn] /mæn/ man, [faða] /faðai/ father, [lat] /lot/ lot, [un] /un/ run, [lon] /lon/ lawn, [phot] /put/ put.

2.1.2.2. The grey markers in the vocogram also show three variants of $|I, \upsilon, \upsilon|$ [I, υ, σ] (compared to normal [I, ω, υ]). They occur in (stressed or unstressed) syllables checked by |I|: [II] $|I \ni I|$, [(j) $U \ni I|$, [$\sigma : I$] |D : I|. There are no differences in terms of the nuclear element (or, perhaps, (nucleal) element) in [EI] $|E \ni I|$, [G : I] |G : I|, because they coincide with the black markers for |E, G : I| [E, G : I|]. Instead, the

typical American realization of /əːɪ/ is through an intense contoid [ɹː], rather than a vocoid as in British pronunciation ([ɜː]).

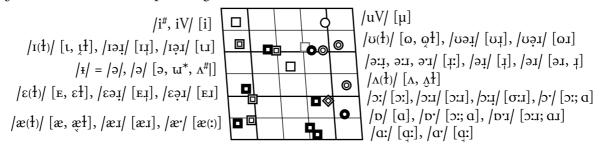
Examples: ['hrːɹ] /ˈhɪəɪ/ here, ['phjʊːɹ] /ˈpjʊəɪ/ pure, ['dʊːɹ] /ˈdɔːɹ/ door, [ˈðeːɹ] /ˈðɛəɹ/ there, [ˈfɑːɹ] /ˈfɑːɹ/ far, [ˈfɹː] /ˈfəːɹ/ fur. A possible pronunciation with [u, ω] (instead of [u, u], for /uəɪ, uəɪ/) does not sound strange, although it is not the most frequently heard.

For /ɔːɪ/ (that is, before vowels: /ɔːɪV/), the realization is [ɔːɪ] (different from /ɔːɪ/, marked by a grey marker): [ˈbɔːɪŋ]^a [-ṭ-]^b /ˈbɔːɪŋ/ boring. In American English the diaphonemic transcriptions /ɪəɪ, ɛəɪ, ʊəɪ/ correspond to /ɪɪ, ɛɪ, ʊɪ/, with their typical articulations shown by the black markers. By the way, the difference between /ɪəɪ, ɛəɪ, ʊəɪ/ and /ɪəɪ, ɛəɪ, ʊəɪ/ (taken into consideration above) should be carefully noted. Here are a few examples: [ˈhɪɹɪŋ]^a [ˈhɪəˌɪŋ]^b /ˈhɪəˌɪɪŋ/ hearing, [ˈbeɪɪŋ]^a [ˈbeəˌɪŋ]^b /ˈbeəˌɪɪŋ/ bearing, [ˈdoɹɪŋ]^a [ˈdjoəˌɪn]^b /ˈdjʊəˌɪɪŋ/ during.

It must be also noticed that, in American pronunciation, the phonemic sequence /jvəi/ has the variant /jəii/ (more typically mediatic): ['phjvi; 'phjii] pure (the variant /(j)əii/ occurs for /jvəi, jvəi/, too): ['khjoiiəs; 'khjiiəs] curious, [un'doiəns; -'di-əns] endurance, ['doiii; 'diii] during. This is also true of other consonants with a cpalatal component: ['ʃvi; 'ʃii] /ˈʃvəi; 'ʃəii/ sure; but ['phvi, -oii] /ˈpvəi, -ii/ poor.

The difference between ['mɔːɪnɪŋ] /ˈmɔːɪnɪŋ/ morning and [ˈmoɪnɪŋ, ˈmoɪnɪŋ] mourning (which, by now, belongs only to ‹traditional› American pronunciation) is no longer neutral, nor is it modern, but simply regional. As a matter of fact, they are now both pronounced [ˈmoɪnɪŋ] ([ˈmoɪnɪŋ] b) /ˈmɔːɪnɪŋ/ (and the traditional pronunciation of mourning could be shown diaphonemically as ‹/ˈmɔəɪnɪŋ/›).

fig 2.1. American monophthongs.



Finally, |a| is the most frequent unstressed vowel phoneme of the English language (in particular American, Oceanian, and South African): [fathag1af1] /fattog1af2] /photographer. In words like ['soofA]a ['s3ofe]b /'soofa, we can see that a

final /9/ before a pause (even a short one), is realized as if it were the (unstressed) phoneme /n/; however, if a pause is not there, this does not occur.

2.1.2.4. In certain types of diaphonemic transcription, it would certainly be better to use precisely this notation. Let us make this fact clear at once, with suitable examples in phonetic and (dia)phonemic transcriptions, in order to avoid any unintentional misunderstandings. In the plural, we have: $[\scalebox{1.5} \scalebox{1.5}$

On the other hand, if we introduce even a simple continuative intoneme, with a short pause, we have: [ipwwz(h)z|soofa: ðəpwwz|oold]^a [ipwwz(h)ə|soofe: ðəpwwz|oold]^b /itwəz(h)ə|soofə,: ðətwəz|oold/ it was her sofa that was old.

Thus, this is what happens to /ə./, /ə?/, /ə;/ /ə,/, (ie with intonemes and pauses of any length). The same is true, but only in the neutral British accent, of /əi./, /əi?/, /əi;/, /əi;/, /əi;/, /əi;/, /əi;/, /əi;/, /əii/, /eii/ dear, ['sende]^b /'sendəi/ sender. Instead, for /ɛəi/, the modern neutral pronunciation has [e3]: ['khe'3]^b /'kɛəi/ care. One generation ago, it was ['khe'e]^b; while, earlier than that, it was ['khe'e]^b; still earlier, it was ['khe'a]^b; and before that, ['khæ'a]^b – but let us close this micro-diachronic digression.

The second taxophone of / = /, [w], occurs in contact with / k, g, g; w, e/ (as they are velar, or at least have a velar component): [bwk w'gen; -en] / bwk = gen / back again, [khwn'then] / ken'ten / contain, $[thw'goo]^a [-en]^b / te'gou / to go$, $[sughthat w'soig, 'soig]^a [-on]^b / sughthat end, <math>[tende]^b$, $[tende]^b$

As can be seen from the vocograms, $[\omega]$ substantially is $[\omega]$ with no lip rounding (and the symbol itself makes this quite clear). However, in these cases $[\bar{\sigma}]$ could be used, without great problems, as is done by some native speakers. On the other hand, the correct articulation may be produced, spontaneously, even by foreigners, when they are able to adequately reproduce all the other phones that realize the English phonemes.

British monophthongs (and centering diphthongs)

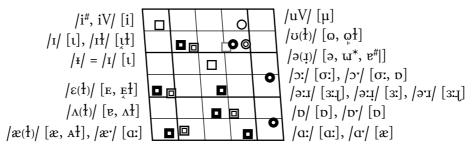
2.1.3.1. Let us now consider the corresponding vocogram for the *British* accent (fig 2.2). Here we have nine *black markers* (for nine either stressed or unstressed phonemes): [1]/I/, [E]/E/, [A]/E/, [A]/E/

Let us quickly add that even for [oː] /ɔːɪ/, as in [ˈwoː(z)] /ˈwɔːɪ(z)/ war(s), by now,

pronunciations like [wore, worsz] are old-fashioned (or regional).

For /1ł, ε ł, ∞ ł, λ ł, ν ł/ we have some modifications, with an actual change only for two of them: ['a-t, 'h λ t'] /' ∞ t, 'h λ t'/ Al, hull (in comparison with [∞ , ν]).

fig 2.2. British monophthongs.



2.1.3.2. For British English, /1əi, ɛəi, vəi/ are given in fig 2.3: [ˈhvɐ] /ˈhɪəi/ here, [ˈphjoʊ] /ˈpjʊəi/ pure, [ˈðɛʒ] /ˈðɛəi/ there. We have already seen that in British English a simple vocoid, with no contoid, occurs in cases like [ˈfɜː] /ˈfəːi/ fur. It is to be noticed that, in this type of pronunciation, the phonemic sequence /(j)vəi/, by this time, is almost exclusively substituted with its variant /(j)ɔːi/: [ˈphjoː; ˈphjoʊ] pure, [ˈphoʊ] poor, [ˈʃoʊ; ˈʃoʊe] sure.

2.1.3.3. Also in the British accent, the four *white markers* show the realizations of the remaining phonemes, always in unstressed positions: [i] /i/, [μ] /u/, [ə, u] /ə/. They occur in the same contexts – /i/ at the end of a lexeme: [ˈleɪdi(z)] /ˈlɛɪdi(z)/ lady, ladies, [ˈeniˌθιŋ] /ˈɛniθιŋ/ anything, and before a vowel: [ɹiˈækt̪] /ɹiˈækt/ react. /u/ occurs chiefly before vowels: [ˌsɪtʃμˈeɪʃn] /sɪtʃuˈeɪʃən/ situation, [thuˈaldʒi] /tu-ˈældʒi/ to Algy. The possibility of finding /ˈvælju/ value (§ 2.1.2.3) is less common in British English.

Finally, /ə/ is the most frequent unstressed vowel phoneme in British English, too, also because of the vocalization of /əi, Vːi/): [fəˈthɒgɹəfɜz] /fəˈtɒgɹəfəiz/ photographers ([fəˈthɑgɹəfɹz]a), [ˈtɪtʃəd] /ˈɪɪtʃəid/ Richard ([ˈɪɪtʃɪd]a), [thwˈgɜːo] /təˈgɔʊ/to go ([thwˈgʊːo]a). Of course, we also find [ɐ] /ə, əi/ (before pauses): [ˈsɜɑfɐ] /ˈsɔʊfə/ sofa ([ˈsʊofʌ]a), [ˈɑfɪɐ] /ˈærftəi/ after ([ˈæɾ)fɪ]a).

2.1.3.4. However, in British pronunciation, $/ \Rightarrow /$ has another –rather important–taxophone, [3]. Phonetically, it is the short version of $/ \Rightarrow : /$ [3:], and occurs for $/ \Rightarrow : /$ followed by the grammemes $/ z^\#$, $d^\#/$, and for non-prepausal $/ \Rightarrow : /$ (while, if $/ \Rightarrow : /$ is final before a pause, it becomes [\mathfrak{v}]).

So we find: ['fɑˈðɜz̯] (['fɑˈðɪz̞]a) fathers and father's, ['ɑˈnsɜd̪] ([ˈæ(ˈ)nsɪd̪]a) answered; and [ðəˈphleʒɜzˌmaən; -ɜɹ̞u-; ˈmaˈən] ([-ɹ̞z-; -ɹ̞uz-; ˈm-]a) the pleasure is mine, [əˈnɐðɜ ˈɡɜːt] ([-ʌðɹ ˈɡɹːt], ˈɡɹːt]a) another girl.

In addition to /əɪ̄[#]/, this happens to non-prepausal /ə[#]/ as well (also in American English, generally only up to [ə], with no need to use [ɜ]): [Ałˈphækɜ ˈkhɜoʈ] ([-ə ˈkhσoʈ]^a) alpaca coat —so, as can be seen, [ɜ] occurs, even near a /k/ &c, instead of [u], cf [aɜłˈphæk uˈkhɜoʈ] ([uˈkhσoʈ]^a) I'll pack a coat)— but: [Ałˈphækɐ] ([æł-ˈphækʌ]]^a) alpaca.

However, even this taxophone can be represented by the usual realization of $/\partial/$: [∂], as many native speakers do. As a matter of fact, compared to [ω], this other taxophone may be less important and almost exclusively limited to the British accent.

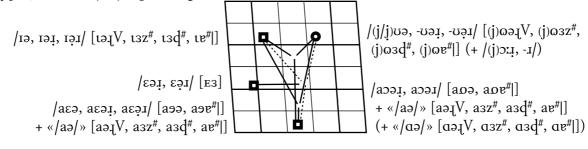
Both in *American* and in *British* English, but with a traditional or regional connotation, /i, u/ may be realized as if they were /i, v/: [ˈleidu(z)], [ˈeniduŋ], [ilˈækt]a [ilˈækt]b, [sitʃoˈeiʃən]a [-ʃn]b, [thoˈætdʒi]a [-At-]b. A possible compromise is [i] for /i/: [-dɪ(z), ˈeni-, ii-a/zi-b, -dʒi]. On the other hand, in American English /uV/ = /əwV/ is quite frequent, too: [sitʃuˈeiʃən, sitʃuˈweiʃən], [ˈvæʃuɪŋ, ˈvæʃuwɪŋ] ([ˈvæʃ-juɪŋ]b) /ˈvæʃuɪŋ/ valuing, and /oɔʊV/ = /əwV/ as well: [ˈfalooɪŋ, ˈfaluwɪŋ] ([ˈfol-soɪŋ]b) /ˈfoloʊɪŋ/ following, [ˈʃædooi, -duwi] ([-dʒoi]b) /ˈʃædoʊi/ shadowy.

2.1.3.5. It is useful to recall here (although this is also true of the preceding cases of /əi/) that, in neutral British pronunciation (as well as Oceanian and South African), the normal realization of /əi/ is [ə]: [phəˈforməns] /pəiˌˈfɔːiməns/ performance, [æsəˈˌtheɪn] /æsəiˌˈtɛɪn/ ascertain, [həˈhezbənd] /həiˌhʌzbənd/ her husband. Of course, this holds good unless in absolute final position before a pause, [ɐ]], or final in a rhythm group, or with the grammemes /z[#], d[#]/, [3[#], 3z[#], 3d[#]]: [ˈhɪəɪɪŋ] /ˈhɪəɪɪŋ/ hearing, [ˈhuɜ wɪðˈjuu] /ˈhɪəi wɪðˈjuu/ here with you, [ˈbuɜzˌ] /ˈbɪəiz/ beers, [ˈhuəɪ ən-ˈðeɜ] /ˈhɪəɪ ən(d)ˈðɛəɪ/ here and there.

The modern neutral British pronunciation of $|\varepsilon\ni z|$ does not change any longer according to context, but it is always [e3] (with a strong tendency to a long monophthong, through [e4], up to $\langle [E] | \langle \varepsilon z \rangle \rangle$, as has, for a few generations, already happened to the previous $\langle | \rangle\ni | \langle \varepsilon z \rangle \rangle$: ['be $\varepsilon\ni | (z) \rangle$ be $\varepsilon\ni | (z) \rangle$ bear(s). For $| \varepsilon z \rangle$, as we have seen, |z| is lost and realized through a $\langle z \rangle$ phone, [0]: ['khɑ:(z)] /'kɑ:(z)/ ε car(s), ['f $\varepsilon\ni | (z) \rangle$ fur(s), ['d $\varepsilon\ni | (z) \rangle$ door(s).

In absolute final position and before pauses, we find: ['bvɐ|] /ˈbɪəil/ beer, [ˈkhjovɐ|] (and [-jʊː|]) /ˈkjʊəil/ cure and [fəˈthogɹəfɐ|] /fəˈtɒgɹəfəil/ photographer. But, if final in a rhythm group, we have: [əˈbvɜ fəˈmɪvi] ([əˈbrɪ fɪˌˈmɪvi]a) /əˈbɪəi fəi-

fig 2.3. British /Və/ diphthongs.



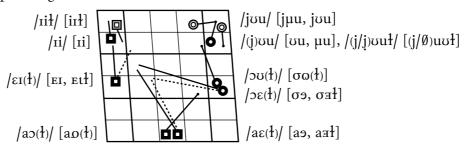
'mɪi/ a beer for me, [ˈðækˈkhjoˈət ˈtzṅ ˈgoˈd, -joːt ˈtz-] ([ˈðækˈkhjʊˈt ˈtzṅ ˈgoˈd, -jtː ˈtz-] a) /ðætˈkjʊət ˈtzṇt ˈgʊd/ that cure isn't good, [ðəfəˈṭhɒgtəfɜ ˈdtdt] ([ðəfəˈṭhɑgtəft ˈdtd-tt] a) /ðəfəˈtɒgtəfət ˈdtdt/ the photographer did it.

Diphthongs

2.1.4.1. Let us now consider the seven phonemic diphthongs of American English. They have ten realizations, which are necessary for a good pronunciation (fig 2.4). The black markers stand for the seven phonemes, while the three grey ones show taxophones, or contextual variants. Meanwhile, we will see: [ii] /ii/, [EI] /EI/, [a9] /aε/, [σ9] /ɔε/, [a0] /aɔ/, [σ0] /ɔυ/, [υu] /υu/: ['thri] /tii/ tea, ['det] /det/ day, ['hae] /hae/ high, ['bσe] /'bɔε/ boy, ['nao] /now, ['gσω] /'gɔυ/ go, ['huu] /'huu/ who. Besides, we need: [it] /ii/, [jμu] /juu/, [υu, μu] /juu/, [(j)uu/] /(j)uu//: ['fit/, 'fit/] /ftil/ feel, ['jμuθ] /'jυuθ/ youth, ['nuu, 'nμu] /'njuu/ new, ['juu/, 'juu/] /'juu// yule, ['khuu/, 'khuu/] /'kuu// cool.

The other diphthongs, even if followed by /ł/, do not change much their components, apart from those with front second elements; besides (except for /ɔʊ/, which has only /ł/, in neutral pronunciation), they freely fluctuate between /ł/ and /ł/ (with a possible realization of /ł/ as /əł/ [ut]): ['sert, 'setl] /'setl/ sail, ['farał, 'farał] /'farał, 'farał, 'farał,

fig 2.4. American diphthongs.

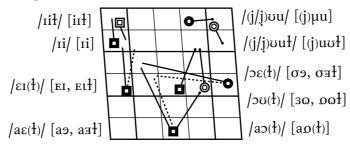


2.1.4.2. For the corresponding *British* diphthongs, we find seven fundamental types, plus six taxophones. The modern pronunciation differs only slightly from the more traditional one (and so there is little difference from the American one) for /ii, ει, αε, σε, ασ/ and for /iił/, too, as can be seen better through a careful comparison between the British (fig 2.5) and the American (fig 2.4) vocograms. But there is a bigger difference for /υu, συ/ and /υuł, συł/. Indeed, we have: ['thri] /'tri/ tea, ['det] /'dat/ day, ['hare] /'hae/ high, ['bore] /'boe/ boy, ['naro] /'nao/ now, and also: ['tirl, 'fiit] /'fiit/ feel, ['sert, 'sett] /'sett/ sail, ['faret, 'faet] /'faet/ file, ['boret, 'boet] /'boet/ boil, but only: ['farot] /'faot/ fowl, ['jurot] /'jout/ yule, ['khurot] /'kout/ cool. We find then: ['sorot] /'sout/ soul and –above all– ['ssro] /'sou/ so, as well as: ['jμυθ] /'jouθ/ youth, ['njμru] /'njou/ new, ['hμru] /'hou/ who (/VVt/ can always be realized as /VVet/ [VVut]).

Of course, the most peculiar diphthong is /ɔʊ/ [ɜɒ], not followed by [ɫ]: [ˈnɜrɒ..

'dʒɔʊ. 'wɔon 'gɜro..] /'nɔʊ. 'dʒɔʊ, 'wɔont 'gɔʊ./ No, Joe won't go. The first element of /ɔʊ/ is central and unrounded, [ʒo], while in American pronunciation it is back and rounded, [ʊo]: ['noro: 'dʒoro: 'woon 'goro:]a. In the British accent, at the beginning of the twentieth century, [oo] was widespread; until the fifties it was [oo], always with lip rounding, while [əo, ʒo], at that time, sounded rather affected.

fig 2.5. British diphthongs.



2.1.4.3. In the vocogram showing /iəi, ɛəi, (j)ʊəi/ (fig 2.3), there are also /aɛəi, aɔəi/. As a matter of fact, in a typical British pronunciation (besides remaining stable, as in American English), both can frequently reduce to </aəi/> [arə] (and [are]): [ˈfaəɜz, ˈfaəɐ] and [ˈfaɜz, ˈfarɐ] /ˈfaɛəi(z)/ fire(s). Otherwise, /aɔəi/ can become (arəi/> [arə] (and [are]), up to coincide with /aː(i)/: [ˈfhaɔɜz, ˈfhaoɐ], [ˈfhaɜz, ˈfharɐ] (also [ˈfhaɪəz, ˈfharɐ]), besides [ˈfhaː(z)]) /ˈtaɔəi(z)/ tower(s).

In this kind of pronunciation (sometimes defined (smoothing)), even the rarer /ɛɪəɪ, ɔɛəɪ, ɔʊəɪ/ can always be lessened, respectively, to 〈/ɛːəɪ, ɔːəɪ, əːəɪ/›. Thus 〈/ɛːəɪ/› (up to coincide with /ɛəɪ/): [ˈleɪɜz, ˈleɪɐ]], [ˈleɪɜz, ˈleɪɐ]], [ˈleɪɜz, ˈleɪʊ]] (and also [ˈleɪə(z), ˈleɪ(z)]) /ˈleɪəi(z)/ layer(s); 〈/ɔ:əi/› (up to coincide with the old 〈/ɔəi/›): [um-ˈphloəsz, -oəɐ]], [-oɜz(z), -oʊe]], /ˈmɔuəi(z)/ employer(s); 〈/ə:əi/› (up to coincide with /əːi/): [ˈmɜɔaz, ˈmɜoɐ]], [ˈmɜːz, ˈmɜʊe]], [ˈmɜː(z)] /ˈmɔuəi(z)/ mower(s) (cf [ˈfaəɪ(z), ˈˈfhaoɪ(z), ˈleɪɪ(z), umˈphloəɪ(z), ˈmooɪ(z)]a).

2.1.4.4. In neutral (both *American* and *British*) pronunciation, $/æ_{\rm I}/$ remains: $[{}^{\rm l}mæ_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}mæ_{\rm I}]^b / {}^{\rm l}mæ_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^b / {}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^b / {}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^b / {}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^b / {}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^a [{}^{\rm l}me_{\rm I}]^$

The difference —only by now in traditional American pronunciation—between ['ɔːɪṭ] /'ɔːɪṭ/ aural and ['oːɪṭ] ‹/ˈɔəɪṭ/› (sometimes, represented as ‹/ˈoːɪət/› or, even, as in the misleading transcription ‹/ˈɔʊɪṭ/›) oral is neither neutral, nor any longer modern: it is [ˈɔːɪṭ] for both. At most, sometimes (in both accents), one can resort to /ˈɒɪṭ/ for oral, in order to avoid ambiguities. But, for this very reason, not infrequently, people even say [ˈaoɪṭ] /ˈaɔɪṭ/ aural).

Vowel diaphonemes

2.1.5.1. There is a difference, especially in British English, between $['fri]^a$ $['fszi]^b$ /'fszi furry and $['hri]^a$ $['hezi]^b$ /'həzi hurry, occurring in just a few words.

In a diaphonemic transcription, it is conveniently represented by $|\partial x| \neq |\partial x|$, as we have just seen.

We must now also introduce the diaphoneme /ə̞ɪ/, occurring in the context /Və̞ɪV/, especially in the set /ɪə̞ɪV, εə̞ɪV, υə̞ɪV/ (corresponding to /ɪə̞ɪ, εə̞ɪ, υə̞ɪ/); more rarely it occurs in /aɛ̞əɪV, aɔạ̞ɪV, ɔɛạ̞ɪV/, as well.

Typically, in American English, /ə/ is dropped and realized as ‹zero›; so we have: [ˈmeɹi]^a [ˈmeʒi]^b /ˈmeəɹi/ Mary (consequently, in American pronunciation, it is the same as merry, and, in current and widespread pronunciation, which however is not neutral –but mediatic, cf § 2.4.2.2– the same goes for marry, too), [ˈkhlu-tŋ]^a [ˈkhlu-tŋ]^b /ˈklu-tŋ]^b /ˈklu-tŋ]^a [ˈkhlu-tŋ]^b /ˈklu-tŋ]^a [ˈdju-tŋ]^b /ˈdju-tŋ]^b /ˈdju

Therefore, in American English, ['split, -ət] holds good both of /'split/ spirit (['split, -t] ['split]^b), and of /'split/ spear it (['split, -ət] ['split]^b). On the other hand, some speakers may distinguish, saying: ['split, -t] /'split/ and ['split, -ət] /'split/. Furthermore: ['hri ən'ðei]^a ['hrə ən'ðei]^b /'hrə ən(d)'ðeəi/ here and there.

2.1.5.2. When /ə/ is preceded by a consonant, it may be dropped (more frequently so in the British accent): [ˌɛləˈmɛn(¹)əɹi, -nfɹi]a [ˌɛluˈmɛntɹi]b /ɛləˈmɛntəɹi/elementary. With this kind of suffix, in American English, a secondary stress is kept, when it is preceded by an unstressed syllable: [ˈdukʃnˌɛɹi, -əˌneɹi]a [ˈdukʃnˌti, -ənti]b /ˈdukʃnˌɛɹi/dictionary, [ˈkhʌsfəˌmeɹi]a [ˈkhɐsfəmti, -mti]b /ˈkʌstəmɛɹi/custom-ary, [auˈthukjələˌtui]a [auˈthukjələtti]b /auːˈtukjələtvːɹi/articulatory. It may thus be convenient to use the diaphonemes /ɛ, vː/, as well. This is very economical, because it helps save some of the space given to transcriptions, especially in dictionaries, without renouncing precious information. For the last example given, there is a variant (chiefly British): [aɪˌtukjəˈleɪtˌti]b /auːtukjəˈleɪtəɹi/).

Especially for *British* English, it may be useful to use the diaphoneme /v/, to show the oscillation between (unstressed) /jə/ and /jv/ [jə, jo]: ['tegjole, -gjə-] /'teg-jvləɪ/ regular, /oːɪˌ'tɪkjvlətɔːɪi; oːɪṭɪkjvlɛɪtəɹi/ [-kjo-, -kjə-], ['khomjoˌnɪzm, -mjə-]; in American English, /jə/ definitely prevails.

Besides, the handy diaphonemes /ju, u/ may be useful, to show the fluctuation between [jouˈnaəf, jo-]^a [jµu-, jo-]^b /juˈnaɛt/ unite, [ˈsrætʃou, -µ]^a [-µu, -µ]^b /ˈstætʃu/ statue.

It is convenient to use the diaphoneme $|\dot{\gamma}|$ in other contexts, too: $[v \exists las \exists i, -s \dagger i]^a$ $[v \exists las \exists i, -s \dagger i]^b$ $|v \exists las \exists i, -s \dagger i]^b$ $|v \exists las \exists i, -s \dagger i]^b$ $|v \exists las \exists i, -s \dagger i]^a$ $|v \exists las \exists i, -s \end{bmatrix}$

2.1.5.3. Two other diaphonemes, /æ, p, are more important in distinguishing between the American and British modern neutral accents. The first, /æ, shows the difference between /æ/a (but it often behaves like a long monophthong $\langle /æ:/\rangle$) and /a:/b (chiefly before /f, θ , s, and before /NC/), as in: $['giæ(')sp]^a$ $['giæ'sp]^b$ /'giæ'sp/grasp, $['læ(')sf]^a$ $['lasf]^b$ /'læ'st/last, $['phæ(')s]^a$ $['pha's]^b$ /'pæ's/pass, $['hæ(')f]^a$ $['haf]^b$ /'hæf/half, $['æ(')f_{IJ}]^a$ $['affe]^b$ $/'æft_{IJ}$ after, $['phæ(')\theta]^a$ $['pha'\theta]^b$ $/'pæ'\theta$ / path.

More examples are: $['d\alpha(')ns]^a$ $['d\alpha'ns]^b$ / $'d\alpha'ns$ / dance, $['phl\alpha(')nt]^a$ $['phl\alpha'nt]^b$ / $[pl\alpha'nt]^b$ / $[pl\alpha'nt]^a$ $['kh\alpha'nt]^a$ $['kh\alpha'nt]^b$ / $[k\alpha'nt]^a$ $['k\alpha'nt]^a$ $['k\alpha'nt]^a$ $['q\alpha'nt]^a$ $['q\alpha'n$

Even in British English, there are forms with /æ/: [ˈæsp] /ˈæsp/ asp, [ˈphænt] /ˈpænt/ pant, &c, of course, besides: [ˈbænd] /ˈbænd/ band, [ˈmæn] /ˈmæn/ man, [ˈmæθs] /ˈmæθs/ maths, &c.

2.1.5.4. The second of these diaphonemes, / D / S shows the difference between / D / A (but / D / A occurs, too) and / D / B (in particular before / S, B, S, B, B and / D / B in: [' D S] / [' D D] / [' D

But, for /p²/, there are even cases like: /p/a (but /ɔː/a is to be preferred) /p/b, as in: [ˈsɑɹi; ˈsɔɹi]a [ˈsɒɹi]b /ˈsɒɹi/ sorry, [thəˈmɑɹoʊ; -ˈmɔː-]a [thəˈmɒɹəʊ]b /təˈmɒɹəʊ/ to-morrow, [ˈwɑtʃ; ˈwɔːtʃ]a [ˈwɒtʃ]b /ˈwɒːtʃ/ watch, [ˈfɹɑrʒ; ˈfɹɔːʒ]a [ˈfɹprʒ]b /ˈfɹɒrʒ/ frog, [ˈtʃhɑklət; ˈtʃhɔː-]a [ˈtʃhɒklət]b /ˈtʃɒ·klət/ chocolate, [ˈdɑr¹; ˈdɔːt]a and [ˈdɑli; ˈdɔːli]a [ˈdpr¹; ˈdoːl/ doll(y), [ˈwɑnt, ˈwɔːnt]a [ˈwɒnt]b /ˈwɒːnt/ want.

It is interesting to notice the peculiarity of ['wɔrjɪ, 'wɑjɪ]^a ['worje]^b /'wɔrṭəɪ/ water. In England, ['wɒte] is no neutral pronunciation; it can be found most commonly in an area including Oxford and Reading. In a few words with /prf, prθ, prs, prft, prst/, even in British English, a minority pronunciation with /p:/ is possible, besides the preferred one with |p|; they are: off, cough, trough, broth, froth, cross, loss, toss, soft, croft, cost, frost, lost, oft, often, soften.

2.1.5.5. There are another couple of diaphonemes, $/\alpha$, \circ /, which are relatively less significant, because $/\alpha$ / is used especially in words of foreign origin, written with an a: ['phasta] a ['phæste] b /'pastə/ pasta, ['viiet'nam, -e?'-] a [-'næm] b /viiet'nam/ Vietnam.

While /ɔ'/ occurs in particular in words written with ausC, aunC, alC: [ɔ'sfrɪ, a-]a [o'sfrɐ, b-]b /ɔ'stɪəɪ/ austere, ['hɔnt, 'hant]a ['hont]b /'hɔnt/ haunt, ['sɔ'tt, 'salt]a ['so'tt; 'sbtt]b /'sɔ'tt/ salt. As the examples show, /ɔ'/ concerns, above all, American English. On the other hand, /a'/ may present twofold possibilities, in both accents, according to words and to speakers.

The (socio)diaphoneme /#/

2.1.6.1. The last vowel diaphoneme we must consider is $|\mathbf{i}| = |\mathbf{a}|$, $\mathbf{i}|$. This refers to the alternation in the realizations of $|\mathbf{i}|$: between $|\mathbf{a}|$ and $|\mathbf{i}|$. Clearly, $|\mathbf{a}|$ $|\mathbf{a}|$ prevails in the *American* accent, while $|\mathbf{i}|$ $|\mathbf{i}|$ prevails in the *British* one, even if things are a little more complicated. Indeed, in American English, too, there are cases of

 $|\pm| = |\pm|$, chiefly in a more refind and more conservative way of speaking. By the same token, in British English, there are cases of $|\pm| = |\Rightarrow|$, chiefly in a less refined and more innovative way of speaking. So, we find a greater convergence at a more up-to-date and modern level.

Here are a few examples: $[sə'viri]^a$ $[si'vire]^b$ /si'viəi/ severe, $['eksədzənf, 'egz-]^a$ $[-idz-]^b$ /'eksidzənt, 'egz-/ exigent, $[khampiə'henfən]^a$ $[khampii'henfn]^b$ /kampii-'henfən/.

2.1.6.2. It may be a good idea to take stock of the situation about some (real or seeming) *suffixes* and *prefixes*, because we still find old-fashioned and outdated transcriptions, especially in bilingual dictionaries. The modern neutral pronunciation, British too, by now, has /ə/ (while /ɪ/ sounds quite pompous) in: -ace ['phæləs] /ˈpæləs/ palace; -ate ['tʃhɑklət]^a ['tʃhɒklət]^b /'tʃɒklət/ chocolate; -ily ['hæpəli] /ˈhæpə-li/ happily; -ity ['khwɑn(1)ə1i]^a ['khwɒntəti]^b /ˈkwɒntəti/ quantity.

When /-əṭi/ is preceded by /s/, it can often become /-sti/. So, a notation like /-sṣṭi/ includes both possibilities, while excluding that the two diaphonemes /ṣ, ṭ/ may work together, because of contextual incompatibilities. That means that, if /ṣ/ falls, then /ṭ/ automatically becomes /t/, because it is preceded by /s/): necessity, univer-

sity, velocity /nəˈsɛsəti, juunɨˈvəːɹsəti, vəˈlɒsəti/.

Besides, we have: -less ['hoopləs]^a ['hoopləs]^b /'hoopləs/ hopeless; -ness ['godnəs] /'godnəs/ goodness. For -ess, /əs/ prevails, chiefly in American English, while in British English /is/ is also possible (actress, waitress); in some cases, /ɛs/ too (duchess); for princess, we have: ['phiinsəs, -es]^a [piin'ses, 'phiinses]^b. To end with, -let ['bieis-lət]^a ['bi-]^b /'bieislət/ bracelet; -ret ['skarlət]^a ['skarlət]^b /'skarlət/ scarlet.

2.1.6.3. We have /ɨ/ (which means, mainly /ə/ in American, but /i/ in British English) for: -ed [ˈweirəd]a [ˈweirɪd]b /ˈweitɨd/ waited; -es [ˈhoːɪṣəz]a [ˈhoːsɪz]b /ˈhɔːɪ-sɨz/ horses; -est [ˈbɪgust]a [ˈbɪgɪst]b /ˈbɪgɪst/ biggest; -et [ˈthɪkut]a [-ɪt]b /ˈtɪkɨt/ ticket, [ˈvefvət]a [ˈvefvɪt]b /ˈvefvɨt/ velvet (but [ˈɪntɹəst, ˈɪn(1)əˌɪest]a [ˈɪntɹəst, ˈɪntəɪɛst/ interest); -ite [ˈapəzət, -s-]a [ˈppəzɪt, -s-]b /ˈppəzɪt, -s-/ opposite.

Besides: -ice ['afəs, 'ɔː-]a ['bfɪs]b / 'brfɪs/ office; -ine [ɪgˈzæmən]a [-ɪn]b / ɪgˈzæmɪn/

examine; -ify ['ve.i,faə] a ['ve.i,faə] b /'ve.i,faɛ/ verify.

Furthermore: be- [buˈkhʌmː]^a [buˈkhæmː]^b /bɨˈkʌm/ become; de- [dəˈmæˈnd], -æːnd]^a [duˈmɑːnd]^b /dɨˈmæˈnd/ demand (but ‹de› /dɪi-/: [dɪiˈnɛɪtʃɨ]^a [-tʃɐ]^b /dɪiˈnɛɪtʃəi/ denature); pre- [phiəˈthɛnːd]^a [phi-]^b /piɨˈtɛnd/ pretend; re- [iəˈthaəɨ]^a [i-thaəɨ]^b /iɨˈtaɛəi/ retire (but ‹re-› /iii-/: [iiiˈgeːin]^a [i-t]^b /iiiˈgɛɪn/ regain).

In words like *become*, *demand*, *pretend*, *retire*, *eleven*, we could add that /‡/ has a possible variant /i/ (or even /ɪi/). This, generally, belongs to a formal American pronunciation; while, the British one is at the opposite side. Therefore, it is safer to stick to what we have just said. Of course, everyone will decide for themselves, especially through the regular consultation of a reliable pronunciation dictionary (but it is much better to look up words, regularly, in more than one dictionary).

To end with, most internal -e-, -i- (in unchecked syllables), generally, have $/ \frac{1}{4}$ (namely, as a trend, $/ \frac{1}{2}$ in American and $/ \frac{1}{4}$ in British pronunciation): $[-\frac{1}{4}]^a$ $[-\frac{1}{4}]^b$ $/\frac{1}{4}$ $[-\frac{1$

2.1.6.4. On the contrary, regularly we have /i/in: -ic(s) [fəˈnenk(s)] a [-tık(s)] b /fə-'neṭik(s)/ phonetic(s); -ical [səˈthɪɪk‡] a [-tɪ-] b /səˈtɪɪk‡/ satyrical; -ing [ˈstændɪŋ]/stændɪŋ/ standing; -ship [ˈfɪenʃɪp] a [ˈfɪ-] b /ˈfɪendʃɪp/ friendship; -ive [ɪnˈthensɪv]/ intensiv/ intensive.

As far as /#/ is concerned, Oceanian and South African English are more like American English.

Usually, /ə/ is unstressed, being the weak vowel par excellence. There are two forms, however, that are very often heard even with stressed /ə/ (except in formal pronunciation): ['tʃhtldɪən, 'tʃhtl-, 'tʃhtl-, 'tʃhtl-]a [-dɪ-]b /'tʃtldɪən, 'tʃəl-, 'tʃvl-/ children, ['dəznt, 'dərnt, 'də-/ doesn't (this is given in an example in § 2.6.4, too). Let us consider also the possibility of (restressing) for emphasis, as in: Oh, I didn't buy it: it wasn't the ['ðri, 'ðəʔ] dress, it was just a ['ʔe-ɪ, 'ʔəʔ] dress (example adapted from a phonetics newsgroup).

Consonants

2.2.0. At the beginning of this section, we will show the table of the consonantal articulations of (American and British) neutral English: fig 2.6. It is useful to make regular reference to it, in order to thoroughly understand the English consonantal system.

fig 1.9-15 show the orograms of all the contoids needed to describe English (and the other languages dealt with in HPr), including secondary, occasional, or regional variants, arranged according to their manner of articulation.

fig 3.6. Table of neutral English consonants.

	bilabial	labiodental	dental	alveolar	velarized alveol.	postalveolar	postalveolar prot.	postalveopalatal protruded	prepalatal	palatal	[postalveolariz.] prevelar round.	velar	velar rounded	laryngeal
N	m	[ŋ]	[n] [t d]	n		r 13/			[ņ]			ŋ		[2]
K KS	рb		[t d]	t d		$[t d]^b$		tf dz				k g		[5]
X		f v	θð					- J J						
S			s z	[ş ҳ] <i>a</i>			гэ	∫ 3			a			1. [C]
J R				$[1 \gamma]^a$			[4]	υ		J	\mathbf{J}^{a}		W	h [h]
L				1	1				[1]					
			/ṭ/ [ra,		//1//	/1, 1/ []	[V, -	lj, ļ-j, ł(C, [#],	, /1/	$[\mathfrak{z}^a,\mathfrak{z}^b]$			

Nasals

2.2.1.1. English has three *nasal* phonemes: /m, n, ŋ/. The velar phoneme does not occur at the beginning of English words, but it is normal in internal and final positions: ['netim] /'neim/ name, [' θ in:] /' θ in/ thin, [' θ in:] /' θ in/ thing, [' θ

In unstressed syllables, after /t, d; θ , δ ; s, z/, there is a typical intense (ϵ) realization of /n/ ([η] / η /; after / θ , δ /, we find [[η]). It is definitely worthwhile to use it in (dia)phonemic transcriptions, as well, although clearly its origin is / θ n/: ['khaf η , - θ n] /'kbt η / cotton, ['wod η] /'wod η / wooden, [' θ n] /' θ n] [' θ n] /' θ n] /'

Furthermore, we have $/ \ni n / (= [\ni n]^a [n]^b)$ after $/ \S$, $z / : [phi \ni_n \land nsi' = i \S n]^a [-e-, - \S n]^b / pi \ni n \land nsi' = i \S n / pronunciation, [phə' = i z ə n]^a [-i z ə n]^b / pə' = i z ə n / Parisian. In a preintoneme, <math>[\ni n]$ can easily become [n], chiefly after $/ \S$, z : f , dz / s.

After other consonants, /ən/ [ən, un] is more usual: [ˈlʌn̞tʃən]^a [ˈlɐ-]^b /ˈlʌntʃən/ luncheon, [ɹəˈlɪdʒən]^a [ɹɪ-]^b /ɹɪˈlɪdʒən/ religion, [ˈɹɪbən]^a [ˈɹɪbən]^b /ˈɹɪbən/ ribbon, [ˈʌnjən]^a [ˈɐnjən]^b /ˈʌnjən/ onion, [ˈtheɪkun] /ˈtɛɪkən/ taken.

When speed is higher, especially in a preintoneme, we can go as far as $[t\eta, d\eta; pm, bm; k\eta, g\eta]$: $[lanthen, -thn]^a$ $[le]^b$, $[lalthen, -dn]^a$ $[le]^b$, $[lanthen, -dn]^a$ $[lalthen, -lanthen]^a$ $[lalthen, -lalthen]^a$ $[lalthen]^a$ $[lalthen]^a$

Regularly, we have: $[n(d)\ni n]/n(d)\ni n/$: $['len\ni n]/len\ni n/$ Lennon, $['land\ni n]^a$ $['len-]^b$ / $['land\ni n]$ London; but, $['wanten, -nten, 'wanten]^a$ $['wanten, -nten, 'wanten]^a$ ['wanten, -nten, 'wanten, -nten, -nten,

2.2.1.2. Assimilation is very important, and it must not be neglected either in the description of languages, or in teaching and learning. Let us notice that, of the three English nasal phonemes, the two marked ones, /m, η /, resist well; while, the unmarked one, /n/, undergoes several changes, contrary to what phonemic transcriptions generally seem to indicate.

However, proceeding in an organized manner, we have: [ˈdɪrɨmd]^a [ˈdɪ-]^b /ˈdɪimd/ dreamed, [ˈdɪemt]^a [ˈdɪ-]^b /ˈdɪemt/ dreamt, [ˈsʌmˌthaəmz]^a [ˈsem-]^b /ˈsʌm-taɛmz/ sometimes, [ˈseɪm ˈkharənd] /ˈsɛɪm ˈkaɛnd/ same kind, [səmˈdʒeli] /səmˈdʒeli/ some jelly, [ˈseɪm ˈvoəs, -m ˈβσəs] /ˈsɛɪm ˈvɔɛs/ same voice, [ˈseɪm ˈfækt, -mp ˈf-, -m ˈφækt] /ˈsɛɪm ˈfækt/ same fact, [ˈkhʌmʃtɪt, -mpf-, -mφ-]^a [ˈkhæmfət, -mpf-, -mp-]^b /ˈkʌmfətt/ comfort. As can be seen, only with labiodentals, /m/ shows a slight let-up, becoming labiodental, [mf; mpf], but this happens just in trivial cases from a lexical-semantic point of view. Otherwise, /f, v/ may become bilabial (constrictives): [mφ, mβ].

Our examples also show that at present a homorganic (labiodental) stop may very often be inserted into the sequence [mf] (ie only with voiceless /f/); but a too frequent use is better avoided. This homorganic insertion can happen with other sequences too: ['worm θ , -mp θ]^a ['worm-]^b /'worm θ / warmth, ['emfi, 'empfi] /'emti/ empty, ['simsn, 'simpsn] /'simsn/ Sim(p)son.

Even /ŋ/ resists well: [ˈɪɔːŋd], ˈɪɑːŋd] [ˈɪɒːŋd] / ˈɪɒːŋd/ wronged, [ˈwɪŋ]bæk] /ˈwɪŋ-bæk/ wingback. Only for the suffix -ing [ɪŋ] /ɪŋ/ (but at a non-neutral level, not to be followed), can we have /ɪn, ɪn, n/: [ˈselɪŋ; \tau-ɪn; \tau-ən] /ˈsɛlɪŋ/ selling. We can also find: [ˈleŋθ, -ŋkθ] /ˈlɛŋθ/ length, [ˈkhɪŋsfən, -ŋks-, -ŋz-, -ṭn] /ˈkɪnstən/ Kingston, [æŋ-ˈzaəəni, æŋg-]a [-ṭi] / /æŋ-ˈzaɛəṭi/ anxiety, [ˈæŋ-əs, ˈæŋk-] /ˈæŋ-əs/ anxious.

2.2.1.3. On the contrary, except in a very accurate way of speaking (even too accurate!), /n/ assimilates to a following contoid: [um'blæk] /m'blæk/ in black, [um'vaət] /in'vaɛt/ invite, [um'fekt; ump-] /in'fekt/ infect, [unðəˈbɑks, unnə-]a [-ɒks]b /inðəˈbɒks/ in the box, ['thenθ; -ntθ] /'tɛnθ/ tenth, ['thens; -nts] /'tɛns/ tense, ['phɪnsɪ, -tsɪ]a [-ɐ]b /'pɪnsəɪ/ pincer (for [n] see below).

For some time, /nzV/ has been simplified (but /ndzV/ can always be restored, according to current spelling): ['wɪnzɪ, -ndzɪ]^a [-ɐ]^b /ˈwɪnzəɪ/ Windsor, ['lɪnzi, -dzi] /ˈlɪnzi/ Lindsey. Even in /nz[#]/, a /d/ can be inserted: [ˈkhlenːz, -nːdz] /ˈklɛnz/ cleanse, [ˈkhlenzɪŋ, -ndzɪŋ] /ˈklɛnzɪŋ/ cleansing. But this is less and less recommendable, specially with grammemes: [ɪˈthæljənz; -ndz; ə-] /ɪˈtæljənz, ə-/ Italians, [ˈdʒɑrnz; -ndz]^a [ˈdʒɒr-]^b /ˈdʒɒnz/ John's.

Furthermore, we have [n] (postalveopalatal, [n]): ['untj] /'intj/ inch, $[un'tjhann]^a$ $[-u]^b$ /[un'tjauna] [un'tjuuna] /'[untj] /'[un

Besides: [ˈhenɪi]^a [ˈhenɪi]^b /ˈhenɪi/ Henry, [unˈthɪunsɪk]^a [unˈthɪ-]^b /ɪnˈtɪɪnsɪk/ intrinsic, [ˈtheŋ ˈgɪːtz, ˈgɪːtz]^a [ˈgɜːtz]^b /ˈtɛn ˈgəːɪtz/ ten girls, &c. Also [umˈwɪn(ʔ)ɪ]^a [-nte]^b /ɪnˈwɪntəɪ/ in winter should be noticed.

A better transcription for [ntJ, ndJ, ntJ] would be [ntJ, ndJ, ntJ], with [n] - and even ([t]) (for a (postalveopalatal stop)). It was stated above that dental <math>[n] could be represented with [n], as well, chiefly in $[n\delta]$, because the simple fact that $[n\delta]$ has (dental) $[\delta]$ allows us to infer that we automatically have $[n\delta]$, by assimilation.

On the contrary, a special symbol would be more important in [nn], to show that it is not [nn] (alveolar, but dental, coming from $[n\delta]/n\delta/$), as, for instance, in: $[nnn\sigma \cdot a_1 + a_2 - a_3] = [-3 \cdot a_3] = [-$

In lexical composition, as well as for the negative prefix un-, in a slow % careful way of speaking, people try to keep [n], while –currently– assimilation to the place of articulation of a following consonant is quite regular.

As an actual compromise, here we will show that it is possible to maintain an apical contact while adding a secondary coarticulation (with no full contact) – bilabial, [m]; labiodental, [m]; velar, [m]: [Ambəˈlɪivəbl, Am-]a [kembi-, kem-]b /Anbi-

In all other cases, with less different coarticulations, assimilation (which is often considered less recommendable, on mere written and grammatical bases) is more elusive. It is therefore used spontaneously, though unconsciously.

To end, simplification is also possible, though less frequently than in the past, in cases like: ['sents; -ns] /'sents/ cents, ['pha'ondz; -nz] /'paondz/ pounds, ['lʌntʃ; -nʃ] a ['lɐ-] b /'lʌntʃ/ lunch, ['lʌntʃən; -nʃən] a ['lɐ-] b /'lʌntʃən/ luncheon, [ɹə'vɛnːdʒ; -nːʒੈ] a [ˌu-] b /ˌɪ+'vɛndʒ/ revenge, ['Eɪndʒ‡; -nʒ‡; -dʒu‡, -ʒu‡] /'ɛɪndʒ‡; -dʒə‡/ angel.

Stops

2.2.2.1. There are three diphonic pairs of *stops* (ie pairs of both a voiceless and a voiced articulation): /p, b; t, d; k, g/. Of course, /t, d/ are *alveolar* [t, d]: [theˈdeɪ] /təˈdeɪ/ today, [ˈdestəˌtout] a [ˈdestuṭjuut] b /ˈdestəṭjuut/ destitute. However, before /θ, ð; s, z/, /t, d/ become dental [t, d]: [ˈeɪtθ] /ˈeɪtθ/ eighth, [ˈwɪdθ] /ˈwɪdθ/ width, [ˈhæts] /ˈhæts/ hats, [ˈherdz] /ˈhedz/ heads.

On the contrary, before /1/ [1] b , in British English, /t, d/ become postalveolar, always due to assimilation: ['th1a'] a ['th1a'] b /'t1a c / try, ['kh a nt1i] a ['khent1i] b

/ˈkʌntɹi/ country, [ˈdɹɪŋk] a [ˈdɹɪŋk] b /ˈdɹɪŋk/ drink.

For /tɪ, dɪ/, however, several pronunciations are possible, mostly with /t, d/ realized as stop-strictives (or caffricates): in American English [tṣ(h)ɪ, dʒɪ; tʃ(h)ɪ, dʒɪ; tʃ(h)ɪ, dʒɪ; tʃ(h)ɪ, dʒɪ; tʃ(h)ɪ, dʒɪ]^b. Furthermore, a (homorganic) constrictive realization is possible for /ɪ/ (which is then, respectively, alveolar or postalveolar rounded, [ŝ, ŝ]): [thŝ, dŝ]^a [thŝ, dŝ]^b. So: ['thɪarə, 'tṣhɪ-, 'tʃhɪ-, 'tʃhɪ-, 'tʃhɪ-, 'tʃhɪ-, 'thh--, 't

All these pronunciations are possible as neutral ones too, although opinions regarding their correctness may be influenced by spelling. On the other hand, from a structural point of view, $/tJ_I$, dJ_I / could represent a fitting parallelism with $/J_I$ /, as in $[J_IJ_I]^b/J_IJ_I$ / shrink.

2.2.2.2. Some other transformations of /t, d/ are much more significant; indeed, although to foreigners [f, d] might seem more (marked), actually, in the natives' phonological system, /t, d/ are an unmarked diphonic pair of stops (as happens to /n/ in comparison with /m, f). From an articulatory point of view, /t, d/ are liable to assimilation; not to (complicate) things, but rather to make them easier.

So, /t, d/, before /p, b, m, w/, generally, become [p, b]: [¡ðæpˈmærn] /ðætˈmæn/ that man, [¡ðæpˈboʻə] /ðætˈbɔɛ/ that boy, [ˈnɑp ˈwʌnː]^a [ˈnɒp ˈwenː]^b /ˈnɒt ˈwʌn/ not one; likewise, before /k, g/, they become [k, g]: [ˈwak kunjəˈdʊʻu, ˈwʌ-]^a [ˈwɒk kunjəˈdʊʻu]^b /ˈwɒt kənjʊˈdʊu/ what can you do?, [¡ðækˈgɹːl, -rl]^a [-ɜːl]^b /ðætˈɡəːɪl/ that girl.

Even the rare sequences /pf, bv/ present some kind of assimilation (in one direction or in the other): $['khap\phiol, -pfol]^a$ $['khe-]^b$ /'kapfol/ cupful, $['abBiəs, 'abv-]^a$ $['b-]^b$ /'bbviəs/ obvious.

Prevelar articulations, which are automatic by coarticulation, need not be expressly written down: ['θιηκιη, 'get] ([['θιηκιη, 'get]]) /'θιηκιη, 'get/ thinking, get.

2.2.2.3. One fundamental thing, already seen in previous examples, which must not be neglected in learning and teaching, is that, in stressed syllables, initial /p, t, k/ are (aspirated) (unless they are preceded by /s/ in the same syllable and in a same lexeme), also after silence (even in an unstressed syllable) – [Ch] /C/: [thə-'dei] /tə'dei/ today, ['phik] /piik/ peak (but: ['spik] /'spik/ speak), ['theik] /'teik/ take (but we have: ['sfeik] /'steik/ stake), ['khe-ɪ]a ['khe-ɪ]b /'keəi/ care (but: ['ske-ɪ]a ['ske-ɪ]b /'skeəi/ scare). Nevertheless, one should notice: [mus'phin(1)əd]a [mus'phin[ud]b /mis'piintid/ misprinted (with different phono-syllables and different morphemes).

American $t/t/[1, \gamma]$

2.2.3.1. An important characteristic of the neutral American accent (which is, however, not neutral in the British accent, although it is fairly widespread) regards /t/ which, in given contexts, is realized as a voiced alveolar flap, [1] (which before [1] is lateralized, as well, ie laterally contracted: [1]).

But, let us see, first, when it remains a voiceless alveolar stop (though, in certain cases, it may become a laryngeal –or glottal– stop, [?]).

In stressed (even (unaspirated), in /st/) or in half-stressed syllable: ['then:] /'tɛn/ ten, ['stem:] /'stɛm/ stem, [aɪːˈthɪkjələˌfoɪi]^a [aˈˈthɪkjələtɹi]^b /aɪːˌtiɪkjələtɹiɪ/ articulatory (+ [aɪˌtɪkjoˈleɪtɹi]^b /aɪːtɪkjoˈleɪtɹi/), [ˈɪouməˌtɪzm]^a [ˈt̪uu-]^b /ˈɪoumətɪzm/ rheumatism.

After a pause or after consonants (different from /n, i, i/): [thə'theik] /tə'teik/ to take, ['ækti] a [-e] b /'æktəi/ actor, ['æ(')fti] a ['orfte] b /'æftəi/ after, ['em(p)ti] /'em(p)ti/ empty.

Before consonants: $['tfhafni, -?ni]^a$ $['tfhafni, -?ni]^b$ /'tfafni (phooəfii) $['phoofii]^b$ / $['phoofii]^b$

It remains [f] even in words in -Vtic (with no secondary stress, too): $['luunəfik]^a$ $['lµu-]^b$ /'luunətik/ lunatic, $['pholəfik]^a$ $['pho-]^b$ /'polətik/ politic, $[ə'inθməfik]^a$ $[ə-'inθ-]^b$ /a'inθmətik/ arithmetic. It is the same even between /i, $\frac{1}{4}$ and / $\frac{1}{4}$? $['no^*in]^a$ $['no^*in]^b$ / $['no*in]^b$ / $['no*in]^a$ $['hilf-]^b$ / $['hilf-]^b$ / $['hilf-]^b$ / $['hilf-]^a$ $[ino^*in]^a$ $[ikhlin]^a$, $[ikhlin]^a$,

2.2.3.2. Let us now turn to the contexts where /t/[t] becomes $/t/[t, \eta]$, in normal (not slow, nor particularly careful) speaking.

Between a stressed (or unstressed) vowel and another vowel, or $[1, \frac{1}{4}]$: ['beri]^a ['beti]^b /'beti/ Betty, ['vɪiroo]^a ['vɪiroo]^b /'vɪiroo/ veto, [ˌvɪzə'bɪləri]^a [-əti]^b /vɪzə'bɪləri

ți/ visibility, [æɾəˈmɪstɪk] a [æɾə-] b /æṭəˈmɪstɪk/ atomistic, [ˈleɪ̞ɹ] a [ˈler̞ɐ] b /ˈlɛṭəɹ/ letter, [ˈlɪɪ̞ɫ] a [ˈlɪɾ̞ɫ] b /ˈlɪt̞ɫ/ little.

Between /n, \downarrow , \uparrow / and a vowel, or $[\downarrow, \uparrow]$ (remembering that, as our examples show, $[1, \gamma]$ may often be dropped after /n/, $[n(1), n(\gamma)]$): $[ibæn(1)am]^a$ $[ibæn[am]^b$ / $[bæn[am]^b$ / $[bæn[am]^b$ / $[aman[am]^b]^a$ $[imæn[am]^b$ / $[aman[am]^b]^a$ $[imæn[am]^b$ / $[aman[am]^a$ $[imæn[am]^a$ $[imæn[am]^a$ [imæn[a

Even before a stressed vowel (provided it is heterosyllabic): [phəˈtheɪroo, phər-eɪroo] a [phəˈtheɪtəo] b /pəˈteɪtəu; pəṭ'eɪtəu/ potato, [ərˈɔːɫ] a [əˈthoːɫ] b /əṭ'ɔːɫ, əˈtɔːɫ/ at all (it should be noted that there is a difference, between the two accents, for at all).

The sequences /nt, it, lt/ may even have (fused) realizations, [ĩ, η, x]: ['pheiñiŋ]^a /ˈpeɪntɪŋ/ painting, ['phaŋi]^a /ˈpaɪṭti/ party, [ˈfɔːxli]^a /ˈfɔːtlti/ faulty.

However, in American English, when speed is reduced, or when more attention is paid to the way of speaking, /t/ [1] becomes /t/ [t]: ['leqt, 'left] /'letət/ letter, ['wιn(γ)4, -n[4] /'wɪntət/ winter. The same goes, even in a normal manner of speaking, for /tt/: ['ʃɛtʔtȝ, -t͡tɹ] /ˈʃɛt̄tət/ shelter, ['ɔʊtʔtȝ, -t͡tɹ, 'αt-] /ˈɔʊt̄tət/ alter. This happens even to less common words, such as: ['vɪiroω, -t̞σω] /ˈvɪitɔu/ veto, ['phleɪroω, -t̞σω] /ˈpleɪtɔu/ Plato, [duˈfɪirˌuzm, -t̞tzm] /dɪˈfɪitɪzm/ defeatism.

Also in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa (and in towns in Wales and Ireland) /t/ is [1, 1]; while, Scotland is well-known for /t/ \rightarrow [7], even between vowels and before [t] /t/ (and even before its typical pronunciation of [21] /21/). The same change, /t/ \rightarrow [7], occurs even in broad accents in England, in particular, in London, Birmingham, &c.

Unexplosion

2.2.4.1. Notably, in English, stops (both voiced and voiceless) are *unreleased*, chiefly after $/V(m, n, \eta, i, l)/$, before pauses or consonants. This means that their third phase (ie their off-glide) is inaudible, incomplete. It is useful to put the diacritic ['] after a proper symbol, to show unreleased contoids, especially at first and, of course, when it is the subject in question, as here.

Therefore, (voiced or voiceless) stops are unreleased after (stressed or unstressed) vowels, even followed by homorganic N (/mp, mb; nt, nd; ηk , ηg /), or by / ι , ι /. This holds good except in very slow or careful pronunciation.

Here are some examples, although it is to be remembered that, when single words are said in isolation, before a pause, it is more usual to produce (and let hear) the off-glide, indicated by [*]: ['bơrô']* ['bơrô']* ['bơrô']* ['bơrô']* ['khxp']* ['khxp']* ['khxp']* ['hærd | hat, ['hærnd]'] | hærd | hand, ['uerd]* ['uerd]* ['uerd]* ['your]* ['your]* ['your]* | hærd, ['hærnd]* ['fort]* ['fort]* ['fort]* ['fort]* ['fort]* ['hærnd, ['durd]* ['fort]* ['bærnd, ['durd]* ['boroon a pause, they are released: ['boroon a pause, they are released: ['boroon a pause, leboroon a leboroon a

Before a consonant, they are unreleased: [ˈækt̞] /ˈækt/ act, [ˈækt̞ɹ]a [-ɐ]b /ˈæktəɹ/ actor, [ˈɪʌrbd̞]a [ˈɹɐːbd̞]b /ˈɪʌbd/ rubbed, [ˈætˈkɪnsn, ˈækk-] /ˈætkɪnsn/ Atkinson,

['be'g'd] /'begd/ begged, ['stap't]^a ['stap't]^b /'stapt/ stopped, ['hat',dag, -ɔrg, -ʔ'-]^a ['hat'-dag, -ʔ'-]^b /'hatdag/ hotdog, ['stap' 'duun]^a ['stap' 'duun]^b /'stap 'duun/ stop doing.

More examples: ['dʒæk' 'phi'ɪt, -iɪt] /'dʒæk 'pɪit/ Jack Peel, ['bo'b' 'go'oz]a ['bo'b' 'gɔ'oz]b /'bob 'gɔʊz/ Bob goes, ['skat'lənd]a ['skot'-]b /'skotlənd/ Scotland, ['ɪp'baəts; ut''b-] /ɪt'baɛts/ it bites, [ut''theɪks, ut''th-] /ɪt'teɪks/ it takes, [uk'khæɹiz; ut''kh-]a [-u-]b /ɪt'kæɹiz/ it carries.

Intermediate articulations are possible between the two extreme ones, above all when people pay special attention to their speech (although this must not lead us to think that these pronunciations are necessarily (better). In fact, for /t, d/(+/p, b; k, g/, in addition to [pp, pb; bp, bb; kk, kg; gk, gg]), the alveolar contact can be maintained, by adding either a bilabial, [f, g], or a velar, [f, g], coarticulation. A bilabial or velar articulation is also possible, to which an alveolar coarticulation can be added: respectively [f, g].

2.2.4.2. The so-called (nasal) and (lateral) *explosions* are included in this group. It is essential that transitions from /t, d/to/n, n; l, l/l/ are direct, with no off-glide similar to (aspiration), and even with no insertion of vocoids.

Therefore, we have: ['phɪf'ni] /'pɪtni/ Pitney, ['wod'n] /'wodn/ wooden, [khum-'phlɪif'li, -ʔ'li] /kəm'plɪitli/ completely, ['lɪɪt̞]a ['lɪt̞'t̞]b /'lɪt̞t/ little, ['swɪnd̩'t̞] /'swɪndt̞/ swindle.

Laryngeal stop [?]

2.2.5.1. It is a good thing to include the laryngeal (or glottal) stop [?] in the symbols inventory of the English phonological system, even if, strictly speaking, there are no (classical) minimal pairs, in order to declare its phonological status. The fact is that it is important, too, to have [?] from a descriptive and teaching point of view.

In the (American and British) neutral pronunciation [ʔ] is used, when there is some emphasis, before vowels, especially stressed ones: [utsʔʔɔˈft̞]a [-ʔơ·-]b /ɪtsˈ(ʔ)ɔːft̞/ it's awful! In British pronunciation, [ʔ] may be used even to avoid the insertion of a non-etymological /ɪ/ (<intrusive>, at the end of § 2.2.9.4): [ˈloː ʔənˈơˈdɐ] /ˈlɔː ən(d)-ˈɔːɪdəɪ/ law and order, instead of the frequent [ˈloːɪˌənˈoˈdɐ] ([ˈlɔː ənˈoˈɪdɪ̞]a).

2.2.5.2. Furthermore, even in neutral pronunciation, before consonants, we often have $|t| \rightarrow [2]$: ['ska?'lənd]^a ['sko?'-]^b, [u?''baəts], [u?''theɪks], [u?''khæɪiz]^a [-u-]^b (adjusting some examples just seen).

Before /t, d; t\(\), dz/: ['get 'da'on, -?] /'get 'daon/ get down, ['gieit 'dz'ook, -?]^a ['gz-, -3\(\)k]^b /'qieit 'dz'ouk/ great joke. Also before /p, b; k, q; f, v; θ , δ ; s, z; \int , z/: ['f\(\text{fop}\)bor\,

-?-, -[-]^a [- σ :]^b /'futbo:]+ football, ['khæk,gaf, -?-, -[-]^a [-e-]^b /'kætgat/ catgut, ['aot 'ðe-], -?]^a [-e-3]^b /'aot 'ðeəi/ out there, ['naf(el, -?-)^a ['nef(el, -?-)^b /'nat(el, nutshell).

Let us also notice: [a9'khæ(')nf ('doutf), -n?, -n (-ə-, -?)]^a [-a'n- (- μ utf, -?)]^b /aɛ-'kæ'nt ('doutt)/ I can't (do it), [wi'woonf ('doutf), -n?, -n (-ə-, -?)]^a [-son- (- μ utf, -?)]^b /wi'wount ('doutt)/ we won't (do it). In absolute final position, [?] is not used, except for /It, ət/, and this only in informal speech: [wi'wonf, -ɔ'nf]^a [-onf]^b /wi-wo'nt/ we want, [wi'won(1)tf, -əf, -?]^a [-onftf, -t?]^b /wi'wo'ntit/ we want it, ['fhtkəf, -?]^a [-tf, -tʔ]^b /'ttk+t/ ticket.

However, the change $/t/ \rightarrow [?]$ is less frequent before /h/: ['EIT 'hæts; -?] /'EIT 'hæts/ eight hats. It sometimes occurs in $/Vt\eta/$: ['khat η , -? η]^a ['khat η , -? η]^b /'kat η / cotton. In $/nt\eta/$, it is more frequent (but it is only possible with /I, 1/I): ['skiænt η , -? η , -? η]^b /'skiænt η , -? η , -? η]^b /'skiænt η , -? η , -? η]^b /'klint η , -? η

 $/t/ \rightarrow [?]$ is no neutral pronunciation, before /V, $\exists i$, $\frac{1}{2}$: ['beri]^a ['befi]^b /'beti/ Betty, ['beri]^a ['befe]^b /'betai/ better, ['lurt]^a ['lurt]^b /'lirt/ little ([\beri] beri], [\beround beri] bere], [\beru] bere], [\beru

Whereas, it is possible, for /p/, (only) before /p, b/, and for /k/, (only) before /k, g/ (otherwise, it is not neutral): ['soop 'phaodi, -?]^a ['sao-, -de]^b /'soup 'paodai/ soap powder, ['bok,kheis, -?,kh-] /'bokkeis/ bookcase, ['bæk 'goridn, -?]^a ['gordn]^b /'bæk 'goridn/ back garden.

British glottalization

2.2.6.1. As far as *British* pronunciation is concerned, we must report the (glottalization) of /p, t, k/, before a pause or a consonant. By the end of the nineteenth century, it was only occasional, but it is now very widespread, often, even among fine neutral speakers.

Naturally, there are gradations, both in intensity and in frequency. It is therefore not really necessary to introduce glottalization into pronunciation. However, its complete avoidance may sound too accurate or even pretentious.

In any case, it might be more advisable to restrict it to the first level, ie to simultaneous glottalization, or real glottalization (or (synglottalization)). Consequently, while a stop -[C]— is being articulated, at the same time, a laryngeal (or glottal) stop -[P]— is produced. This is *not* added *before* the contoid -[PC]— giving two phones (or two segments), but is simply coarticulated with that -[C]— so that this additional closure is not too intrusive: [P, P, C].

Here are some examples, showing the absence or presence of synglottalization: ['phrip, 'phrip'] /'prip/ peep, ['hot, 'hot] /'hot/ hot, ['bæk, 'bæk'] /'bæk/ back.

Furthermore, before contoids: ['æk't, 'æk't] /ˈækt/ act, ['æk'te, 'æk'te] /ˈæktəɪ/ actor, ['æt'kınsn, 'æf'k-, 'æk'k-, 'æk'k-] /ˈætkɪnsn/ Atkinson, [ˈhotˈˌdoɡ, -ʔ-, ˈhof-] /ˈhot-dog/ hotdog, [ˈstop ˈduuŋ, ˈstop ˈduuŋ/ stop doing.

More examples: ['dʒæk' 'phi'ɪt, 'dʒæk', -iɪt] /'dʒæk 'pɪit/ Jack Peel, [ιp''baəts, ιp'-, ιt'-; ιt'-, -ts] /ɪt'baɛts/ it bites, [ιt''theɪks, ιt'-, -ks] /ɪt'tɛɪks/ it takes, [ιk''khæˌizˌ, ιk'-;

ιť-; ιť-] /ɪtˈkæɹiz/ it carries, [ˈskɒtˈlənd, ˈskɒfʾ-] /ˈskɒtlənd/ Scotland, [ˈthɒpᠯmɜωst, -pᠯm-] /ˈtɒpmɔʊst/ topmost, [ˈphɐtʰni, -tʰni] /ˈpʌtni/ Putney.

Still more examples: ['phettat, -ta-] /'petat/ petrol, ['likwt, -kw-] /'likwt/ equal, ['phopjəle, -pj-] /'popjələi/ popular, [lk'saətad, lk-] /lk'saetad/ excited, ['bets, -ts] /'bets/ bets, ['bets, -ts] /'bets/ bets, ['bets, -ks] /'wiks/ wicks, ['witks, -ks] /'witks/ Wilkes, ['winks, -ks] /'winks/ winks.

For the substitution of /t/ with [?] of § 2.2.5.2.

2.2.6.2. A stronger degree of glottalization is the (glottal reinforcement), ie producing [?] just before /p, t, k/: [?p, ?t, ?k] (therefore, (preglottalization)). This is more evident and cumbersome since we have two segments, two phones, even if the laryngeal stop is unreleased, while, in these cases, /p, t, k/ are actually released: [?'p*, ?'t*, ?'k*] before pauses (but not before contoids, in a sentence).

Let us see, now, our examples (in progression): ['phiip, 'phiip, 'phiip] /'piip/

peep, ['hot, 'hot, 'hot] /'hot/ hot, ['bæk, 'bæk, 'bæk] /'bæk/ back.

Before contoids: [ˈækt̞, ˈækt̞, ˈækt̞] /ˈækt/ act, [ˈækt̞e, ˈækt̞e, ˈækt̞e] /ˈæktəɪ/ actor, [ˈæɾ̞ˈkınsn̩, ˈækk-, ˈæɾ̞k-, ˈæɾ̞k-, ˈæʔ̞rk-, ˈæʔ̞k-] /ˈætkɪnsn̩/ Atkinson, [ˈhoɾ̞-, dog, -ʔ-, ˈhoɾ̞-, ˈhoɾ̞-] /ˈhotdoʊɡ/ hotdog, [ˈsrɒp ˈduuɪŋ, ˈsrɒpˀ-, ˈsrɒʔp] /ˈstɒp ˈduuɪŋ/ stop doing.

Finally: ['ʤæk' 'phi'rł, 'ʤæk', 'ʤæʔk', -iɪṭ] /'ʤæk 'pɪił/ Jack Peel, [ɪp''baəts, ɪp'-, ɪʔp-; ɪṭ'-; ɪṭ, ɪʔṭ-, -ts; -ʔts] /ɪt'baɛts/ it bites, [ɪṭ''ṭheɪks, ɪf'-, ɪʔ-, -ks; -ʔks] /ɪt'tɛɪks/ it takes, [ɪk''khæɪiz, ɪk'-, ɪʔk-; ɪṭ'-; ɪṭ'-ɪʔṭ'-] /ɪt'kæɪiz/ it carries, ['skɒṭ'lənd, 'skɒf'-, 'skɒʔṭ'-] /'skɒṭ-lənd/ Scotland, ['ṭhɒp'ˌmɜosṭ, -p'ˌm-, -ʔpˌm-] /'tɒpmɔʊst/ topmost, ['pheṭ'ni, -f'ni, -ʔṭni] /'pʌtni/ Putney.

And: ['phettl, -fl-, -?tl-] /'pettl/ petrol, ['tikwl, -kw-, -?kw-] /'tikwl/ equal, ['phop-jəle, -pj-, -?pj-] /'popjələt/ popular, [tk'saəttl, tk-, tlk-] /tk'saettl/ excited, ['bets, -ts, -?ts] /'bets/ bets, ['bets, -ts, -?ts] /'belts, -ts, -?ts] /'belts, -ts, -?ts] /'bents/ bents, ['wtks, -ks, -?ks] /'wtks/ Wilkes, ['wths, -ks, -?ks] /'wths/ winks.

The (replacement) of /t/ by [?] has been dealt with above (§ 2.2.5.2).

Lenitions

2.2.6.3. In quick informal speech, in British pronunciation, simple /p, b; t, d; k, g/, before unstressed vowels may be weakened, and transformed into constrictive phones (more or less tense, while the two apical ones are *slit* constrictives, different from the more usual *grooved* constrictives, [s, z]), [\phi, \beta; z, z; x, \gamma]: ['pheipaz, 'pheipaz] /'peipaiz/ papers, ['qebe, 'qebe] /'indai/ rubber, ['lefe, 'leee] /'letai/ letter, ['feidin, 'feizin] /'feidin/ fading, ['beike, 'beixe] /'beikai/ baker, ['digin, 'digin/ digging.

In American pronunciation, one possible lenition is just a partial voicing of /p, k/, [p, b; k, g]: ['phειριζ, -pιζ, -bιζ] /'pειροιζ/ papers, ['bεικι, -kι, -gι] /'bεικοι/ baker. A further variation of /t/ = /t/ = [1, 1], may be [1, 1; 1] ([partially] devoiced or [totally] voiceless): ['bε[ι, -ιι, -ιι, -ιι] /'bε[ι/ Betty, ['lε[ι, -1ι, -1ι, -1ι] /'bε[ι/ Betty] ([le[ι, -1ι, -1ι, -1ι] /'bε[ι/ Betty])

In American English, the change $/d/\rightarrow [1, \gamma]$ is also frequent: $[lædɪ; læ-\gamma]/læd-$

əi/ ladder (cf [ˈlæqɨ] /ˈlæṭəi/ latter, which may have a slight difference in duration, [.] – shorter than a semi-chrone, [.]), [ˈɹaəqɨ; ˈɹaəqɨ] /ˈɹaɛdəi/ rider (cf [ˈɹaəqɨ] /ˈɹaɛṭəi/ writer), [ˈbedi; ˈbeni] /ˈbedi/ beddy (cf [ˈbeni] /ˈbeti/ Betty). However, such a pronunciation may not be considered neutral, though very widespread, but only (mediatic).

Another (and neutral) way to keep a difference, partially recovers the voicelessness of /t/: ['læj̄t; 'taəj̄t; 'beṇi], or –better still– totally: ['læj̄t; 'taəj̄t; 'beni] (as mentioned and illustrated above), with no lengthening of the vocoid before /d/ [1, j].

In informal British pronunciation, chiefly in monosyllables of low semantic value, /t#V/ may be realized as [1]: [thu,gefə'ph,eznt, -,genə-] /təgetə'p.eznt/ to get a present, [,gofə'mætʃ, ,gonə-] /gotə'mætʃ/ got a match, [,khwaəfə,b.təv'th,æfik, ,khwaənə,b.tə-] /kwaetəb.təv't.æfik/ quite a bit of traffic, [ıtu'kha:dfəmi, ın-] /tə-'kə:itəmi/ it occurred to me, [,sorty'dʒorb, ,sorny-] /so:itəv'dʒob/ sort of job, ['wot ə-'ph.ti, 'won ə-] /wotə'pi.ti/ what a pity, ['not sonli'dis, 'non son-] /notounli'dis/ not only this, [bəf'ortsao 'dæt, bən-] /bət'ortsao 'dæt, bən-] /bətae'duu/ but I do.

Stop-strictives (or <affricates>)

2.2.7.1. English has just one (diphonic) pair of stopstrictives, [tʃ, tʒ]/tʃ, tʒ/. For segments, or phones, articulatory terms are preferred over auditory ones (and, of course, acoustic ones), because they are much more adequate and clear, generally self-explanatory.

For this reason, we are happy to avoid (affricate), in favor of a more descriptive and tangible (even checkable) term, such as *prestopped constrictive*, which we will presently reduce to *stop-strictive*, after explaining that they are unitary phones, or (sounds), in that they have a total duration comparable to that of any other single phone, like [p, t, t, k] or [f, s, f, x], not like the sum of two of them (as in [ts, kx]).

In addition, they must be homorganic (ie produced at the same place of articulation). So, the first half of a stop-strictive consonantal phone is a short stop, while its second half is a short (fricative) one (or, better, a constrictive one). The place of articulation is determined by the second component, to which the first one is just a mere closure, correctly at the same place (even if no actual stop phone exists at that place, in any real language).

The simpler and more convenient way to symbolize stop-strictive phones is by means of two (monographed) symbols. Of course, the second one is the more specific, so the first can be a looser one, because its only function is to show a closure, which may be generically labial, pre-lingual or post-lingual. For this reason, the stop phases of the various possible stop-strictive phones, are sufficiently shown by using simply [p, b; t, d; k, g].

As we said, the only (diphonic) pair of stop-strictives of the English language is [t, t]/t, t. In stressed syllables (or after pauses, even in the rare cases of unstressed syllable, as in *Chaucerian*), |t|/t is (aspirated), as |p|, t, k/ are (although most

native phoneticians do not say that, in the least): ['tʃhɪmni] /'tʃɪmni/ chimney.

Usually, /tJ, dz/ have (a slight) labial protrusion, and, most often, they are articulated with the tongue tip in a high position (but we need not really use special symbols, such as [tJ], dz.

Besides, /dz/ (as any other voiced phoneme in diphonic pairs) is partially devoiced before a pause or before a voiceless consonant: ['dʒx'dʒ]^a ['dʒv'dʒ]^b /'dʒʌdʒ/ judge.

While English stops are very often inaudibly released, English /tʃ, dʒ/ always show an audible plosion, even when they occur before themselves (notice that we prefer to mark this plosion only here, by means of $[C_*]$): $[\text{wat}_* \text{ 'kheɪfli; 'wort}_*]^a$ $[\text{wbt}_* \text{ 'kheɪfli}]^b$ /'wortʃ 'keəifəli/ watch carefully, $[\text{wut}_* \text{ 'tfhriz; 'huɪf}_*; \text{'hw-}]$ /'hwɪtʃ 'tʃiz/ which cheese, $[\text{plaud}_* \text{ 'tfhrtf}]^a$ $[\text{plaud}_* \text{ 'tfhrtf}]^b$ /plaud 'tʃəɪitʃ a large church.

The only possible reduction may be in changing the first stop-strictive with the corresponding constrictive ($\langle \text{fricative} \rangle \rangle$) one, [\int , Z]: [$\text{wu}\int \text{tfhriz}$; $\text{hu}\int \text{therif}$], [plain] the corresponding constrictive ($\langle \text{fricative} \rangle \rangle \rangle$) one, [\int , Z]: [$\text{wu}\int \text{tfhriz}$; $\text{hu}\int \text{therif}$]. This can also occur with /ndz, ntf/ before /tf, dz/ (seen that /ndz, ntf/ have a less frequent variant /nz, nf/): [supphy dzuus, -nz, lu]. [lu] the lumb dzuus, -nz] b/ (lu) relative dzuus/ orange juice.

For British English, we must add that /tʃ/, as well as /p, t, k/, can show the two kind of glottalization we saw (§ 2.2.6.1-2), with the same frequence and degree of advisability. But, for /tʃ/, it occurs even before vowels: ['fetʃ, 'fetʃ, 'fetʃ] /'fetʃ/ fetch, ['bentʃ, -ntʃ, -ntʃ] /'bentʃ/ bench, ['ssttʃt, -tʃt, -ttʃt] /'səzitʃt/ searched, ['ssttʃmi, -tʃmi, -ttʃmi] /'səzitʃmi/ search me, ['fetʃtt, -tʃtt, -tft] /'fetʃt/ fetch it, ['thutfe, -tʃe, -tfe] /'tritfəɪ/ teacher.

Finally, chiefly in British English, /tʃ/ may become [ʔʃ], before a pause or a C: ['feʔʃ, 'benʔʃ, 'sɜʔʃt, 'sɜʔʃmi] (examples we have already seen) and ['khætʃ; 'khæʔʃ] /'kætʃ/ catch, [¿¯wtf 'bok.; ¿¯wtʔ 'bok.] /'whtf 'bok/ which book?

Constrictives (or <fricatives>)

2.2.8.1. Also for this manner of articulation (as for the stop-strictive one, rather than (affricate)), we prefer to use an articulatory term, because of its greater clarity.

There are four (diphonic) pairs, /f, v; θ, ð; s, z; ∫, ʒ/ [f, v; θ, ð; s, z; ∫, ʒ]. For /f, v/ readers are referred to what has been said about /pf, bv/ (§ 2.2.2.2). We now add some examples that show the frequent reduction or dropping of /v/: [a១ˈkhæ(¹)m bəˈlr-ivˌðæt, -iuˌð-, -iˌð-]a [-ɑ·m bɪ-]b /aɛˈkæ·nṭ bɨˈlnivðæt/ I can't believe that, [ˈgɪvmi ˈfa-y, ˈgɪumi, ˈgɪmi] /ˈgɪvmi ˈfaev/ give me five!, [aəyˈʃo·ɪṭndɪt, aəŷ-, aə-]a [-o·ṭ-]b /aɛvˈʃɔ·ɪṭndɪt/ I've shortened it (in spite of an information loss in comparison with I shortened it), [ðeɪˌˈla-əvz ɪˌˈtheɪəbt̩, -əuz, -əz, ðṭ-]a [ðeə-, əˈˌtheɪu-]b /ðeəiˌˈlaevz əɪˌˈtɛɪ-tbt̩/ their lives are terrible (in spite of the ambiguity with their lies are terrible), [ˈfo-ɪ̞- ˈfa-əy- ˈsɪks- ˈsevn̄- ˈsɪk- ˈsepn-]a [ˈfo-ː]b /ˈfɔ-ɪ̞- ˈfaev ˈsɪks ˈsevn̄- ˈsɪt/ ...four, five, six, seven, eight... And, let us note: [ˈʤeφ ˈphɪṭ, ˈfa-əß ˈbɪts] /ˈˈdɛf ˈpɪt, ˈfaev ˈbɪts/ Jeff Pit, five bits.

 $|\theta, \delta|$ are slit dental (whereas in American English a (prodental) or (interdental)

articulation is possible, perhaps more often indeed, which may be transcribed with $[\![\theta, \delta]\!]$; however, since their auditory impression is not very different, the official symbols, $[\theta, \delta]$, may be sufficient. It is important for foreigners to acquire this slit articulation well: $[\![\theta \cup \eta k]\!] /\![\theta \cup \eta k]$

Besides, in quick informal speech, $/^{\sharp}\eth/$ in forms such as the, that, this, both is normally assimilated: ['wats zə'tharəm, 'wats]^a ['wbts]^b /'wbts ðə'taɛm/ what's the time?, ['wats 'zæṭ, 'wats]^a ['wbts]^b /'wbts 'ðæṭ/ what's that?, ['boos 'sarədz]^a ['bsos]^b /'bɔuð 'saɛdz/ both sides, [hizðu'weɪqɪ, hizðu-, hizzu-]^a [-ṭɐ]^b /hizðə'weɪtəɪ/ he's the waiter, [unðə'moˈɪnɪŋ, unðə-, unnə-]^a [-oˈn-]^b /unðə'mɔˈɪnɪŋ/ in the morning, ['ɔːf ðə-'tharəm, 'ɔːfðə-, 'ɔːflə-]^a ['oˈxf]^b /'ɔːf ðə'taɛm/ all the time.

2.2.8.2. /s, z/ are grooved dental constrictives, usually pronounced with the tip of the tongue raised, ie (denti-alveolar), so that they could be transcribed with [s, z], especially for comparative purposes, in order to emphasize the difference between [s, z], pronounced with the tip of the tongue lowered. On the other hand, native speakers themselves may indifferently have one articulation or another, even vacillating, so the plain symbols can safely be used: ['setim] /'setim/ same, ['itoozəz] ['itoozəz] / ['itoozəz]

For word-initial sm-, sn-, sl- (as well as for the non-autochthonous sr-), /s/[s] is normal (contrary to some other languages): $[smox^{\frac{1}{2}}]^a$ $[smox^{\frac{1}{2}}]^b$ $/smox^{\frac{1}{2}}$ $/smox^{\frac{1$

For *dis*-followed by a voiced stop, there are several possibilities, both phonetic and phonemic: [dusbə'lriy, -sb-] /disbə'liv/ *disbelieve*, [dus'de'in, -s'd-, -z'd-, -z'd-, -'st-] /dis'dein, -z'd-, -s't-| *disdain*, [dus'gast, -s'g-, -z'g-, -z'g-, -'sk-]^a [-est]^b /dis'gast, -z'g-, -'sk-| *disguise*, [dus'gasz, -z'g-, -z'g-, -'sk-] /dis'gasz, -z'g-, -'sk-| *disguise*.

Let us now observe (but only here) that /s, z/ preceded by one or more consonants, are usually articulated as (dental/denti-alveolar) approximants, [s, z], rather than as constrictives: ['ʃaps]^a ['ʃops]^b /'ʃops/ shops, ['θæŋks] /'θæŋks/ thanks, ['bɛłːz]^a ['bɛłːz]^b /'bɛłz/ bells, ['hænːdz] /'hændz/ hands. But it is sufficient to transcribe: ['ʃaps]^a ['ʃops]^b, ['θæŋks, 'bɛłːz, 'hændz]^a ['bełːz]^b.

In American English, the sequences /is, iz/ are realized as [is, iz] (with alveolar constrictives): ['frst] /'fəːist/ first, ['phrs] /'pəːis/ purse, [hrskrt] /həːiskəːit/ her skirt, [frsməːl 'phripl] /fəːisməːl 'pripl/ for small people, ['doːiz] /'dəːiz/ doors, ['frz] /'fəːiz/ furs. In British English, /si, zi/ generally become [sɪ, zɪ]: ['njuuznil/ newsreel.

More often, $/\int z/$ are produced with the tip of the tongue raised, ie as capico-postalveo-palatal rounded) contoids, so that more suitable symbols, contrastively, could be $[\![\int, z]\!]$. But, as several natives pronounce them with the tip of the tongue lowered, $[\![\int, z]\!]$ will be sufficient. The most important thing to keep in mind is that they have a certain degree of lip protrusion (indeed, they must be labeled as protruded): $[\![\int_{z} p]\!] /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p]\!] /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p]\!] /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z} p]\!] /\![\int_{z} p /\![\int_{z}$

For /s, z/, too, assimilation is rather important. As a matter of fact, /s, z/ \rightarrow /\int, z/

[ʃ, ʒ] before /ʃ; tʃ, dʒ; j/: [ðtʃʃɑp]^a [-ɒp]^b /ðtsˈʃɒp/ this shop, [ðtʃˈdʒɑːɪ]^a [-ɑː]^b /ðts-ˈdʒɑːɪ/ this jar, [ðtʃˈgrɪ]^a [-vɐ]^b /ðtsˈʃɪəː/ this year, [ðtfʃˈgruz]^a [-pruz]^b /ðtizˈʃʊuz/ these shoes, [ˈhæʒʃi, ˈhæʃʃi] /ˈhæzʃi/ has she?; even /stʃ/ \rightarrow [ʃtʃ] is possible: [ˈkhwestʃən, -ʃtʃ-] /ˈkwestʃən/ question.

Generally, with *you*, *your*, there is a complete fusion between elements: [a១ˈmuʃʌ, - μ]^a [a១ˈmuʃµ; - ν]^b /aɛˈmɪsju/ I miss you, [hiˈnɪid ʒɪ̞ˈhɛɫp, -dʒ ɪ̞-; - ν ɪ̞-]^a [ʒəˈhɛɫp, -dʒ ə-; - ν -]^b /hiˈnɪidz jɔ̣ːɪ̞ˈhɛɫp/ he needs your help, [əʒəˈse་ɪ, ʒə-; ˌæ-, - μ -] /æzjuˈsɛɪ/ as you say. Let us also consider: [əˈʒɛʈ; æ-] /æzˈjɛt/ as yet. (Making use of diaphonemes like /æ, ɔ̞ː/ may help in reducing the space of a phonemic transcription, chiefly in a dictionary.)

Approximants

2.2.9.0. In order to present the important components of this particular manner of articulation in a simple way, we will proceed by specific categories.

English
$$r/I/[I]^a[J]^b ((x/I/)$$

2.2.9.1. The English $\langle /r/ \rangle$ phoneme is completely different from that of most languages, which have alveolar trills or taps [r, r]. It is thus extremely important to use a different symbol for English r, even at a phonemic level: / I / I. Furthermore, American and British English have two quite different articulations, although -from an auditory point of view— the impression is quite similar. However, there are some perceptible differences: suffice to say that the American type has a relatively higher intrinsic timbre than the British.

Once and for all, it is of paramount importance to establish the exact articulation of both kinds of approximants. Unfortunately, except in very few cases, even among native English phoneticians, there exists odd and perhaps too-traditional ideas about the precise nature and articulation of / 1, which are not based on real analyses of sounds and accurate kinesthesia as well. It is true that the American r is articulated in a backer position than the British one, but its retraction refers to the dorsum not to the tip of the tongue.

2.2.9.2. It is proved that the American /1/ is a prevelar approximant, with a very slight –and (almost) uninfluential– raising of the tip of the tongue towards the postalveolar region. Instead, the British sound is decidedly postalveolar, [1], in the specific meaning of an area after the alveolar one, approached by the tip of the tongue (not by the lamina, as in the *IPA* official point of view). It is actually an apico-postalveolar articulation.

It will be very important to observe the orograms of these two approximants very carefully (fig 1.13.3). Both of them are laterally contracted, just as real lateral phones, but there is no contact with the roof of the mouth (as, instead, with real laterals). The absence of such a lateral contraction would simply deprive these ar-

ticulations of their typical timbre, which is so similar (in these two appoximant phones), even though their actual articulations are relatively very different.

In addition, both [1] and [1] show a certain amount of lip rounding (more evident in stressed syllables), which –changing both towards a duller timbre– contributes in making them less different auditorily, while remaining articulatorily rather different.

2.2.9.3. Once the exact articulations are clear, it is easy to understand why, for /tɪ, dɪ/, the British pronunciation regularly undergoes assimilation, giving [tɪ, dɪ]. On the other hand, the fact that the auditory impression is so similar for these two types of phones, may explain why, even in the American pronunciation, [tɪ, dɪ] can be used, besides the more usual ones, [tɪ, dɪ].

Certainly, it is very strange that the majority of phoneticians (even native ones) keep on using the symbol [4] to hint at the American type, which is far from being postaveolar. By the way, the term *postalveolar* corresponds to the official one cretroflex, which picturesquely tries hard to pass itself off as a real point of articulation, while, in fact, it is at most just a very peculiar articulatory modification. But, as is well known, good kinesthetic, auditory (and even acoustic) skills are not the same for all people...

Up to now, we have seen several examples of $/1/[1]^a$ [1]^b, and several others will follow. Let us remember only that our diaphonemic transcription rigorously distinguishes between /1/, which is always pronounced in the two accents, and /1/, which is pronounced, as such, only in American English. As a matter of fact, in British English, /1/ corresponds to (zero), as r is pronounced only before vowels: $[117]^a$ $[117]^a$

In American pronunciation, /əi/, preceded by vowels or consonants, is realized as [i]. It is the same even for /əi/ (and, by and large, for /əi/); /əi, əi, əi/ are realized as [ii]: [ˈmirdi]^a [ˈmɜrde]^b /ˈməidəi/ murder, [ˈmirdəi, -dii]^a [ˈmɜrdəie, -die]^b /ˈməidəiəi, -dəiəi/ murderer. Also [əi, əii]^a, for [i, ii]^a are acceptable, even if less frequent.

2.2.9.4. However, /ɪ/ is pronounced, even in British English, when it occurs final in a rhythm group before a following rhythm-group initial vowel (and there is no intervening pause, not even a short one). In this way, the two words are bound together, and /ɪ/ becomes /ɪ/ [ɹ]: [ðuˈkhɑːɪ əˈɪarəvd]a [ðuˈkhɑːɪ əˈɪarəvd] [ðuˈkhɑːɪ əˈɪarəvd] [ðuˈkhɑːɪ əˈɪarəvd] [ˈtheɪk ˈkherɪ əvjɪˈsɛlf, -juː-]a [ˈtheɪk ˈkherɪ əvjoˈself, -jə-]b /ˈteɪk ˈkeəɪ əvjɔːɪˈsɛlf/ take care of yourself.

On the other hand, on the analogy of word-final /əi, ɪəi, ɛəi, ʊəi, ɔːi, ɑːi/, very frequently, also final /ə, ɪə, ʊə, ɔː, ɑː/ are realized as the previous ones, even if no etymological r is present in their spelling: [ðiaəˈduəʔ)əvuṭ; -uələvuṭ] /ðiaɛˈdɪəəvɪt/ the idea of it, [uˈlaəzə ˈɛlus; -zəl ˈɛlus] /ɪˈlaɛzə ˈɛlus/ Eliza Ellis, [ˈdʒriˌbii ˈʃoː ˈɑːs(k)t; -ʊːl] /ˈdʒribii ˈʃoː ˈɑːskt/ G. B. Shaw asked.

This use is very widespread, chiefly for /əi/, although good speakers try to avoid it, but many others use it airily, even teaching it to foreigners (who should avoid it, unless they are very fluent and have a very good command of British English).

In a broad New Zealand accent, $/ \mathfrak{z} / \mathfrak{z} = [\mathfrak{z}]$, instead of $[\mathfrak{z}]$, usual also in neutral New Zealand English. As in American English (except in typical Southern, Eastern, and Black accents) and Canadian English, also Irish English (in the whole island) has $/ \mathfrak{z} / = / \mathfrak{z} / \mathbb{Z}$. The same goes both for an area in the South Island in New Zealand and for the West Country in the southwest of England (as well as for some more limited areas in the North of England). A typical Scottish accent, usually, has $/ \mathfrak{z} , \, \mathfrak{z} / = [\mathfrak{c}]$.

As a speech defect, /1/ is realized as a labiodental [v]. This is so widespread, especially in Great Britain, that someone considers it to be normal (all the more so because it is frequent in the mediatic British accent).

The other approximants

2.2.9.5. The voiced palatal approximant, /j/ [j], has no particular characteristics. It is therefore more interesting to talk about the diaphoneme /j/, that –restricting ourselves to the two neutral accents– distinguishes American English from British English, because, between /n, t, d/ and /vu, v/, in <non-weak> syllables (ie those with primary or secondary stress), in American pronunciation /j/ becomes <zero>.

This means that, in American English, /njv(u), tjv(u), djv(u)/ correspond to /tv(u), dv(u), nv(u)/, while, in British English, they are /njv(u), tjv(u), djv(u)/: ['nvu]^a ['njµu]^b new, ['thvub]^a ['thjµub]^b /'tjvub/ tube, ['dvuk]^a ['djµuk]^b /'djvuk/ duke.

It is true that, in American pronunciation, one can even find ['njμ'u, 'fhjμ'ub, 'djμuk] and even a compromise realization, ['nμ'u, 'fhμ'ub, 'dμuk]. However, the more usual pronunciation has [υu], even if ['du'u] may happen to correspond to both /'duu/ do and /'djυu/ due, &c.

In you and your, due to the assimilation of /j/ to preceding /t, d/, there are noteworthy expressions such as: ['dσωρτβλ, -μ]^a ['dσωρτβμ; -ɐ]^b /'dσυπτβμ, -ə/ don't you?, ['wωdρτβλ, -μ]^a [-μ; -ɐ]^b /'wυdρτβμ, -ə/ wouldn't you?, ['khωdσλ, -μ]^a [-μ; -ɐ]^b /'kυdσμ, -ə/ could you?, ['dɪdʒɪ ˈbɪλðɪ ˈgσ·ω, -dʒʊɪ]^a ['dɪdʒo ˈbɪ̞ɐðu ˈgɜ·ω; -dʒə]^b /'dɪdʒʊəɪ ˈbɪλðəɪ ˈgɔʊ/ did your brother go? For the assimilation to preceding /s, z/, see above (\$ 2.2.4).

Although rarely, English phonotactics presents sequences such as: ['jɪp] /'jɪp/ yip, ['jɪist] /'jɪist/ yeast. Before /ɪi/, /j/ may be realized as a semi-constrictive contoid, [j], which is stronger than [j]: ['jɪist]]. On the other hand, in unstressed syllables, /j/ [j] may lessen, up to a semi-approximant, [J]: ['neb-Jələs]] /'nɛbjələs/ nebulous.

2.2.9.6. The velar rounded approximant, [w] /w/, has no particular characteristics, apart from such rare sequences as in: ['word] /'wood, ['wounded]^a ['whundid]^b /'wounded. Before /ou/, /w/ may be realized as a semi-constrictive contoid, [w]: ['wyu-]^a ['wyu-]^b; while, in unstressed syllables, it may lessen, up to a semi-approximant, [w]: [wtðaot] /wtðaot/ without. It is important to remember that /w/ has a strong bilabial component, which causes changes in the realization of preceding /n, t, d/: ['khæp₁wɔrk, -ʔ-, -†-]^a [-work]^b /'kætwɔːk/ catwalk, ['khoːm-

wɔ-ł, -n-] a ['khormwo-ł, -n-] b /'kɔ:ɪnwɔ:ł/ Cornwall.

By now, the sequence /hw/ [w, hv, hw] has only a secondary role, which (at least in theory) allows us to distinguish words beginning with wh- from those with a simple w-. It is to be said that such a distinction is no longer neutral; it can still be found either as a voluntary effort, or -chiefly- in some non-urban American pronunciations or in some northern British ones: ['witʃ] /ˈwitʃ/ witch, [ˈwitʃ; ˈhutʃ; ˈhwtʃ] /ˈhwtf/ which; [ˈwet] /ˈwet, [ˈwet]; hwet] /ˈhwet/ whet.

This distinction is more stable in Scotland, Ireland (including Ulster) and in New Zealand. For /hj/, we can have [hj, h]: ['hjµudʒ, 'hj-, 'h-] /'hjvudʒ/ huge; where-

as [j] is acceptable only in American pronunciation.

2.2.9.7. The last English approximant (although too many phoneticians –even native speakers– insist in classifying it as a constrictive) is [h] /h/. It occurs before vowels and –between voiced sounds– it can become voiced: ['hæt] /'hæt/ hat, ['hʊu]^a ['hµu]^b /'hou/ who, [phɪˈhæps, phɪˈhæps]^a [phə-]^b /pəɪˌˈhæps/ perhaps, [bə-ˈha·ənd, -fi-]^a [bu-]^b /bɪ-haɛnd/ behind.

In British (and Welsh and Australian) uneducated pronunciation, /h/ often becomes $\langle \text{zero} \rangle$, $|\emptyset|$: $\langle |\emptyset \text{ &t}, |\emptyset \text{ ou}| \rangle$, hat, who, &c. However, it must be clearly stated that in non-emphatic grammemes (not occurring after a pause) the change $|\#h| \rightarrow |\emptyset|$ is quite normal: ['thelum] /'telum/ tell him, ['therky]^a ['therky]^b /'terkəi/ take her (very different from ['thel: "hum:]^a ['thel: "hum:]^b /'tel "him/ tell him!, ['therk "hx:]^a ['therk "hx:]^b /'terk "hə:i/ take her!).

On the other hand, in comparison with Romance languages, we must emphasize the importance of caspirations for /p, t, k, tʃ/, at the very beginning of stressed syllables (and even of unstressed syllables after pauses), including second elements of compounds: [thəˈtheɪk] /təˈtɛɪk/ to take, ['thɛlˌtheɪt] a ['the-] / 'tɛlteɪt/ telltale (but ['steɪk] /stake).

Laterals

2.2.10.1. The only lateral English phoneme, from a strict intraphonemic point of view, is //l // [l, t], with two very important taxophones, or contextual allophones (together with others, by coarticulation, as we will see). In actual fact, given their considerable importance, from a descriptive and teaching point of view, our diaphonemic transcription makes use of /l, t/ (instead of a more abstract /!/ —which is decidedly less (interphonemic)— for /t/). There is one caveat: although we have decided to include /t/ among our diaphonemic symbols, this does not imply that we consider it a real phoneme, as no opposition exists in English between /t/ and /l/. It is simply a very useful guide for foreigners to make a safe and straightforward choice between them. On the other hand, in an almost neutral pronunciation, certain speakers may present cases such as: ['khadlıŋ]a ['kha-]b /'kadlıŋ/ codling and ['khadlıŋ]a ['kha-]b, besides [-dluŋ, -dəluŋ, -dtuŋ] /'kadəluŋ/ coddling, including [-dluŋ], which unifies different pronunciations into one.

Traditional transcriptions excessively hide many characteristics, including the

difference between [‡, ‡], and the actual fact that, before (a heterosyllabic) /j/, not only does [‡] not occur (as, instead, it does before any other consonants), but it is prepalatal, [‡], [ˈmu̞l-jən]. In other contexts, it is alveolar, [‡], as in: [ˈluusaət] [ˈluu-, ˈljuu-] / ˈluusaɛt, 'lj-/ leucite. Even between a stressed short vowel and another vowel, which makes one syllable with /l/, in the neutral (American or British) pronunciation, [‡] (not [‡]) is used: [ˈfɑl-i] / ˈfroli/ folly, [ˈfal-oa] [ˈfol-aa] / ˈfroləu/ follow, [ˈthel-um] / ˈtɛlɪm/ tell him, [ˈfɪilu̞t] / ˈfɪilɪt/ feel it, [ˈfɔːl ˈaot] / [ˈfoːl] / / ˈfɔːl ˈaɔt/ fall out, [ˈbul ˈevənz] / ˈbɪl ˈevənz/ Bill Evans.

2.2.10.2. Their distribution is in any case rather simple, once it has been clearly explained. As we have said, in diaphonemic transcriptions, it is convenient to use the two primary symbols, $[l, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ although (to be precise) it would be useful to use at least four symbols, $[l, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ (besides $[\frac{1}{2}]$ in British [and British-like] pronunciation, before [L], [L],

Before V, we regularly have /l/ [l]: ['lriv] /'lriv/ leave, ['læ(')st] a ['lorst] b /'læ'st/ last, ['lok] /'lvk/ look, ['loren] /'lɔɛn/ loin. To be rigorous, lip-rounding also occurs before rounded V, by coarticulation: [['lok, 'loren]]; however, a special symbol –like [l]] — is not needed, since it is absolutely inevitable to prepare the lips for the rounded vocoids that follow, within the syllable.

In fact, an articulation of /l/ without lip-rounding, [l], would somehow be perceived as something (strange), exactly as for /k, g/ followed either by front V or by /j/, or else by rounded V or by /w/: the articulations [k, g] and [k, ĝ], respectively, are natural and automatic: [ˈkhɪt] [ˈkhtt] /ˈkɪt/ kit, [ˈget] [ˈget] /ˈgɛt/ get, [ˈkhjprub] [ˈkhjprub] /ˈkjʊub/ cube, [ˈkhozɪ] a [ˈkhozɪ] [-oz] / /ˈkɔzɪ/ core, [ˈĝʊus] a [ˈgpus] / [ˈg-] /ˈgous/ goose, [ˈkhoat] [ˈkwaet/ quite.

Therefore, in particular for $/\frac{1}{4}$, an cobjective pronunciation, obtained by juxtaposing /p/ and $/\frac{1}{4}$, for instance, would produce an effect that may perplex native speakers. Strictly speaking, in fact, $[p\frac{1}{4}]$ would have something less in comparison with the genuine $[p\frac{3}{4}]$, as in $[phrip\frac{1}{4}]$ $[phrip\frac{1}{4}]$ [phr

2.2.10.3. It is important to notice that, for postvocalic and tautosyllabic *l*, after rounded *V*, in the various languages, labial coarticulation regularly occurs; therefore, it need not be marked, as instead we are doing here. Before heterosyllabic /j/, we find [] (and []): ['mɪljən] /'mɪljən/ million, ['boljən] ['bol-] /'buljən/ bullion, ['ɔːl̄ jəˈnɪˈid]]^a ['oːl̄]^b [-l] /'ɔːl̄ jəˈnɪid/ all you need; before /θ, ð; ts, dz/, we have [l̄, t̄], [l̄]: ['fɪlθi] ['fɪlθi] /'fɪlθi/ filthy, ['ɔːl̄ ðə'thaˈəm]]^a ['oːl̄]^b ['ɔːl̄ ðə'thaˈəm]^a ['oːl̄]^b ['ɔːl̄ ðə'taɛm/ all the time, ['bɛl̄ts]^a ['bɛl̄ts]^b ['bɛl̄ts]^a ['bɛl̄ts]^b ['bɛl̄ts] belts, ['fɔːl̄ts]^a ['fɔːl̄ts] faults. With /θ, ð/ + /l/, we have [l̄] (dental, but not velarized): [əˈmʌnθ ˈleɪt] a [əˈmɛn-] b [-nθ ˈleɪt] /əˈmʌnθ ˈlɛɪt/ a month late, [wɪðˈlʌˈv̪] a [-eʊv]^b [wɪðˈl-] /wɪðˈlʌv/ with love. In British English, before /ɪ, tɪ, dɪ/, it is realized

as postalveolar, $[\![t], \hat{t}]\!]$: $[\![t]$ htld $[\![t]$ an $[\![t]$ htld $[\![t]$ b $\![t]$ htld $[\![t]$ an $[\![t]$ b $\![t]$ htld $[\![t]$ b $\![t]$ an $[\![t]$ b $\![t]$ b $\!$

Before pauses, or another C, we have [1, 1], [1]: ['btl:] /'btl/ bill, ['btl:] /'btl/ bull, ['htl:] /'htl/ bull, ['fotl] ['fo

When $/1^{\#}/$ and a word-initial V meet with no pause between, we have [1,1]: [fri-

lt] /frilt/ $feel\ it$, ['ɔːl 'oov] a ['oːl 'aove] b ['ɔːl] a ['oːl] b /ˈɔːl 'ovvəi/ $all\ over$.

Often, many transcriptions present sequences of /əlV/, because they refer to slow or careful speech: $[\text{'navəlist}]^a$ $[\text{'nb-}]^b$ /'nbvəlist/ novelist, [bə'lriv] /bə'lriv/ believe, [phə'lris] /pə'lris/ police, $[\text{khu'lizən}]^a$ $[\text{-zn}]^b$ /kə'lizən/ collision; currently, though, we find: $[\text{'nav}]_a$ $[\text{'nb-}]_b$, $[\text{b}]_a$ $[\text{'riv}]_a$, $[\text{ph}]_a$ $[\text{ris}]_a$, $[\text{kh}]_a$ $[\text{-zn}]_a$. It is interesting to compare the following forms, which generally maintain a slight difference of syllabic structure, in comparison with the cases previously seen: $[\text{'blrit}]_a$ /'blrit// bleach, $[\text{'phlriz}]_a$ /'plriz/ please.

2.2.10.4. We will now report, though not recommend, the frequent insertion of a homorganic stop before /0, s, \$\int \(\) (not /f/) preceded by /\frac{1}{2}: [\frac{1}{2}\text{thi}] \] [\frac{1}{2}\text{thi}] \

In non-neutral American pronunciation, /l/ can be realized as [ł] (sometimes even [ł]) before V or /j/. This can also occur in New Zealand, in northern Wales, but most of all in Scotland. On the other hand, in Ireland, in South Africa, and in southern Wales, usually, [l] may be heard, even before C or pauses.

Other less systematic differences

2.2.11.1. Finally, there are some more or less isolated words, which are pronounced differently in the two neutral accents. Others often show both pronunciations. In American pronunciation, word-initial syllables are commonly full, ie

not pronounced with /ə/: /vɛɪˈkɛɪʃə̞n/a /və-/b vacation, /nɔʊˈvɛmbəɪ/a /nə-/b november. Even the article a often has a full timbre (which could sound too formal in British pronunciation): /ðəˌizəˈgʊd ˈɪɪizn̩, -zɛɪ-/a /-zə-/b there's a good reason.

Furthermore, bisyllabic verbs in -ate, more frequently in American English, bear initial stress: /ˈdɪktɛɪt, -ˈtɛɪt/a /-ˈtɛɪt/b dictate, /ˈvaɛbɹɛɪt/a /-ˈbɹɛɪt/b vibrate. The suffix -ILE is /-əɨ; -aɛɨ/a /-aɛɨ/b: /ˈhɒstaɛɨ/ [ˈhɑstɨ, -aɪɨ]a [ˈhɒstaɪɨ]b hostile (and mobile as well), /ˈfəɹɪṭaɛɨ/ [ˈfɪrnɨ; -aɪɨ]a [ˈfɜrṭaɪɨ]b fertile, /ˈmɪsaɛɨ/ [ˈmɪsɨ]a [ˈmɪsaɪɨ]b missile (and reptile, sterile). But we have: /ˈdɒsɨ; -aɛɨ/a /ˈdɔusaɛɨ, ˈdɒsaɛɨ/b docile and /ˈdʒuu-vənɨ, -ənaɛɨ/a /-ənaɛɨ, -ənɨ/b juvenile. We also find: /ˈpɹɒ-/a /ˈpɹɔu-/b pro: /ˈpɹɒsɛsɪŋ, -ə-/a /ˈpɹɔu-, ˈpɪɒ-/b processing, /ˈpɹɒgɹɛs, -əs/a /ˈpɹɔu-, ˈpɪɒ-/b progress (but: /ˈpɹɔu-gɹɛm/ programa, -mmeb).

To end with, let us see: /sɪvəlɨˈzɛɪʃən; -laɛ-/a /-laɛ-, -lɨ-/b civilɪzation, /ˈkæpɨlɛɹi/a /kəˈpɪləɹi/b capillary, /ˈkɔːɹəlɛɹi, ˈkɒ-/a /kəˈndəɹi/b corollary, /ˈlæbəɹətɔːɹi/a /ləˈbuɹə-təɹi/b laboratory, /ˈnɔʊbʌdi, -bɒ-, -bə-/a [ˈnoɒˌbʌdi, -badi, -bədi]a /-p-, -ə-/b [ˈnɜɒˌbɒ-di, -bədi]b nobody (and any-, every-, some-). Let us also notice this (seemingly curious) word: $\langle -bab/a | bab/a |$

2.2.11.2. Here is a collection of over 100 interesting cases, which we present exceptionally in alphabetic order, giving current spelling first. However, we must be aware that, not infrequently, speakers of one of the two accents (a and b) use pronunciations shown for the other accent. For single words, this is quite obvious:

address (an) |'ædies, ə'dies| a |ə'd-| b advertisement /ædvə, 'taszmənt, 'æ-, əd'vəzitismənt, -iz-/a /əd'vəzi-/b agave $|\exists \operatorname{ga:vi}|^a |\exists \operatorname{ge:vi}, -\operatorname{ar}, \operatorname{æge:v}|^b$ *albino* /æłˈbaɛnɔʊ/a /-ˈbɪi-/b American [əˈmeɹwkwn, əˈmɹrw-] a [ə- $[me_likun]^b$ anti- /anțae-, -i-/a /-i-/b apparatus /æpəˈɪæṭəs/a /-æt-, -ɛɪt-/b $artisan / \alpha itizn/a / \alpha itizzen, 'a itizzen/b$ ate $|\operatorname{eit}|^a$ | et , $\operatorname{eit}|^b$ ballet /bæˈlɛɪ/a /ˈbælɛɪ/b because $|b_1|k_{\Lambda Z}$, $-D_1 Z|^a$ $|-D_2|^b$ Berkshire /ˈbəːɪkʃɪəɪ, -ʃəɪ/a /ˈbɑːɪkʃəɪ, -191/p beta /ˈbɛɪtə/a /ˈbɪitə/b *cabaret* /kæbəˈɹεɪ/^a /ˈkæbəɹεɪ/^b *cadre* /ˈkædɹi, ˈkɑː-, -ɛɪ/ a /ˈkɑːdəɪ, -dɹə, 'kει-/*b* centenary | sənˈtɛnəɹi, ˈsɛnṭənɛɹi/a |-ˈtɪinəzi, -'t ϵ -/ b charade $\int \exists \operatorname{izid}/a - \operatorname{did}/b$ chassis /\frac{\pi}{\pi}si, \text{'tf-, -sis}/a /\frac{\pi}{\pi}si/b

chirrup /ˈʧəɪɹəp, ˈʧɪɹ-/a /ˈʧɪɹ-/b cigarette /'sɪqəɹɛt, -'ɹɛt/a /-'ɹɛt/bcircumstances /ˈsəːɪkəmstænsɨz, -tə-/a /-tə-, -tæ-, -taː-/b clerk /ˈkləːik/a /ˈklɑːik/b comrade /kpm.iæd, -id/a /-eid, -id, 'kлm-/*b* consommé /konsəˈmεɪ, ˈkonsəmεɪ/a /kənˈsɒmεɪ, ˈkɒnsə-/b controversy /kontroversi/a /kon-, kən'tıpvəisi/b cordial /ˈkɔːɹdʒt/a /-dj-/b coupé /kouˈpɛɪ/a /ˈkoupɛɪ/bcreek /ˈkɪɪik, ˈkɪɪk/a /ˈkɪɪik/b cuckoo /ˈkʊukʊu, ˈkʊ-/a /ˈkʊkʊu/b data /ˈdɛɪṭə, -æ-, -ɑː-/a /-ɛɪ-, -ɑː-/b $d\acute{e}mod\acute{e}$ | $d\epsilon_{\rm I}m$ $d\epsilon_{\rm I}/a$ | $d\epsilon_{\rm I}$ m $d\epsilon_{\rm I}/b$ derby /ˈdəːɪbi/a /ˈdaːɪbi/b deterrent d_1 'təzənt, -ɛɹ-a /-ɛɹ-bdoctrinal |'doktsint||^a |dok'tsiαε-, 'dok-|^b drama /'dıɑːmə, 'dıæ-/a /'dıɑː-/b dynasty /ˈdaεnəsti/a /ˈdɪ-, ˈdaε-/b *either* /ˈɪiðəɹ̞; ˈaε-/^a /ˈaε-, ˈɪi-/^b

erase $|\mathbf{1}|\mathbf{1}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{1}\mathbf{s}|^a$ $|\mathbf{z}|^b$ figure |ˈfɪgjəɪ̩/a |ˈfɪgəɪ̞/b ses/bfinancier /faenæn'sıəi, -nən-, fi'nænsiəi, faɛ-/a /faɛ'næn-, fɪ-/b (just one stress pattern) fracas /ˈtɹækəs, ˈtɹɛɪ-/a /ˈtɹækɑː/b 'kwınıin/b from / finm, fiom / a / fiom / b $d[agart] \frac{d}{dt}$ garage $|g \Rightarrow 1 \text{ az}, -dz|^a$ $|g \approx 1 \text{ az}, -dz, -1 \text{ az}|^b$ haras /həˈiæs, ˈhæiæs/a /ˈhæ-, hə-/ b *herb* /ˈhəːɹ̩b; ˈəːɹ̞b/a /ˈh-/b *hero* /ˈhɪə̞ɹɔʊ, ˈhɪiɹ-/a /ˈhɪə̞ɹ-/b $humble / (h) \land mb / a / h - / b$ semi- / $_{i}$ semae-, -i-/ $_{a}$ /-i-/ $_{b}$ humo(u)r /hjʊuməɪ; 'j-/a /hj-/b shone $|\int \sigma da| da| \int \sigma da| da|$ $idea /a\epsilon' diiə/a /a\epsilon' diə/b$ idyll /'aɛd‡/ a /'aɛ-, 'ɪ-/ b *inquiry* /ˈɪŋkwəɹi, -ˈkwaεə̞-/^a /-ˈkwaεə̞-/^b isolate |'aεsəlειt; 'ι-|a |'aε-|b *khaki |*'kɑːki, 'kæ-*|^a |*'kɑː-*|^b* lasso /ˈlæsɔʊ, -ʊu, læˈsʊu/a /ləˈsʊu, læ-, ˈlæsɔʊ/b leisure /ˈlɪiʒəɪ, ˈlɛ-/ a /ˈlɛ-/ b lever /ˈlɛvəi, ˈlɪi-/a /ˈlɪi-/b lieutenent /louˈtɛnənt/a /lɛfˈt-, ləfˈt-/b -æ-] a ['stlartəm, -ei-] b margarine /ˈmɑːɹdʒəɹən, -əɹɪin/a /mazidzə'ınin, 'mazidzənin, -gə-/ b massage /mə'sazz, -dz/a /'mæsazz, -dz/b *melancholy* /ˈmɛlənkɒli/a /-əli, -ɒli/b migraine /maegiein/a /mae-, mi-, 'm1i-/b kει, -ɔːɪ̞-/b miscellany |misəˈlɛini|a |mɨˈsɛlə-, misətrait /'tieit/a /'tiei, -t/b *multi-* /_ιmʌlṭaε-, -i-/ a /-i-/ b vase /'veis, -z/a /'vozz/b mustache (mou-) /ˈmʌstæʃ, məˈst-/a /məˈstɑːʃ, mʊ-/b *neither* /ˈnɪiðəɪ̞; ˈnaɛ-/a /ˈnaɛ-, ˈnɪi-/b nougat /'nougət/ a /'nouga:, 'nnougat/ b of $|\nabla v|^a |\nabla v|^a$ omega /ουmega, -ει-, -ιi-/a /oumiga/bomicron /ˈɒmɪkɹɒn, ˈɔʊ-/a /ɔʊˈmaεkıon, -ən, 'omikıon/b-ʊəɹt/*b* $Z/z_{i}a/z_{\epsilon}d/b$ on / vn, sin/a / vn/bpatriot /ˈpɛɪtɹiət/a /ˈpɛɪ-, ˈpæ-/b plateau/plætou/a/plætou/bzero /ˈzɪəɹɔʊ, ˈzɪiɹ-/a /ˈzɪəɹ-/ b . premier / pit|miəi, 'pii-, 'pie-/a / 'pie-,'p.11i-/b

princess /piinses, -əs/a /piinses, 'piinprivacy /ˈpɹaɛvəsi/a /ˈpɹɪ-, ˈpɹaɛ-/b *puma |*'pʊumə, ˈpjʊu-/^a /ˈpjʊu-/^b quinine /ˈkwaɛnaɛn, -nɪn/a /kwɪˈnɪin, $rather/ ix \delta = i; in - a [ix (i) \delta i, in - a]$ $ration / \exists x = -a / \exists x = -b$ record (a) /ˈɪɛkə.id/a /ˈɹɛkə.id/b reveille /ˈɪεvəli/a / ɹɨˈvæ-, -ˈvε-/b schedule / skedzt/a / sdzout, sk-/bsimultaneous /saɛm²/tɛɪniəs/a /ˈsɪm-/b sojourn / soudz = in/a / soudz = (i), in, sa-/bsolder /spdəi, 'sp:-/a /sput-, 'spt-/b spinach / spinit / a / - dz, - t / b*squirrel* /'skwəːɪɫ; -ɪɹ-/^a /-ɪɹ-/^b stewardess /ˈstjʊuəɪdɪs/a /ˈstj-, -ˈdɛs/b *stirrup* /ˈstəːɪəp; -ɪɪ-/^a /-ɪɪ-/^b stratum /ˈstɪɛɪṭəm, -æ-/ [ˈstɹeɪnəm, subaltern |səˈbɔˈłtəin|a |ˈsʌbł̞-/b suggest /səˈdʒɛst, səgˈdʒ-/a /səˈdʒ-/b syrup /'səxxəp, 'sxx-/a /'sxx-/b tomato /təˈmɛɪt̞ɔʊ/a /-ɑː-/b tourniquet /ˈtʊəɹnɨkɨt, -əːɹ-/a /ˈtʊəɹnɨtrachea /'tɹɛɪkiə/a /'tɹɛɪ-, tɹə'kɪiə/b *upon* $|\partial^{l}p\Lambda n, \partial n, \partial n|^{a} |\partial^{l}p\Lambda n|^{b}$ water | wɔːtəi, wɒ-|a| | wɔː-|b|*what* /ˈwʌt, ˈwɒt; ˈhw-/^a /ˈwɒt; ˈhw-/^b $wigwam / wigwom, -xim]^a [-xim]^b$ $wrath / | x\theta |^a / | x\theta |$, $| xz\theta |^b$ xerox /ziəloks, ziil-/a /ziəl-, zel-/b yogurt, -ourt, -gh- /ˈjɔʊgəɹt/a /ˈjɒ-, ˈjɔʊ-, zebra /ˈzɪibɹə/a /ˈzɛ-, ˈzɪi-/b $zenith / ziin_{\theta}; ze-/a / ze-/b$

There is an additional short list of words that in American English may often have also $/\infty$: $[\infty]^a$, besides the more usual $/\infty$! $[\alpha]^a$ $[\infty]^b$: chocolate, doll, dolly, dolphin, god, golf, gone, mock, on, resolve, revolver, rolf, solvate, solve, stomp, swamp.

Structures

2.3.0. In this section, we will deal with various macro-segmental aspects, including intonation.

Unstressed syllables and (reduced forms)

Indeed, many vowels (and consonants) may disappear entirely in comparison with spelling, as in: ['khʌmfɪpəbt, -ftɪ-, -fɪ-; -mtɪ-]a [-emfətə-, -ftə-, -fə-; -mtə-]b /'kʌn-fəitəbt, -mf-/ comfortable, ['mɑɪgɪət, -ɪət]a ['mɑrgɪət, -iət]b /'mɑɪgəɪət/ Margaret, [ijuunə'vṛṣəni, -ṣti]a [-ˈvɜrsəti, -sti]b / jounəˈvəːɪsəṭi/ university.

However, not all unstressed syllables have vowel reduction or fall: ['khament]^a ['kho-]^b /'koment/ comment, ['æsfɔ-lt, -a-lt]^a /'æsfɔ-lt, -a-lt/ [-Alt, -o-lt]^b /'æsfælt, -ɔ-lt/ asphalt, ['khoupan; 'khj-]^a ['khuupan]^b /'koupan/ coupon.

Only regular consultation of a pronunciation dictionary (or, better, dictionaries) can give the exact structure of words and sentences, in English as in any other language.

In English sentences, respect of the reduction, or weakening, of many grammemes (or functional words) is vital: articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary and modal verbs, some pronouns and some other forms. There are not many reduced forms (using a clearer term than the traditional one (weak forms)) – about eighty – but they are the most frequent ones. They are listed below (with examples), in alphabetical order, for easy consultation.

2.3.1.2. The examples given illustrate various elements simultaneously. It is worthwhile to observe them very carefully and to consider all the variants given (but only in phonetic transcription, for the sake of space, in a very economical way, while full transcriptions would have been more monotonous, and would not be able to show the same things with precision):

a: $[\exists' \exists i]^a [-i]^b a letter$, $[\exists' mæ'n] a man$, $[\sqsubseteq' ga'\exists] a guy$, $[\iota n \sqsubseteq' wa'\exists'] in a while$, $[\exists' \mu un \exists i]^a [-\iota i]^b a un it$, $[\exists' n \exists i]^a i n a me$;

am: $[aem'welt]^a [-elt]^b I'm$ well, [aem'faen] I'm fine, [aem'g'aerd], aem-, aeg-] I'm glad, [emes'en], -aeg-] [emes'en] am I wrong?;

an: $[\exists n' \not = p^{\dagger}]$ an apple, $['gan \ni n'ass_ikh x im, -t_in'-]^a$ $['gb-, -t_i-]^b$ got an ice cream?, $[\exists n-t_i]^a$

' α :m]^a [θ n' θ :m]^b an arm, [θ n' θ :m] an aim;

and: $[\exists n'\eth en; n-]$ and then, $['b ed m'b n]^a$ $['b ed m'b ete]^b$ bread and butter, $['b e b n'k et]^a$ $['b e b]^b$ Bob and Kate, $['j e u n'a e, n n]^a$ you and I;

- any: [ι zð_‡'eni 'bɪe'd¸, -ðe‡-]^a [-ðə‡-¸, 'b‡-¸, -ðe³-]^b is there any bread?, ['hævəntʃu 'gan eni'moːɪ¸, əni-¸, -† ni¸, -† ni¸, -² ni¸, -tʃµ]^a ['gɒ†¸, -ʔ]^b haven't you got any more?;
- are: ['ðr'iz ‡'jʊ'‡z, ‡'jʊ'±z]^a [ə'jʊ'z; ə'jo'3z]^b these are yours, [aɪjw'wɛt:, ‡jw-, ‡jw-; arj-]^a [ajw'wɛt:, əjw-, əjw-; arj-]^b are you well?; but notice how are you? [hao-'aɪjw] [-'ajw] (since ['hao-'jwu] [ə'-] would be contrastive);
- as: [əzəˈmæqɪ əvˈfækt, zə-, vˈf-, əˈf-]a [-ˈmætət-, -tt-]b as a matter of fact, [əʒʃiˈse-d, əʃʃi-] as she said, [ˈdʒʌst əzˈgo-d, dʒəstə-]a [ˈdʒe-]b just as good, [ˈnɑt sooˈlaət ə-zıʔˈloks, sə-, -aət sı-, -t̪ˈl-]a [ˈnɒt sao-]b not so light as it looks;
- at: [ətðəˈtheɪb‡, əʔðə-] at the table, [əʔˈlɪist], ətˈl-] at least, [wkˈkhleɪ, əʔˈk-] at Clay, [əpˈw.rk, əʔˈw-, ətˈw-]^a [-ɜ·k]^b at work;
- be: [biˈgord] be good!, [ˈleɪɪp biˈmri, -ʔ; -ʈ]^a [ˈleʈɪ-]^b let it be me, [asˈwoom(p) bi-ˈlɔɪŋ, Λ -, -ɑɪŋ]^a [-so-, e-, -ɒɪŋ]^b I won't be long;
- been: [aəbbınu'we'ı, -ben-; -bən-, aəq-; aəə-; aəhə-] a [-bın-, -brin-] b I had been away (I'd);
- but: [bətˈðenː, bəʔ-] but then, [bukˈgoʻo, bəʔ-] a [-3·o] b but go, [bəpˈbɪli, bəʔ-] but Billy;
- by: [baəˈɔːtɨminz, bлə-, bл-]^a [-σ:t, beə-, be-]^b by all means, [ˈsorotd baəðəˈpharond, bə-]^a [ˈssrot-, bə-]^b sold by the pound;
- can: [khunaəˈhævɪṭ] can I have it?, [wikm̩ˈplheɪ, -kum-] we can play, [jukḥ-ˈgơːo, -kuŋ-, jµ-] a [-ɜːo] b you can go;
- could: ['ðæk kud'dvu, -ʔ, -†] a [- μ u] b that could do, [wikub'meikiț, -d'm-] we could make it;
- did: [dɪdiˈsteˈi ˈlɔˈŋgɨ, ddi-, -aŋ-]^a [-ɒŋge]^b did he stay longer?, [ˈwen dɪdiˈkhʌmː, ddi-, di-]^a [-emː]^b when did he come?, [ˈharo dɪdʃʃriˌnσo, də-, dʃ-]^a [-so]^b how did she know?, [ˈharo dɪdɪkˈgoro, ddi-, di-, də-, -ʔˈg-, -ʈˈg-]^a [-ɜro]^b how did it go?, [ˈharo dɪdðeɪˈlaəkɪṭ, də-, ddð-, dð-] how did they like it?, [ˈweˈi dudʒuˈgoro, -μ-, -dj-, ddʒ-, dʒ-]^a [ˈweˈɜ, -ɜro]^b where did you go?;
- do: [ʤəˈnσωιṭ, ʤμ-, dj-]^a [-sω-]^b do you know it? (d'you), [ˈweːɪ ʤuˈkhɪipɪṭ, ʤμ-, dj-; dəj-]^a [ˈweːɜ]^b where do you keep it? (d'you), [ˈsσːω duˈwɪri, dμ-]^a [ˈsɜːω]^b so do we, [ˈweːɪ dəðeɪˈluʊ, dμ-]^a [ˈweːɜ]^b where do they live?, [ˈwʌṭ djuˈwɑnṭ, -jμ-, dəj-, dij-, dij-, ˈwɑ-, -ʔ, -ɔːnṭ]^a [ˈwɒnṭ]^b what do you want?, [ˌdμɑː/tʃhɪɫdɪuŋ ˈɡɜːω]^b do our children go?;
- does: [dəzιpˈw.rk, -ʔˈw-, -fˈw-]^a [-ˈwɜˈk]^b does it work?, [ˈwʌfdəzi ˈmrɨn, -tdzi, -tsi-, -ʔ-, ˈwa-]^a [ˈwb-]^b what does he mean? (what's), [ˈwen dəǯʃiˈduuɪf, ˈwen ǯi-]^a [-ˈdμuɪt]^b when does she do it? (when's), [ˈharo dəzιʔˈlok, dzi-, zi, -itˈlok] how does it look? (how's);
- for: [ˈlokfɹit, -fəɹit]^a [-fəɹit, -fit; -foɹit]^b look for it, [ˈstɛˈɪ fɹiuˈwɪik, -fɹiu-]^a [-fəɹiu-, -fiu-, -fɪi-]^b stay for a week, [itsfɹˈjμ·u]^a [itsfəˈjμ·u, -fi-]^b it's for you;
- from: [fiəmˈskurʊt]^a [fiəm-]^b from school, [fimˈðeˈi]^a [fimˈðeˈi]^b from there, [ˈweˈi ˈɑˈijəˌfiʌm, -am; -jμ-, ˌwei]^a [ˈweil ˈɑˈjəˌfipm, -jμ-, ˌweil-]^b where are you from?; had: [hədaəˈsiint, hæ-] had I seen it, [ðeiədˈdaˈəd, ðeid-; -ihəd-] they had died

(they'd), [uəbbun'dʌn:, -db-, -en-; -ən-; u[hə-]^a [u[ə-, -un-, -iin-, -en:]^b it had been done (it'd), [ðəˈmæˈn ugˈgɔːn, əd-, -un]^a [-ɒˈn]^b the man had gone, [ʃiˈhæd] [ə-ˈsteɪ], -æt] /[iˈhæd təˈsteɪ] she had to stay (+ [-æn ə-]^a [-æt ə-]^b [-æt ə-]);

has: $[\text{həzi'go:n}, \text{hæ-}, -\text{q·n}]^a$ $[-\text{b·n}]^b$ has he gone?, $[\text{fiz'dan:}, \hat{\text{fiəz-}}]^a$ $[-\text{en:}]^b$ she has done (she's), $[\text{tts'bin:}, \text{tiəz-}]^a$ $[\text{tts-}, -\text{rin}, -\text{tn:}, \text{tiəz-}]^b$ it has been (it's), $[\text{'dzo:idz} \text{ əz'kham:}, \text{ əs-}; -\text{dz} \text{ hə-}]^a$ $[\text{'dzo:dz}, -\text{em:}]^b$ George has come, $[\text{hi'hæz tə-}]^a$

'ste'i, -æs] *he has to stay*;

have: [həvjəˈsɪinɪţ, hæ-, -jµ-] have you seen it?, [ðeɪvˈgɔːn, -ɑːn; ðeɪə-; -hə-]a [-ɒːn]b they have gone (they've), [wivˈkhʌmː, -fˈk-; wiə-; wihə-]a [-emː]b we have come (we've), [wiˈhævˌ təˈsteɪ, -æf] /wiˈhæv təˈsteɪ/ we have to stay, [jəˈʃωdəv, jµ-, -æv, -hæv] you should have, [jəˈʃωdə ˈdʌnː, -v, -əv, jµ-]a [-enː]b you should have done (should 've) + [-ˈkho-, -ˈwo-, -ˈmʌst̞-a/-e-b, -ˈmeɪ-, -ˈmaən-a/-t̞-b] could, would, must, may, might;

he: [hiˈwent] he went, [ˈweni ˈsɔrt], we-, wu-]^a [ˈsσrt] he when he saw it, [ˈhæzi] has he²:

her: $[h_{\downarrow}^a = z]^a [h_{\downarrow}]^b her eyes$, $['thel_{\downarrow}]^a [-e]^b tell her$, $['g_{\downarrow}v_{\downarrow} \downarrow h_{\&t}]^a [-e_{\downarrow}^a - e_{\downarrow}^a]^b$ give her her hat, $[th_{\downarrow}^a + th_{\downarrow}^a - th_{\downarrow}^a]^a [th_{\downarrow}^a + th_{\downarrow}^a - th_{\downarrow}^a]^b$ to her mother;

him: [a9'sɔrım; -əm] a [-orım] b I saw him, ['lerım 'ın:; -əm; -m] a ['let-] b let him in; his: [hɪz'phen:] his pen, [hi'thok uz'bok] he took his book, [hɪz'j $\mu u\theta$] his youth;

I: [aəˈsri, ʌə-]^a [aə-, ɐə-]^b I see, [aɜɫˈtheɪk, ʌ̞ɫ-; -ṭ-; -ɯɫ-; -wṭ-]^a [aɜɫ-, ʌɫ-; -ṭ-; -шɫ-; -wṭ-]^b I will take (I'll), [ˈharo kudaəˈsterɪ, -ʌ-; -ə-]^a [-aə-, -ɐ-; -ə-]^b how could I stay?;

 $if: [\iota fae'mer, ef, f] if I may, [\iota fje'ser, soo, ef, f, -\mu]^a [-so]^b if you say so, [\iota f'no?]$

fṛˈju̞ru, əf-, f-, -†] a [-nɒʔ fəˈ-] b if not for you;

in: [ɪnˈlʌndən]^a [-e-]^b in London, [ɪmˈphæɹəs]^a [-ɹɪs]^b in Paris, [ɪŋˈkhænədʌ]^a [-e]^b in Canada, [hiˈsæn ɪnðəˈtʃheːɹ, ɪnnə-, ɪnnə; -t nðə-; -t nnə-]^a [-æt, -eːʒ]^b he sat in the chair, [ˈbɹeɪkɪn ɪnˈthʊru; -tt n-]^a [ˈbɹ-, -tt, -μru]^b break it in two, [aə-mɪnəˈhɹri, ʌ-; -mnə-; aəəm-]^a [-eɹi, e-]^b I am in a hurry (I'm);

is: [ιzιλ'jμ'u, -†'j-; zι-] is it you?, [ιts'mr'i; ιnιz-]^a [ιts-; ιţιz-]^b it is me (it's), ['khımz 'hr'ı; -m ι-]^a ['hr'ɐ]^b Kim is here (Kim's), ['ðıs ιzə'fa'ən 'de'ı, 'ðıs zə-'; 'ðıs sə-'] this is a fine day, ['ɹσ'oz ιzə'naəs 'womən, 'ɹσ'oz zə-', 'ɹσ'oz zə-']^a ['ɹɜ'oz]^b Rose is a nice woman, [ðıs'dı ('z'waət, z-', s-', ðəs-] this dish is white;

it: [ιzιʔˈthɹʊˈu, əz-, z, -tˈt-]^a [-ˈthtμu, -tˈt-]^b is it true?, [ιtsˈɔːł ˈɪaət, ts-, s-; ιnz-]^a [-σːł ˈt-; ιtuz-]^b it is all right (it's), [ˈjes uˈuz; jeˈstuz]^a [ιtˈuz; jeˈstuz]^b yes it is, [ˈtheɪkɪt, -ut]^a [-ιt]^b take it, [ιnɨbiшˈgoʊd ˈθιŋː, tɨ-; ιtwɨ-]^a [ιtɨ-]^b it will be a good thing (it'll), [ɪnəbbiˈnaəs, twu-, -db-; ιtw-]^a [ιtə-, ...]^b it would be nice (it'd);

its: [tts'fhert] its tail, [tf'hæ'd tts'fhii θ 'b.100kum, əts-]^a ['b.130-]^b it had its teeth broken;

just: [aəvʤʌs(†)ˈsɪinɪm, -ʤəs-] [-ʤe-, -ʤə-] b I have just seen him (I've), [ʃizˈʤʌs-gɔːn ɰˈwe-ɪ, -əs-, -ɑ·n] a [-e-, -ə-, -ɒ·n] b she has just gone away (she's), [dʒʌsˈlaək uzˌˈsʌnː, dʒəs-, -†l-] a [dʒes-, -enː] b just like his son;

many: ['meni 'bʊˈəz̯] many boys, ['haro meniˈmʊːɪ, məni-, mni-]a [-ʊː]b how many more?;

may: [jəmeɪˈæ(ˈ)skɪ, jμ-; -mi-] a [-ɑˈskɐ] b you may ask her, [wimeɪˈgσ·ω; -mu-] a [-ɜ·ω] b we may go, [simeɪˈsfe-ɪ; -mə-] she may stay;

- $me: [hi'kho'lbmi, -dmi]^a [-o'l-]^b he called me, ['somi ðu'we'l]^a ['somi]^b show me the way;$
- must: [aəməsˈgoro, -mṣ-, ʌə-] a [eə-, -ɜro] b I must go, [ıpməsbiˈdʌnː, ıʔ-] a [-enː] b it must be done, [ʃiməsˈpheri] she must pay;
- my: [maəˈheˈd, mʌə-, mʌ-] a [meə-, me-] b my head, [ˈnɑʈ təmaəˈnɑlɪdʒ, -ʌə-, -ʌ-, -ə-; -i-; -i-, -ʔ] a [ˈnɒ-, -eə-, -e-] b not to my knowledge;
- no: [nσω'mσ: qμ'a·ə; nə-]^a [nsω'mσ:; nə-]^b no more do I, [nσω'λðɪ ˈsɪizn; nμ-]^a [nsω'eðə ˈҳ-; nμ-]^b no other reason, [utsnσω'gω'd; -nə-]^a [-sω-; -nə-]^b it's no good;
- $nor: [niið lagi fi \int nor fle \int, n lagi fi rac{1}{2} [nae] a [nae] a [nae] a [nae] b neither fish nor flesh, [nii lagi fi lagi fi$
- not, n't: [ιη'ιznt]^a [ιt'ι-]^b it isn't, [as'woont, Λ-]^a [e-, -sont]^b I won't, [hi'dʌznt, -'də-]^a [-e-, -'də-]^b he doesn't, [wi'doom 'phleτ]^a [-so-]^b we don't play, [ιη'ιzn 'gord]^a [ιt'-]^b it isn't good, ['ιzni, -nti] isn't he?, ['ιznι?, -ntt] isn't it?, [hi'jhusn-th] he used not to;
- of: [ðəˈfɪfθ əvˈmeɪ, v̞ˈm-] the fifth of May, [wˈkhʌp əv̞ˈthri, -əˈt̞-, -f̞ˈt̞-]^a [-ep]^b a cup of tea, [ˈfɪ̞rst əvˈɔːɫ, v̞-]^a [ˈfɜ̞-, -oːɫ]^b first of all;
- on (the most reduced form only occurs when no ambiguity with in is possible): $[\mu, \nu]^a$ [ν on the box, $[\mu, \nu]^a$ on ν on
- once: [wans'mo:1, wun-]^a [wens'mo:, wun-]^b once more (= again) [wans-'mo:1]^a [wens'mo:]^b once more (= one more time);
- one(s) (the form without /w/ may be judged as dialectal or regional): [ə'bugˌwʌn, -wun; -un]^a [-we-]^b a big one, [ˌðætsuˈgorbˌwʌn, -wun, -d-; -dən; -dn; -dn; -dən; -dn; -dən; -dn; -dən; -
- our: $[ar'sku'v^{\frac{1}{2}}]^a$ $[ar]^b$ our school, $[ar'shu'v^{\frac{1}{2}}]^a$ $[-za_1ar]^b$ these are our pens; per: $[fuf_1i p_1'sen_1]^a$ $[pa-]^b$ fifty per cent, $[fary p_1'semp p_1'semp p_1'semp, -m_1]^a$ $[pa's-pa_1'se]^b$ five per cent per annum;
- shall (in American English it is a stylistic choice): $[\int \mathbb{R} \mathbb{R} \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}}]^a$ [$\int \mathbb{R} \mathbb{R} \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \mathbb{R}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \mathbb{R}^{$
- she: [ʃiwent] she went, [ʃiˈhæztμ, -stμ] she has to, [ˈhæznʃi, -ntʃi] hasn't she?;
- should: [ʃədiˈkhʌmː]^a [-emː]^b should he come, [jəʃədˈdʊruɪt, jµ-]^a [-ˈdµuɪt]^b you should do it, [aəʃuɡˈgoroˌnao, -ʃg-, -ədˈg-, ʌ-]^a [-ɜro-, e-]^b I should go now, [aə-ʃədˈθɪŋkˌsoo, -ʃt-, ʌ-]^a [e-, -ɜo]^b I should think so, [ðəniʃugˈkhʌm ˈaot, -əd̞-, -iʃ- ˈkh-]^a [-ti-, -e-]^b that he should come out;
- $sir: ['jessi, -s-]^a [-e]^b yes, sir, ['noosi]^a ['nsose]^b no, sir, [si'dga'n]^a [sə'dgo'n]^b Sir John, [si'elfsəd]^a [səi'alfııd]^b Sir Alfred, [si'thanlz, -anlz]^a [sə'thanlz, sə-,$

- s-]^b Sir Charles;
- so: ['not soo'gord əzip'waz, sw'-, -orz, -əp-, -f'-]^a ['not sso-, -orz, sw'-]^b not so good as it was, [its'not soo'faren fe'deri, se-, ts-, s-; iniz-]^a [-ot sso-; ifiz-]^b it is not so fine today (it's), ['not soo'σrold; sμ-]^a ['not sso'σrold; sμ-]^b not so old, ['evi soo'meni, se-]^a [-ə sso-]^b /'ενεί sou'meni/ ever so many;
- some (determ.): [wudʒəˈlaək smˈthri, səm-] would you like some tea?, [djuˈwɑn səˈmσːı, səm-, djμ-, -ˈwɔ·-]^a [-wɒ-, -σː]^b do you want some more?, [aəˈhævˌsʌm]^a [-em]^b I have some;
- St., Saint: [seim'phii], -mp'ph-]^a [sm'phii]e, sim-, seim-]^b St. Peter, [sein'khle'i, -ŋk'kh-]^a [sh'khle'i, sin-, sein-]^b St. Clair, [sein(1)'ænθəni, -ṭ-]^a [sn̩t'ænṭəni, sin-, sein-, -θ-]^b St. Anthony;
- such: [$_{1}$ sat $_{2}$ ph $_{2}$ s $_{3}$; sə-] $_{3}$ [$_{1}$ set $_{2}$ ph $_{3}$ s $_{3}$; sə-] $_{3}$ such a person, [$_{1}$ sat $_{2}$ ph $_{3}$; sə-] $_{4}$ [$_{1}$ se-; sə-] $_{5}$ such a thing;
- than: ['mo:ɪ ðṇ'ðæf]^a ['mo:]^b more than that, [ʃizˈfaənɪ ðṃ'meɪi, ʃis-; ʃit-]^a [-nə, -eɜ[i]^b she is finer than Mary (she's), [ɪtsˈles ðənənˈtɪntʃ, nən, ts-; tɪtz-]^a [; trtz-]^b it is less than an inch (it's), [ˌðætsˈmo:ɪ ðənaəˈhæ·v; ənʌ-; ˌðæɪtz-]^a [-o:; -o:ɪ əne-; ˌðætz-]^b that is more than I have (that's);
- that (conj. & rel. pron.): ['not ðənp'mæpz, 'no?, -lp'm-, -lp'm-]^a ['no-, ðəpl-, -p3z]^b not that it matters, ['sr'in ðətə'noo,ðæp, ðəpə-, ðəpə-, ðəpə-, -µ-] seen that you know that; [ðə'de'i (ðəp)wi'mep] the day (that) we met;
- the: [ðəˈbɒk] the book, [ðəˈmærn] the man, [ðəˈjɛłː, ðuˈj-, ðiˈj-]a [-ɛlː]b the yell; [ðiˈenːd] the end, [ðiˈnðɪ ˈderɪ]a [ðiˈeðə]b the other day, [ðəˈhɪit; ðu-] the heat, [ˈwʌts
 ðəˈtha·əm, zə-, ˈwɑ-; -nz-]a [ˈwɒ-; -tz-]b what is the time? (what's), [ˌuzðuˈkhæt
 ˈðe-ɪ, ˌuzzə-; ˌuzə-, -ʔ]a [-e-ʒ]b is the cat there?, [unðəˈhaos, unnə-, unnə-] in the
 house, [uˈwe-ɪ fiəmðəˈsui, -ð̞ˈs-]a [fi-, -ti]b /əˈwe-ɪ fiəmðəˈsuti/ away from the
 city;
- their: [ðeɪˈbɔrt ðeɹˈboof; ðɹ-]^a [-ort ðeɜˈbɜof, ðɜ-; ðə-]^b they bought their boat, [ə-ˈhaos əvðeɹˈoron; -ðֈ-, vð-, əð-]^a [-eɜɹˈɜron; -ðəɹ-]^b a house of their own;
- them: [wiˈsɔˈðəm, -ðm, -ɔˈəm] a [-ˈsơː-, -ơˈəm] b we saw them, [ˈgɪvðəm, -ðm, -vəm, -vm] give them;
- then: ['soup 'f.rst ðeṇ'tʃhıkıın, ðə-]a ['shup 'fsr-, -kın]b soup first then chicken, [as-k,goo: bəʔðenu'gen: as-mea? 'nqt, -ðən-, Λ -, -f,g-, -† 'n-]a [-so:, -pt]b I might go but then again I might not, [ðen'æ(')ft; ə'tharəm, ðən-]a [-'arftə; ə-, -f,ə-|th-]b then after a time...;
- there (exist.): [ðeɪɹˌˈmeni, ðəɪɹ̞-, ðɹ̞ɹ, ðɪɹ̞-]^a [ðeɜɹə̞-, ðɜɹə̞-, ðəɹə̞-, ðɹə̞-]^b there are many, [ðeɹzəˈlɑʈ, ðɹ̞-]^a [ðeɜzəˈloʈ, ðɜ-, ðə-]^b there is a lot, [ˈhævˈmðeɪ, -ɹ̞]^a [-e]^b haven't there?;
- they: $[\eth(E), I]^a [\eth(E), I]^a [\eth(E), I]^b$ they are there, [wenderwent; $\eth(E), I]^a [\eth(E), I]^b$ they will say (they'll);
- this: [ðɪsˈrivnɪŋ, ðəs-, ðəˈs-] this evening, [ðɪsˈphenː; ðəs-] this pen, [ɪnðɪsˈweɪ, ɪn-n-; nn-; -əs-] in this way, [ˌɔˈnðɪsˈtheɪb-t], -nn-, ˌn-; -əs-] a [ˌp-] b on this table, [ˈwʌts ˈðɪs, -ʔs, -s, -zıs, ˈsɪs, ˈwɑ-; -nɪz] a [ˈwp-; -tɪz] b what is this? (what's);
- $till: [weit till: homz, thi]^a [-emz]^b wait till he comes, [thutthouzdei, tht-, -i]^a [-thi]^b till tuesday;$
- $time(s): [\eth a'f_{1}r_{s|1}haam aa'went_{1}\eth e_{1}, -s_{1}r_{n}, -s_{1}r_{n}, -n_{1}r_{n}, -n_{1}r_{n}]^{a} [-ar_{s}, -aam, -s_{1}r_{n}, -n_{1}r_{n}]^{a} [-ar_{s}, -aam, -s_{1}r_{n}, -aam, -a$

-ear, -em, -em] the first time I went there, ['θ.11'i,thaemz 'fo:1 1'thwεftv, -tae-, mes-- $[-1, -1]^a$ [$[\theta_1]$ -, $[-1, -1]^a$ [$[\theta_1]$ -, $[-1, -1]^a$] three times four are twelve;

to: $[the^{t}] = [the^{t}] =$ England, [thəˈjuˈu, thuˈj-, thiˈj-] to you, [thuˈæˈn] to Ann, [ˈkhʌmtut, -twt]a ['khem-] b come to it, [jə'hæytµ, -ftµ, jµ-] you have to, [thu-qry] to give, [thu-'wın:, $\uparrow h\mu$ -] to win, $[\uparrow h\mu' ri\uparrow; \uparrow h$ -] a [; $\uparrow h$ - i 2-] b to eat, $[\uparrow h\mu' ri\downarrow, -^i$ 0-; $\uparrow h$ -] a [; $\uparrow h$ - i 1. $Pofe^b$ to offer – for to, before consonants, [a, u] can be very short; and, before voiceless consonants, they are often devoiced: ['then təfarəy] ten to five;

ир: ['meɪkʌp jɪˈmaˈənd, jʊɹ-; -шp-] a [-epjə-, -joʻ-; -шp-] b make up your mind, [ðɪz-'wan ap'det; p-; ditz-]a [detwen ep'dets; p-; deltz-]b there is one up there (there's);

upon: ['wʌn əˌpɔ'nə'nʌðɪ, əˌpɑ-, əˌpʌ-, əpə-] a ['wen əˌpɒnə'neðe, əpə-] b one uponanother, ['laren əpərn'laren, -pa-, -pa-, -pə-] a [-pp-, -pə-] b line upon line;

 $us: ['theləs] tell us, [lets'q\sigma \circ, les-]^a [-s \circ]^b let's go! - but: ['les-s'q\sigma \circ]^a ['let$ əs 'q3' ω] b let us go;

was: [aewuz'ıɔːŋ, -oːŋ] a [-'ɪɒːŋ] b I was wrong, [hiwzə'fɪenːd] a [-ɪ-] b he was a friend;

we: [wi'meri] we may, ['drintwi, -mpwi, -m?wi]^a ['drinty 'drinty 'drinty 'drinty 'drinty'] aren't we?;

were: $[\eth E \otimes u] \cdot [d \cdot u] = [-wu] \cdot [b]$ they were ill, $[w] = [-u] \cdot [u] \cdot [-u] \cdot [u] \cdot [-u] \cdot [u] \cdot [-u] \cdot [u] \cdot [-u] \cdot [-u]$ there?;

what: ['sr'i watjəv'dan:, wa-, ww-, -t\]-, -t\]-, -\[\tau-\]-, -\[\text{w-}; \hw-; \hw-; \text{b-}; -\] $[\mu -]^a$ [wd-, we-, ...] b see what you have done! (you've), [hi'no'u wani'wan(1)əd, wa-, wu-, -'wo'n-; hw-; h-]a [-'njµ'u wpti'wpntid, we-, ...]b he knew what he wanted, [wajijə-'SEILH, - μ , wa-, ww-; hw-; hv-; -e'lh]^a [wotə-, ...]^b what are you saying? (what're), [watdjə 'se'i, -tdə, -tdə, -tdə, -də, -\mu, wa-, wu-; hw-; \mu-]a [wd-, ...]b what do you say? (d'you), [wʌtdjəˈdʊˈu, -tdə, -tfə, -tfə, -də, wʌdəjə-, wʌdjə, $-\mu$, wa-, ww-; hw-; hv-]^a [wp-, ...]^b what do you do? (d'you);

when (not interr.): [əmwenaə'sɔrıţ, mwu-, -nə'-] a [- σ --] b and when I saw it..., [$s\sigma\omega$ we $piu'qe?'\delta e_i$, -wu-, -t-]a [$ss\omega$ -, -ess]b so when you get there...;

where (not interr.): [ðə'phleis wejiwuz'fa'ond, wi-]a [weji-, wuji-]b the place where he was found, [wkhanti weiphipt sint, wi-]a [-enti wei-, wu-]b a country where people sing;

who: [ðəˈmæˈn uˈdɪdɪt, hu-] the man who did it;

 $will: [dent'] denu; denwt'; -twt]^a [-tt'] duu, ...]^b that will do (that'll), [jut'sri,$ joł-, juł-; jμuł; jμwł] you will see (you'll), [wιlιpˈw.rk, -ʔˈw-, -ˌtˈw-; wul-]^a $[-3^{\circ}k]^b$ will it work?, $[11^{\circ}b]^b$ in $[11^{\circ}b]^b$ it will be me (it'll), ['dza'm wulbi'hrz, -n lbi-] a ['dzo-, -ve] b John will be here (John'll), [ðə't\hrt\ (w) \mathbf{u} 1 \mathbf{b} 1 \mathbf{i} 1 \mathbf{f} 0 \mathbf{i} 2 \mathbf{t} 3, w \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} a [-3 \mathbf{t} 4] \mathbf{i} 5 the church will be full;

would: [wudipbi'qord, -?b-, -tb-] would it be good?, [ðeid'duru; ðeiəd-; -wud-]a $[-\mu \mu]^b$ they would do (they'd), $[\text{hightham:}, -\text{dk-}; \text{hiughtham:}, -\text{dk-}; \text{hiughtham:}]^a$ he would come (he'd), [112bbi'nass, -db-; 1pwu-; 1fwu-]a [1f2-]b it would be nice (it'd), ['dzrim wud'serisoo, -n əd-]a [-30]b Jean would say so;

you: [tfj-'dσu, -jμ-] a [-μu] b if you do, [aal'thelia, -jμ, a t-; aaωl-; aewωl-] a ...[-jμ, $Λ^{1}$ -]^b I will tell you (I'll), ['θæηkjμ, -jΛ]^a [-jμ]^b thank you, ['ατμτήμ, -Λ]^a ['ατμ $t(\mu)^b$ aren't you?, ['didnt(ə 'sri, -t(μ , -n)(-] didn't you see?, ['didnt(μ 'khwit, - μ , -nfʃ-, -n j-] didn't you quit?; your: [j‡'phleis, jʊṭ-, jʊː-]^a [jə-, jʊː-]^b your place, [ˌwʌfʃ̄ṭ'neːim, -ʊṭ-, -ʊː-, -tsʃ-, -tsj-, ˌwɑ-; -nɪzj-]^a [ˌwɒ-, -əˈn-, -ʊˈn-; -fɪz-; -fɪzj-]^b what is your name? (what's).

2.3.1.3. When prepositions become (postpositions), they have full vowels: [horu <code>ijuweinunfori</code>, -<code>ju-]a</code> [ə<code>j-</code>, -<code>funfor]</code> who are you waiting for?, [weri <code>ijukhamunfiam</code>, -am, -<code>ju-]a</code> [weri ə<code>jukhemunfipm]</code> where are you coming from?, [wat siˈlokunæt, wan uzi-, wa-]a [wot si-, -† uzi-]b what is he looking at?

And when a preposition is followed by an unstressed pronoun, there are two possibilities, according to rhythm and speaking rate (or tempo): [hiˈweɪnədfɹjµ, -jʌ, -ˌfoˈɪjʌ]^a [hiˈweɪfɪdfəjµ, -ˌfoˈjµ]^b he waited for you, [wɪˌˈlokɪnunˌɪ, -ŋæ-]^a [wɪəˈlokɪnun-te, -ˌæte]^b we're looking at her.

The forms beginning by h-, after a pause, never lose initial /h/: $[hi'n\sigma \circ z]^a$ $[-3 \circ z]^b$ he knows, $[h \ni vj \ni 'srin \downarrow, hæ-, -j\mu-]^a$ $[-v]^b$ have you seen her?, $[h\mu' \circ xj \mu, -j\Lambda]^a$ $[-v]^b$ who are you?, &c.

2.3.1.4. Here we will make some examples of compounds with reduced second elements, especially in British English: ['stɪɔːˌbeɪi]^a ['stɪoːbti]^b strawberry /-beɪi/ (in particular with monosyllabic roots, cf § 2.3.5), ['khʌbt̪d]^a ['khɐbəd]^b cup-board, ['weł-]^b welcome, ['sʌndeɪ, -di]^a ['sen-]^b sunday (often /-deɪ/ in an intoneme, but /-di/ in a preintoneme, </-dei/>);

['phiiqi,biσω]^a [-ţəbiɐ, -biɐ]^b Peterborough [-bəiɔʊ/, ['edəmˌbiʌ]^a [-imbiɐ, -biɐ]^b Edinburgh [-bəiə/, ['noʊu,beii]^a ['njμubii, -bii]^b Newbury [-beii/ (in particular with monosyllabic roots, cf § 2.3.5), ['lesti]^a ['lestɐ]^b Leicester, ['wωsti]^a ['wωste]^b Worcester, ['noʊfuk]^a ['noʊfuk]^b Norfolk, ['aksfid]^a ['bksfəd]^b Oxford;

[ˈkhæsəm] Casham, [ˈd̞rəm] a [ˈdeɹəm] b Durham /əˈɪ/ and [ˈkhʌnɪŋˌhæm] a [ˈkhen-tŋum] b Cunningham /-ḥæm/, [ˈtŋglənd] England, [ˈphoosmən] a [ˈphoos-] b post-Man, [ˈdʒen(1)‡mən] a [-nt²-] b gentlemen, [ˈseɹəˌmooni] a [ˈseɹəməni] b ceremony /-mɔʊ-ni/, [ˈphltmə θ] Plymouth;

['sɔ'sˌphæn]^a ['so'spən]^b saucepan /-pæn/, ['nonsens, -səns]^a ['nonsəns]^b nonsense /-sɛns/, ['jo'ɪkʃıɪ̞, -ʃɪ̞]^a ['jo'kʃɐ, -ʃɪɐ]^b Yorkshire /-ʃiəɪ̞/, ['hænsəm] handsome, ['hendɪ-sən]^a [-də-]^b Henderson, ['fooksfən, -ˌsfoon]^a ['fsoksfən]^b Folkestone /-stɔ̞ʊ̞n/.

Furthermore: [ˈlaəˌbɹɛɹi, -bɹəɹi, -bɹi]^a [ˈlaəbɹəɹi, -bɹi, bˌi, -bɹi]^b library, [ˈkhʌsʈəˌmeɹi]^a [ˈkhɛsʈəməɹi, -pɹi, -fɹi, -paɪi]^b customary, [dəˈɹɛkʈəɹi, -fɹi, -fɹi, daə-]^a [duˈyətˌəɪi, -fˌii, daə-]^b directory, [ˈdoˈməˌfoɹi]^a [ˈdoˈmətˌti, -fəti]^b dormitory.

Taxophonics

2.3.2.1. From the examples given thus far, the use of *phonetic duration* for the various English phones will be sufficiently clear. However, we will summarize its

characteristics. In stressed syllables, the long vowels (/ɑː, ɔː, əː/, and the possible long ones from the diaphonemes /ɑr, ær, ɒr, ɔr, ər/) as well as the diphthongs (/ɪi, ɛɪ, aɛ, ɔɛ, aɔ, ɔʊ, ʊʊ/) undergo a little shortening –half-shortening, indeed: from [V:, V·V] to [V·, VV]— when they are followed, within the same word or rhythm group, by at least one of the following three elements: (1) a voiceless consonant, or (2) an unstressed vowel (and that changes them into diphthongs or triphthongs, [VV, VVV]), or (3) a whole unstressed syllable. The second elements of compounds have secondary-stressed syllables; so they have no influence on length.

Therefore, we have: ['phle'i] /'plɛi/ play, ['phle'iz] /'plɛiz/ plays, ['phle'id] /'plɛid/ played, ['phle'i,bæk] /'plɛibæk/ playback, but ['phleiin] (or, possibly, ['phle'in]) /'plɛiin/ playing, ['phleii]^a [-e]^b /'plɛiəi/ player, ['phleiəbt/] /'plɛiəbt/ playable, and ['phleit] /'plɛit/ plate, ['phleits] /'plɛits/ plates, ['phleiəd]^a [-tid]^b /'plɛitid/ plated, ['phleiin]^a [-tin]^b /'plɛitin/ plating, ['pheint] /'pɛint/ paint.

Equally: [ˈkhɑːɪ]^a [-ɑː]^b /ˈkɑːɪ/ car, [ˈkhɑːɪz]^a [-ɑːz]^b /ˈkɑːɪz/ cars, [ˈkhɑːɪd]^a [-ɑːd]^b /ˈkɑːɪd/ card, [ˈkhɑːɪd]boˈɪd, -(b),b-]^a [ˈkhɑːd,boˈd, -b,b-]^b /ˈkɑːɪdbɔːɪd/ cardboard, but: [ˈkhɑːɪt]^a [-ɑ·t]^b /ˈkɑːɪt/ cart, [ˈkhɑːɪbən]^a [-ɑ·b-]^b /ˈkɑːɪbən/ carbon, [ˈkhɑːɪdɪŋ]^a

 $[-a^{\dagger}]^b$ /'kazidin/ carding, $['khæ(')nt]^a$ $[-a^{\dagger}]^b$ /'kæ'nt/ can't.

Besides, also unstressed or half-stressed syllables shorten, as seen in *cardboard* (a true compound, as to *cupboard* /ˈkʌbəid/, that is crystallized, by now, so that a more suitable spelling for the latter could certainly be *cubbard*): [phaɪˈthɪsə-pənt]^a (also [phi-]^a) [-a-ˈthɪsɪ-]^b /paɪiˌtɪsəpənt/ participant, [phaɪˈthɪsə-peɪt]^a (also [phi-]^a) [-a-ˈthɪsɪ-]^b /paɪiˌtɪsəpeɪt/ participate, [ˈmeɪˌdeɪ] /ˈmeɪdeɪ/ Mayday. Besides: [ˈweɪspeɪpiˌbæ(ˈ)skut]^a [-ə-baˈskɪt]^b /ˈweɪstpeɪpəi-bæˈskət/ wastepaper basket.

These degrees of length hold good both in intonemes and preintonemes.

2.3.2.2. For the English stressed vowels (/I, ε , ∞ , Λ , υ , υ /), there is another interesting fact about phonetic length. In syllables checked by final voiced consonants, occurring in diphonic pairs (ie /b, d, g, dz; v, ð, z, z/), short stressed vowels undergo a little lengthening – half-lengthening, indeed: from [V] to [V·]– ['lvd] /'lɪd/ lid (but ['lɪt] /'lɪt/ lit), ['mæ'd] /'mæd/ mad (but ['mæt] /'mæt/ mat), ['bʌz]a ['bɛz]b /'bʌz/ buzz (but ['bʌs]a ['bɛs]b /'bʌs/ bus). These degrees of length hold good even in both intonemes and preintonemes.

On the other hand, when final stressed syllables are checked by an isolated voiced consonant (ie not forming a diphonic pair – that is /m, n, ŋ; ł/), instead of the vocoid, the contoid is a little lengthened (but only in intonemes, before pauses): ['then:] /'tɛn/ ten, ['jʌŋː]a ['jɛŋː]b /'jʌŋ/ young, ['bołː] /'bʊł/ bull (but ['bołˌhoːɪn]a [-oːn]b /'bʊłhɔːɪn/ bullhorn, [ðəˈboł ˈɹæn] ['---]b /ðəˈbʊł ˈɹæn/ the bull ran).

In both accents, though, there is an exception to the exception, insofar as $/\infty$, 0/0 are half-lengthened (in a preintoneme, too), instead of a following contoid: $[\frac{1}{3}\cos^{2}]^{a}$ $[\frac{1}{3}\cos^{2}]^{b}$ $\frac{1}{3}\cos^{2}$ $\frac{1}{3}$

In the sequences /1ǝi, εǝi, υǝi/, the first element is half-lengthened, both in intonemes and preintonemes; this occurs before vowels as well, if final in rhythm groups: ['hrɪ]^a ['hrɐ]^b /'hɪəi/ here, ['ðeɪ]^a ['ðeɪ]^b /'ðɛəi/ there, ['phjʊɪ, 'phjɪː]^a ['phjoɐ, 'phjoː]^b /'pjʊəi/ pure, ['hrɪ ənˈðeɪ]^a ['hrəi ənˈðeɪ]^b /'hɪəi ən(d)ˈðɛəi/ here and there.

We should notice that, in American English, /191, 891, upi/ followed by vowels,

within words or rhythm groups, become $\langle 11, \epsilon 1, \upsilon 1 \rangle$: ['split] both for /'split/ ['split] become $\langle 11, \epsilon 1, \upsilon 1 \rangle$: ['split] both for /'split/ ['split] become $\langle 11, \epsilon 1, \upsilon 1 \rangle$: ['split] both for /'split/ ['split] become $\langle 11, \epsilon 1, \upsilon 1 \rangle$: ['split] both for /'split/ ['split] both fo

2.3.2.3. Even as far as (partial) *devoicing* is concerned, the examples thus far will have already been a clear general survey. A short summary is, however, useful, because there are also some particular remarks to be made, only here, even if we need not mark them all in our transcriptions.

The devoicing of voiced diphonic consonants (/b, d, g; d; v, ð, z, z/), before pauses or before voiceless consonants (post devoicing), is very important: $[bab]^a$ $[bab]^b$ /bbb /bbb

Of less importance is their devoicing after pauses or after voiceless consonants (*pre*devoicing), which is slighter, too. It is true that for some speakers it is as strong as postdevoicing, but it is usually less evident, and we need not mark it in our transcriptions (although they could be shown by means of a dot under a symbol: $[\dot{p}, \dot{z}]$ (or above: $[\dot{g}, \dot{z}]$): $[\dot{p}a\dot{p}]^a$ $[\dot{p}b\dot{p}]^b$ /bbb/ Bob, &c.

A dot could be used even after (aspirated) /p, t, k, tʃ/, but we will do that only here, because [h] is sufficient: ['phlet] /'plet/ play, ['khwaet] /'kwaet/ quite. It is the same also for the other voiceless consonants (although their devoicing is only slight, and therefore usually it need not be marked): ['fjuu] /'fjou/ few, ['θtet] a ['θt-] b /'θtet/ threat, ['snot] a ['snot] snore.

Everyday-speech simplifications

2.3.3.1. In normal –non-slow– speech certain articulatory simplifications are quite normal. In particular, /t, d/, between C, are easily dropped: ['mσωsli]^a ['mσωsli]^a ['mσωsli/ mostly, ['hænsəm] /'hændsəm/ handsome, ['phσωsmən]^a [-σω-]^b /'pɔustmən/ postman, ['phɹ̞rfukli]^a [-σ-f-]^b /'pəuɪfuktli/ perfectly, ['neks 'deɪ] /'nekst 'deɪ/ next day, ['fɹ̞rṣ 'θιŋː]^a ['fɜrs]^b /'fəuɪst 'θιη/ first thing, ['mæʃ pə'theɪσωz]^a [-fɜωz]^b /'mæʃt pə'teɪtɔuz/ mashed potatoes.

This simplification occurs for /sts/, as well: ['phoosts, -s?s, -ss]^a ['phso-]^b /'pousts/ posts, ['thests, -s?s, -ss] /'tests/ tests, ['thekst sə'lekfən, -ks s-, sl'e-]^a [- \int_{η}]^b /'tekst sə'lekfən/ text selection.

Besides: ['mʊuv 'bæk] a ['mµuv] b /'mʊuvd 'bæk/ moved back, ['lok 'laək] /'lʊkt 'laɛk/ looked like, ['ɪɪitʃmi] a ['ɪ-] b /'ɪɪitʃtmi/ reached me, ['thorot 'borb] a ['thorot 'borb] b /'tɔʊtd 'bob/ told Bob, ['khep 'khwaəət] /'kɛpt 'kwaɛət/ kept quiet.

In addition to simplifications, there are assimilations: ['hærm 'merid, -n 'm-] /'hænd 'merid/ handmade, ['khloroʻz 'ʃop, -z]^a [-3roʻz 'ʃop]^b /'klouzd 'ʃop/ closed shop, ['khæ(')ŋ 'goro, -n]^a [-orŋ 'gɜro]^b /'kærnt 'gɔu/ can't go.

Even for vowels, simplifications are frequent: $['gen | 'jen, -an]^a ['get | 'pn]^b / 'get along, ['w()ft lu'wa']^a ['anft lu-]^b / 'wnftai a'wael/ after a while, [f'lnftk]^a [f'-]^b / ta'nftk / terrific, [abb'lniv] / aeba'lniv / I believe, [dap'lnis] / dapa'lnis / the police.$

And there are combinations, too: ['lɪtɹəli, -nəɹə-]^a ['lɪtɹəli, -təɹə-]^b /'lɪtṇɹəli/ literally, [phɹˈthɪkjəlɹli, -kjɹli, -kli]^a [phə-, -kjələ-; -kjolə-]^b /pəɹˈtɪkjvləɹli/ particularly, ['phɹɑbli, -bb-, -bəb-, phɹɑli]^a ['phɹp-]^b /'pɹɒbəbli/ probably.

2.3.3.2. In vowel combinations, within words or sentences, several simplifications are possible: ['seth, 'seth] /'seth, 'saying, [' $\int \sigma \iota \eta$, ' $\int \sigma \iota \eta$] a [-3 $\iota \eta$, -3 $\iota \eta$] b /' $\int \sigma \iota \eta$] showing, ['sith, 'sith] /'sith, 'seeing, [$\sigma \iota \eta$, - $\sigma \iota \eta$] / $\sigma \iota \eta$] annoying.

Besides: $['d_1a_1]^a$ $['d_1]^b$ $/'d_1a_1t$ dry it, $[\eth e'_1i]^t$, $\eth e'_1i]$ $[\eth e'_1i]$ $de_1'_1it$, $de_2'_1i$, de_2'

/ˈɡɔʊ əˈwɛɪ/ go away, [ˈɡστω ˈɑrn, ˈɡσː, ˈɔːn] a [ˈɡɜτω ˈɒrn, ˈɡɜː] b /ˈɡɔʊ ˈɒrn/ go on.

Here are some other frequent cases that it is good to know: ['æktʃəli, 'ækʃəli, -ʃli; ækʃi] /ˈæktʃəli/ actually, [ˈsɹ̞-ʔn̩li, -ʈ-, ˌsɹ̞ʔn̄li] [ˈsɜ̞-] / ˈˈsəːɹṭn̩li/ certainly, [dəˈɪɛkʈli, ˈdɪɛkli] [dɪˈt̞-, 'ḍt̞-] / dəˈɪɛktli/ directly, [ˈrizli, ˈrizli] /ˈrizəli/ easily, [ɪgˈzækʈli, ˈgzækli] /ɪgˈzæktli/ exactly, [veɪiˈgoʊd, vɪ̞i-] [veɪ̞i-, vt̞i-] / ˈveɪi ˈgoʊd/ very good, [ˈθæŋk]s vɪ̞i-mʌtʃ] [vt̞iˈmetʃ] / ˈθæŋks vɛɪiˈmʌtʃ/ thanks very much, [ˈθæŋk]μ, -jʌ, ˈhæ-, ˈŋk]μ, ˈk̞-kjμ] ([ˈk̞ˈkjμ]) / ˈθæŋkju/ thank you.

Others: [buˌkəz, pˌk-, kh-, -ˈkhəz; buˈkhʌz; -ɔːz; -oʊz]^a [-ˈkhəʊ; -ɒʊz]^b /bəˈkɒʊz/ be-cause, [n̩ˈ[hɪɫː, ʌn-]^a [en-]^b /ʌnˈtɪɫ/ until, [n̩ˈles, ʌn-]^a [en-]^b /ʌnˈles/ unless, [əˈnʌf, n̞-]^a [-ef, n̞-]^b /əˈnʌf/ enough, [ˌjesn̞-ˈdrid] /ˈjes ənˈdɪid/ yes indeed, [əɣˈkhoʊɪş, əf- f̄-, k-]^a [-oʊs]^b /əvˈkɔʊɪs/ of course, [əʒˈµuʒ‡, ʒ՛-, -ʒw‡, əʒˈj-, ʒˈj-] /əzˈjʊuʒw‡/ as usual, [phạ-

'hæps, -hæ-, ph_{2} -, ph_{2} -, ph_{2} -, ph_{2} -, ph_{2} -, ph_{3} -, ph_{4}

2.3.3.3. Some other cases: [wwł, wł, ww (Δł'theljw,wat, -ʔ)]^a [(Δł-, -ɒ-)]^b /wεł, wəł, wł/ well, (I'll tell you what), [f,oonlia'khord, -ni-]^a [-3o-, -ɐ-]^b /ɪfɔʊnliae'kʊd/ if only I could, [ˈskjwzmi, tk-] /ɪkˈskjʊuzmi/ excuse me!, [baəˈbarə, bʌ-, bə-, ˌbaəˈbarə]^a [bɐ-]^b /baɛˈbaɛ/ bye-bye, [gobˈbarə, gwb-, gw-, gw-, gw-, 'barə] /gudˈbaɛ/ goodbye, [gobˈmʊɪnɪŋ, gwb-, go-, gw-; -dˈm-, ˈmʊɪnɪŋ]^a [-ʊrn-, ˈmʊrn-]^b /gudˈmɔːɪnɪŋ/ good morning.

Besides: ['jes, 'jehs, 'jeh, 'jeəs, 'jeə, 'jeʔ, (')je, (')jəs], and ['jeʌ, 'jæʌ, 'jaː, 'jɑː]a [-ɐ]b, ['jew, 'jep', 'jʌp', 'jʌʔ', (')jʌ]a [-ɐp', -ɐʔ', -ɐ]b /ˈjɛs; 'jɛə; 'jɛp; 'jʌp/ yes!, ['noʊo, 'noɒʔ, 'noɒp]a ['nɔɔ]b /ˈnɔʊ/ no!, [ˌɔʊɫːaəṭ, ɔʊ--, -ʔ]a [ˌoʊɫ-, oʊ-]b /ɔːɫːaɛt/ all right, [khumˈɑn, -ˈɔːn]a [-ˈʊn]b /kʌmˈɒn/ come on!, [khumˈunː] /kʌmˈɪn/ come in!, [khumˈrɪ, -ˈɦ-]a [-ʊɐ]b /kʌmˈhɪəɪ/ come here!

More examples: [st²'daron, st-, stṭ-] /stt'daron/ sit down, [Λdn'σro, aədσo'nσro]^a [ɐdn[ednaro, aədao'naro]^b /aɛdroun(t)'nrou/ I don't know, [Λdn'σro, aəddn'σro]^a [ɐdn'aro, aəddn'aro]^b /aɛdrdn(t)'nrou/ I didn't know, [Λ'spek,soo, aətk-]^a [ɐˈspek,sao]^b
/aɛtk'spɛktsrou/ I expect so, [aəˈspσoz, λsə-]^a [-aoz, ɐsə-]^b /aɛsəˈprouz/ I suppose, [λ'θιηκ]
/a[-1]^a [ɛ-, jə't-]^b /aɛˈθιηκ jəɪˈraɛt/ I think you're right.

Finally: [aengunəˈduut, eŋu-; -ˌgoonə-, -ʌ-, -ɔ'-, -ɑ-, -ət]^a [e-, -µut; -ˌgoonə-, -e-, -o-, -o-]^b /aemgənəˈduut; -gounə-; -ˈgountə-/ I'm going to do it (gonna do it), [hizgunµˈædt; -ˌgoonµ-, -ʌ-, -ɔ'-, -ɑ-, -ət]^a [-ˌgonp-, -e-, -o'-, -o-]^b /hizgənuˈædt; -ɔu-; -ˈgountə-/ he's going to add it, [wiˌwɑnəˈseɪ, -wɔ'-, -nt-, -nʔ-]^a [-wo-]^b /wiwoˈntəˈseɪ/ we want to say (wanna), [wiˌwɑnpˈrit, -wɔ'-, -nt-]^a [-ont-]^b /wiwoˈntuˈrit/ we want to eat, [ˈsʌm-θɪŋ ˈdɪfɹənt, ˈsʌmpm]^a [ˈsem-, -ɹənt, ˈsempm]^b /ˈsʌmθɪŋ ˈdɪfɹənt/ something different,

[folifil; fuli-, foi-, foi-] /folifil/, [umivasianmant, -amma-, -ama-, -asima-, e-, a-] a [-Janm-, -Jamma-, -Jama-, -aaama-, e-, a-] b /Inivasianmant, e-, a-/ environment, ['gavinmant, -vim-, -vam-, -vm-, -vm-; -bm-; -mm-] a ['gavainmant/ government.

American English has, too: [ˈkhændəɪdɛɪt, ˈkhænə-, -dət] /ˈkændɨdɛɪt, -dɨt/ candidate, [æntˈɑːɪktɪk, ænɪ-, en-, -ˈɑːɪtɪk] /ænt̞ˈɑːɪktɪk/ antarctic.

2.3.3.4. It is important to know that, in English, phonic syllabification generally follows morphemic divisions. This allows some slight differences to be maintained that Romance languages, instead, usually lose: $[\exists' n \in \mathbb{I}] / \exists' n \in \mathbb{I}$ a name, $[\exists n' \in \mathbb{I}] / \exists n' \in \mathbb{I}$ and $[\exists n' \in$

In addition, let us note: ['warə 'tʃhʊruz]^a [-µruz]^b /'waɛ 'tʃʊuz/ why choose, ['waəṭ 'ʃʊruz, -ʔ]^a [-µruz]^b /'waɛt 'ʃʊuz/ white shoes; [maəˈthɪɛrɪn]^a [-'thɪ-]^b /maɛttɪɛɪn/ my train, ['maəṭ 'ɪɛrɪn, -ʔ]^a ['ɪ-]^b /'maɛt 'ɪɛɪn] might rain; [əˈblæk 'ṭharə] /əˈblæk 'taɛ/ a black tie, [əˈblækṭ 'arə] /əˈblækt 'aɛ/ a blacked eye.

Forms like [mis'speł:]^a [-eł:]^b /mis'speł / misspell and [mis'smi θ] /mis'smi θ / Miss Smith may seem a bit strange. Indeed, as consonants often fall between others, so, in less slow manners of speaking, even [mi'speł:, mi'smi θ]^a [-eł:]^b occur.

For British English, the following examples are usual, too: [ssobug wmæn, sə-]^b/soubig əˈmæn/ so big a man, [əˈbugs ˈmæn]^b/əˈbugəi ˈmæn/ a bigger man; [ˈlaət ə-ˈfaəɐ]^b/ˈlaɛt əˈfaɛəi/ light a fire, [əˈlaətɜ ˈfaeəl]^b/əˈlaɛtəi ˈfaɛəi/ a lighter fire; [utsəzˈweł tuˈweit]^b/itsəzˈweł təˈweit/ it's as well to wait, [hizwˈweltɜˈweit]^b/hizəˈweltəiweit/ he's a welterweight.

Let us add an important remark about the syllabic structure regarding /VCV/, which has /1, \(\epsilon\), \(\pi\), \(\pi\

More examples: [ˈɪʌn-ɪŋ] [ˈɪ̞en-ɪŋ] / ˈɪʌnɪŋ/ running, [ˈlʌv-ɪŋ] a [ˈlev-ɪŋ] b / ˈlʌvɪŋ/ loving, [ˈmʌṭ-ṇ, ˈmʌʔ-ṇ] a [ˈmeṭ-ṇ; ˈmeʔ-ṇ] b / ˈmʌtṇ/ mutton, [ˈkhaṭ-ṇ, ˈkhaʔ-ṇ] a [ˈkhaṭ-ṇ; ˈkhaʔ-ṇ] b / ˈkɒtṇ/ cotton, [ˈlɪs-ṇ] / ˈlɪsṇ/ listen, [ˈmɪḍ-ṭ] / ˈmɪdṭ/ middle, [ˈmeɪ-ṭ] a [ˈmeṭ-ṭ] b / ˈmetṭ/ metal, [ˈdev-ṭ] / ˈdev-ṭ] / ˈdev-ṭ] / [ˈmeṭ-ɪɪk] a [ˈmeṭ-ɪɪk] b / ˈmetɪɪk/ metric, [ˈæk-jəɪəṭ] a [ˈæk-jəɪəṭ] b / ˈækjəɪət/ accurate, [ˈɪak-w-ṭ] a [ˈɪ̞pk-w-ṭ] b / ˈɪɒkwət/ Rockwell, [ˈɪak-li] a [ˈɪ̞pk-li] b / ˈɪɒkli/ Rockley, [ˈɪɪp-li] a [ˈɪ̞ɪp-li] b / ˈɪɪpli/ Ripley.

On the contrary, stressed long vowels and diphthongs belong to different syllables as to following single consonants: ['nɔ-ni]a ['no-ti]b /'nɔ:ti/ naughty, ['nou-tn, 'nou-rn]a ['njµu-tn; 'njµu-rn]b /'njoutn/ Newton, ['leɪ-nɪ]a ['leɪ-te]b /'leɪtəɪ/ later, ['beɪ-kɪŋ] /'bɛɪkɪŋ/ baking, ['ni-kwt] /'nikwət/ equal, ['nou-tɪt]a ['njµu-tɪt]b /'njou-tɪət/ neutral, ['na-pli]a ['na-pli]b /'naepli/ ripely.

American dissimilation of r

2.3.3.5. To simplify the articulation of words and rhythm groups with two /i/s, American pronunciation can have variants with /Ø/ for the first /i/, although not very frequently, even in stressed syllables: [ˈfɑːði, ˈfɑ·ði] /ˈfɑːðəi/ farther, [ˈfɪ̞ði, ˈfo·ði] /ˈfɑːðəi/ further, [ˈσɪdi, ˈσ·di] /ˈɔːidəi/ order, [ˈmɪ̞di, ˈməːdi] /ˈməːdəi/ murder, [ˈkhσːni, ˈkhσːni] /ˈkɔːinəi/ corner, [θi̞ˈmamənɨ, θə-] /θəiˌˈmɒmɨṭəi/ thermometer, [ˈfoːwid, ˈfoːwid] /ˈfɔːiwəid/ forward, [ˈfoːiwid, ˈfoːwid] /ˈfɔːiwəid/ foreword, [si̞ˈphia·əz, sə-] /səiˌˈpiaɛz/ surprise, [ˈɡʌvɪni, -vəni, -vni] /ˈgʌvəinəi/ governor, [phi-ˈthikiəli, phə-] /pəiˌˈtikiələi/ particular.

Also: [ˈkhæn(դ)դˈbeɪi, -əˌb-] ([ˈkhænfəbti, -bti, -ˌbeti]) /ˈkæntətbti/ Canterbury, [ˈwɔˈŋtˌbeɪi, -nə-, ˈwa-] ([ˈwoʊfəbti, -bti, -ˌbeti]) /ˈwɔʊtətbti/ Waterbury, [ˈantˌbɪn, ˈan-ə-] /ˈptətbəɪin/ Otterburn, [ˈbɪˈnɪd, ˈbə-, btɨˈnaud, bə-] /ˈbəɪinətd, bətɨˈnaud/ Bernard, [ˈkhænt̩pulɪ, -nə-] /ˈkætətpɪlət/ caterpillar, [ˈɛtdɪˈbeɪi, -də-] ([ˈetdəˌbeti, -əbti, -ə-bti]) /ˈɛtdətbti/ elderberry, [ˈteztˌvwaɪ, -zə-; -ˌvwaɪ] /ˈtezətvwaɪ/ reservoir, [ˈnau-bti]) // ˈhazidətət/ Northrup, [ˈsʌðənɪ] /ˈsʌðənɪ] /ˈsʌðənɪ, ˈnaʊðənɪ, ˈnauðənɪ/ Northerner.

Less systematically, dissimilation is possible even in rhythm groups: [hˌiˈhɑːt̩, hə-ˈ] /həiˌˈhɑːt̩/ her heart, [jˌtˈm.r̞si, jə-ˈ] /jəiˌˈməːɪsi/ your mercy, [ɑːtˈphoːtʃ, ɑ-ˈ-] /ɑːi-ˈpɔːitʃ/ our porch, [ðeˌtˈtɪːmz, ðeə-ˈ, ðˌi-, ðə-] /ðeəˌiˈfəːimz/ their firms, [ðeˌtˈdˌrɪi, ðeə-ˈ, ðˌi-, ðə-] /ðeəˌiˈdəːiti/ they're dirty, [fˌtˈwˌrɪd, fə-] /fəiˌˈwəːɪd/ for word, [oːɪˈhɪːˌ, o-ˈ-, -[-, ə--, -ˈh-] /ɔːɪˌˈhɪəɪ, əɪ-/ or here.

In addition to /ɪ/, the following examples will show dissimilation for /ɪ/ (which is used in British pronunciation too, due to a kind of simplification, even by analogy): [ˈlaəˌbɹeɹi, -bɹəɹi, -bɹi, -bɹi, -be-, -bə-]^a [ˈlaəbɹəɹi, -bɹˌi, -bɹi, -bə-li]^b /ˈlae-bɹeɹi/ library, [ˈfebɹμeɹi, -bɹəɹi, -bɹəɹi, -bjə-]^a [ˈfebˌμəɹi, -uaˌi, -bˌti, bti, -bti, -bja-li, -bjə-]^b /ˈfebɹueɹi, -bju-/ February, [ˈsekɹəˌteɹi, -ku-]^a [ˈsekɹətˌti, -əˌteɹi, -ku-]^b /ˈsɛkɹə-tɛɹi/ secretary.

In addition: [stəˈnɑgɹəfɹ; -gu-] a [-ɒgɹə-; -gu-] b /stəˈnɒgɹəfəɹ/ stenographer, [fə-ˈthɑgɹəfɹ; -gu-] a [-ɒgɹəfɛ; -gu-] b /fəˈtɒgɹəfəɹ/ photographer, [phɹəˈfɛsɹ; phə-; phɹ-] a [phɹəˈfɛsɛ; phə-] b /pɹəˈfɛsəɹ/ professor, [phɹəˌnʌnsiˈeɪʃən; phə-; phɹ-] a [phɹəˌnʌnsiˈeɪ-ʃn; phə-] b /pɹənʌnsiˈɛɪʃən/ pronunciation, [phɹəˈphæɹəˌfʊɹi; phə-; ˈphɹepɹə-, ˈphɹepɹə-] a [phɹtˈphæɹətɹi; phə-] b /pɹ+ˈpæɹətzɹi; ˈpɹɛpəɹətzɹi/ preparatory.

All in all, we can see that dissimilation mostly occurs with: ['oːɪ] /ˈɔːɪ/, usually, in stressed syllables (where, even if /ɪ/ is not pronounced, words do not become ambiguous, because the vowel timbre alone is distinctive; see the examples above), and with: [ɪ] /əɪ/ in unstressed syllables: surprise, particular, caterpillar, governor, thermometer...

Morphonological remark

2.3.3.6. Now, thanks to transcriptions (which do not hide reality, as spelling does) we will resolve a widespread problem for foreigners – knowing which pronunciation to use for the grammemes {-ed; -(e)s; -'s, -s'}.

Simply, we have:

/d/ [d] after voiced phonemes (ie vowels, diphthongs, and voiced consonants, except the very /d/): /'plɛɪd/ played, /'həːid/ hurried, /'baːid/ barred, /'ɪʌbd/ rubbed, /'dʒʌdʒd/ judged, /'plænd/ planned;

/t/ [t] after voiceless consonants (except the very /t/): /'stopt/ stopped, /'worst/

washed, |'switst| switched, |'læft| laughed;

/ \pm d/ [\pm d]^a [\pm d]^b after /t, d/, in order to be able to pronounce them: /\weit\text{#d}/\wait-ed, /\nrid\text{#d}/\needed, /\star\text{*started}.

Finally, we have:

/z/ [z] after voiced phonemes (ie vowels, diphthongs, and voiced consonants, except the grooved ones, /z, z, dz/): /ˈɡɔʊz/ goes, /ˈflaɛz/ flies, /ˈdɛɪz/ days, /ˈlɛɪdiz/ ladies, /ˈɪʌbz/ rubs, /ˈwɛɪvz/ waves, /ˈplænz/ plans, /ˈdʒɒnz/ John's, /ˈɪɪtʃəɪdz/ Richard's;

/s/ [s] after voiceless consonants (except the grooved ones, /s, \int , $t\int$ /): /'tops/ tops,

|ˈɪaɛts/ writes, |ˈbɪɛθs/ breaths, |ˈdʒɛfs/ Jeff's, |maeˈpɛəɹənts/ my parents';

/ $\pm z$ / [$\pm z$] after /s, z; \int , \int ; $\pm z$ /, in order to be able to pronounce them: / $\pm z$ / kisses, / $\pm z$ / roses, / $\pm z$ / dishes, / $\pm z$ / switches, / $\pm z$ / axes, / $\pm z$ / Charles's.

Stress

2.3.4.1. We know that (the position of) stress may be distinctive, in English: $['tmp\sigma'!t]^a$ $[-\sigma't]^b$ import (noun, adj.), $[tm'ph\sigma'!t]^a$ $[-\sigma't]^b$ import (verb); ['ph] $[tm'ph]^a$ $[-t]^b$ present (noun, adj.), $[tm'ph\sigma'!t]^a$ $[tm'ph]^b$ present (verb).

English sentences usually keep the stresses of their words well, even in lexical monosyllables, while grammatical monosyllables lack any stress (as, in general, do polysyllabic unstressed syllables): [ˈsæmz ˈbɔrt ˈθɪri ˈnʊru ˈsmɔːł ˈblæk ˈkhæts]^a [ˈbʊrt ˈθɪri ˈnjμru ˈsmoːł]^b Sam has bought three new small black cats; but we have: [nðɪ-wzəˈlɑːdʒ ˈkhɹaːod vˌˈphrip‡]^a [-wwzəˈlɑːdʒ]^b and there was a large crowd of people, [bənˌttsyðuˈɡɪɛɪnəst umˈphoːɪtns, -ʔns]^a [bətˌ-, -ˈɡteɪt-, -σ·-]^b but it's of the greatest importance.

However, in long words (and in sentences as well), many syllables with full vowels generally receive secondary stresses (especially when they occur near unstressed and reduced syllables): $[\neg \sigma o v \downarrow \exists \neg \sigma v \downarrow \exists \neg \sigma v \downarrow \exists \sigma v \Rightarrow \exists$

Of course, there are also many instances like: $['ingli_{\uparrow}]^a [-e]^b English teacher$ (a teacher of English) and $['ingli_{\downarrow}']^a [-e]^b English teacher$ (a teacher who is

English.

2.3.4.2. Let us now consider compounds such as *first class* (noun and adverb) and *first-class* (adjective), and the collocation *first class*, in a sentence like *that was the first class to be considered*. From a phonetic point of view, they are alike: ['frs(t) 'khlæ(')s]^a ['fs's(t) 'khla's]^b; however, from a phonemic point of view, and for teaching and lexicographical purposes as well, it could be very useful to distinguish them as: /ˈfɔ:ɪstˈklæ's/ (compounds: <///>
(compounds: <///>
('\$\\$)) and /ˈfɔ:ɪst ˈklæ's/ (collocation: <//>
('\$\\$)).

Besides, patterns are flexibly structured. As a matter of fact, we have: [ˌfɪfˈthrin] fifteen and [ˈpheɪdʒ fɪfˈthrin] page fifteen, but [ˈfɪfˌthrim ˈpheɪdʒəz]a [-ɪz]b fifteen pages; [ˈbɪæɪn(d) ˈnʊɪu]a [ˈnjuɪu]b brandnew, but [əˈbɪæɪn(d)ˌnʊu kumˈphjuɪnɪ]a [-njuu, -te]b a brandnew computer.

Moreover: ['sekun(d) 'hæ'nd] secondhand, but ['sekun,hænd 'khlo'o(ð)z] a [-3'o(ð)z] b secondhand clothes; and [ð(e)‡'ɔzl 'sekun'hæ'nd] a [ðe3½'ozl] b they're all secondhand; also [æft‡'no'un] a [orftə'nµ'un] b afternoon and [odæft‡'no'un, god-, gud-] a [odorftə'nµ'un, god-, gud-] b good afternoon, but ['æft‡'no'un 'thri] a ['orftə'nµ'un 'thri] b afternoon tea.

A few cases can vary according to speech rate, but also whether they occur in intonemes or preintonemes, as well as according to personal choices. Here, we will make use of different degrees of intermediate stress, too, which (without an emphatic one, ["]) are, in descending order: ['], [,,], [,], [,], [,], []. It is worthwhile observing nuances carefully: [,demən'sflei]ən 'eksə,saəzəz, 'demən,s-, -'sflei]ən,eksə,saəzəz, acceptation exercises, ['elə,vei]ə 'dopə,ei]ə, 'elə,vei]ə, 'elə,vei]a, 'e

2.3.4.3. To feel certain about the stress patterns of compounds, it is necessary to look them up in reliable dictionaries. But pronunciation dictionaries are not always the best choice, for this aspect, although, of course, they have to be consulted. We willingly recommend the Random House dictionaries which, for secondary stress, are almost perfect; of course, the stress patterns shown are American ones, but, in general, they may hold good even for British English, which, in the meanwhile, may have added % kept some other possible variants (mainly collocation-like, rather than compound-like, so less useful ones: weekend, icecream, New York, New Zealand, New Hampshire...).

In addition, the Oxford (Advanced Learner's) dictionaries show the (marked) cases of primary stress in several lexical collocations (which are quite unpredictable, above all for foreigners).

In (dia)phonemic transcriptions such as ours, the most typical and numerous compounds are shown with a single primary stress /\\$\\$/; the secondary one is easily recoverable, because the second lexeme necessarily bears a secondary stress.

Vice versa, most dictionaries printed in the USA include secondary stress, </\(\frac{1}{5}\); but usually the non-IPA symbols they use put stresses after stressed syllables, unfortunately, not before, and simply through a difference in thickness (which, sometimes, is not evident enough, even with both of them in præsentia); as a matter of fact, we happen to find, eq (in scrīb') instead of /inskiaeb/ inscribe and (viz'a bil'a)

 $t\bar{e}$ for /vizəˈbiləti/ [ˌvizəˈbiləni]^a [-əṭi]^b visibility. But some American dictionaries are misleading, because they mark secondary stress for most unstressed syllables bearing full vowels.

Regrettably, mainly dictionaries published in the UK (even pronouncing dictionaries) do not use secondary stress wisely enough. As a matter of fact, a collocation like ['senfif 'hring]^a [-ti-, -tun]^b /'sentif 'hritin/ central heating is, usually, represented as */sentral 'hitin/, exactly like [senfia 'lisfik]^a [-ti-]^b /sentia 'listik/ centralistic (their */sentra 'listik/).

However, the more they mark the better, even when things are predictable, provided they do so in an exact and accurate way. Indeed, teaching transcriptions, especially for beginners, should show several characteristics, with no absurd and groundless fear that they may confuse. In reality, too simple a transcription is less useful and, sometimes, misleading.

2.3.4.4. As regards diaphonemic transcriptions in compounds with suffixes, it is sufficient to know which of them are always non(half)stressable (</-s\/) and which are prosodically (half)stressable (</-s\/). As a matter of fact, the others, that have full vowels, are always (half)stressable (</-s\/). In addition to those with /ə, əi, i/, the following are always unstressed: /ik, -iks, -iŋ, -iʃ, -ist, -iv, -fii/ -ic, -ics, -ing, -ish, -ist, -ive, -phil: /ˈieṭəiik, 'pɒlətiks, 'lɪŋgəiiŋ, 'jɛləʊiʃ, 'nɒvəlist, dɨˈskiiptiv, 'æŋ-gləfii/ rhetoric, politics, lingering, yellowish, novelist, descriptive, anglophil (for -phile, we have /-faɛi, -ofii/).

Instead, the following are half-stressed (if preceded by an unstressed syllable), but unstressed (if preceded by a stressed syllable): /-hod, -izəm, -aɛt, -aɛz, -ʃɪp, -jouł/ -hood, -ism, -ite, -ize (-ise), -ship, -ule: /ˈwomən[ˌ]hod/ womanhood (# /ˈtʃaɛł/d)hod/ childhood), /ˈtɛɹə[ˌ]ɹɪzəm/ terrorism (# /ˈbodɪzəm, ˈbou-/ Buddhism), /ˈtɪotski[ˌ]aɛt/ Trotskyite (# /ˈsʌɫfaɛt/ sulfite), /ˈkɹɪṭɪ[ˌ]saɛz/ criticize (but /ˈbæptaɛz/ baptize, in addition to /bæpˈtaɛz/), /ˈskɒləɪ[.]ʃɪp/ scholarship (# /ˈfɹɛn(d)ʃɪp/ friendship), /ˈmɒlɨ-[.]kjou²/ molecule (# /ˈglɒbjou²/ globule).

Intonation

2.3.5. As far as intonation is concerned, close observation of the tonograms for preintonemes and intonemes (fig 2.7-8) of both accents is sufficient. Technically, we talk about *intonation groups* (or *tone groups*, for short), which are generally composed of a first part, the *preintoneme*, and a second, or *intoneme*. The latter is the most important for conveying pragmatic meanings, such as *statement*, *question*, &c. It is common knowledge that these structures depend on *orthology* (ie expressive speech) and semantics. These will produce particular effects, but always within usual primary intonation patterns, which are flexible, though systematic. An added (complication) is *paraphonics* (which marks attitudes, moods, feelings and social roles). All this is typical of any common messages, even in every-day simple conversation:

/-/: [ap/ds/p' urujn'e pod' (q)syb vea] $^a[.ii,]^b$ urun'e red' (q)sab vea] $^a[.ii,]^b$

'dzst 'bɔːt əˈnjʊu ˈdɪkʃn̞εɹi./ I've just bought a new dictionary.

/?/: [¿djəˈspiik ˈtŋgltʃ ˈwɛłː·, ¿dʒə-]a [¿djəˈspiik ˈtŋgltʃ ˈwełː·, ¿dʒə-]b /¿djəˈspiik ˈtŋ-gltʃ ˈwɛł?/ Do you speak English well?

/;/: [jµkunˈhæˈv̯ `stɪɔːˌbeɪiz·· ɪ̞ˈblʊˈuˌbeɪiz̞·.]^a [jµkunˈhæˈv̯ ˈstɪʊ·bt̞izː σ·ˈblµubt̞iz̞..]^b /jukənˈhæv ˈstɪɔːbɛ̞ɪiz; ɔ̞ːɪ̞ˈblʊubɛ̞ɪiz./ You can have strawberries or blueberries.

2.3.6. There are several and quite varied *question tags*, or *tag questions*, in English, while, other languages generally have fixed formulas. In the English language, they are morphologically determined (by modifying auxiliary and modal verbs and changing their positive/negative polarity). They have two different functions: *confirmations* of somebody's suppositions (by means of conclusive intonemes), or actual *questions*, to really ask something, for lack of any certainty.

Let us see a few examples: It's cold today, isn't it? or You're American, aren't you? or They aren't well, are they? For confirmation, we will have: /ɪtsˈkɔułd təˈdɛɪ. ¿ˈɪsɪn(t)-tt./, /jəɪəˈmɛɪ+kən. ¿ˈɑːɪntjʊu./, /ðɛɪˈɑːɪnt ˈwɛł. ¿ˈɑːɪðɛɪ./; while, for information: /ɪts-ˈkɔułd təˈdɛɪ. ¿ˈɪsɪn(t)+t?/, /jəɪəˈmɛɪ+kən. ¿ˈɑːɪntjʊu?/, /ðɛɪˈɑːɪnt ˈwɛł. ¿ˈɑːɪðɛɪ?/.

fig 2.7. American intonation.

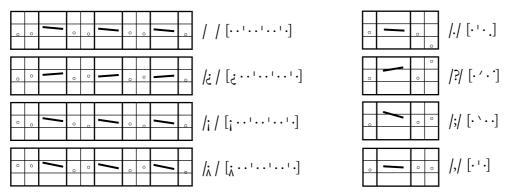
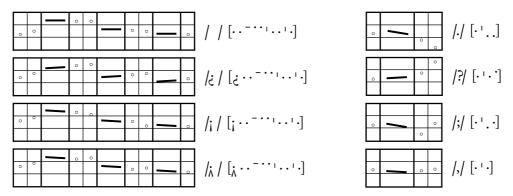


fig 2.8. British intonation.



Other accents

2.4.0. This section is likely to be very important for descriptive and communicative purposes, as it deals with pronunciations going beyond the neutral accents.

(International) neutral accent

2.4.1.1. As a teaching application for foreigners, the proposal of an (international) accent seems to be welcome and useful. It will certainly have more real advantages than learning without a method, in a wild and uncontrolled way, and acquiring elements of both neutral accents, together with many personal (and regional) peculiarities and interferences due to spelling inconsistencies.

Things will become simpler and more straightforward, when, at long last, a dictionary with diaphonemic transcriptions is available. The (international) accent is mainly based on the CNN pronunciation, which covers the whole globe. Although it is slightly more American-like, which is the more widespread accent and also the less diverging –if possible– from current spelling, still it is not too American. Of course, we are referring to newsreaders, not to local correspondents, who in certain cases may even be speaking English as a second language.

Indeed, it simplifies actual complexities of real accents, above all the British one, eliminating unnecessary and unwanted distinctions (not shown by spelling, among other things), to recover a more organic and general situation. All this is done, starting from actual pronunciations, which, moreover, lack any connotations that can be easily localized. Many singers and actors use it.

So, roughly, this international pronunciation is intermediate between the American and British neutral pronunciations. Besides, it does not sound (strange) to any native speaker. It simply is more (organized), but with no undue or far-fetched exaggerations.

2.4.1.2. Starting from our diaphonemic transcription, the international accent is obtained mainly by bringing the diaphonemes /æ, a; v, ɔ; ə, ‡/ to their most natural (matrices) (/æ, a; v, ɔ; ə; ə/ [æ, a; v, o; ə; ə]), ie more traditional and widespread, as well as less apart from spelling, as we have already said. In this way, we can simplify the hard task of foreigners, who –unfortunately– are forced to (learn) from spelling. Actually, our modern-language teaching is still in a pitiful condition as far as pronunciation is concerned, as it is often completely neglected.

Thus, we have: $['læst]^i$ $['læ(')st]^a$ $['last]^b$ /'læst $['last]^i$ $['phaste]^i$ $['phaste]^a$ $['phæste]^b$ /'paste $['paste]^i$ $['saii]^i$ $['saii]^i$ $['saii]^b$ $/'saii]^b$ $['last]^i$ $['last]^i$ $['last]^i$ $['last]^i$ (see below for [t], which is a semi-lateral contoid, with no real contact) $['ts^is, 'ta^i]^a$ $['ts^is, 'ta^i]^b$ $/'ts^is$ $['ts^is, 'fa^i]^a$ $['ts^is, 'fa^i]^a$ $['ts^i]^b$ $/'ts^is$ $['taste]^a$ $['taste]^a$ $['taste]^b$ $['taste]^a$ $['taste]^b$ $['taste]^a$ $['taste]^b$ $['taste]^a$ $['taste]^a$ ['taste

2.4.1.3. As for unstressed syllables with possible full timbres, the international pronunciation, instead, has the less prominent ones, even if not extreme ([1] is a semi-approximant, fig 1.13.3): ['IEgjələt] i /'IEgjolət] i /'IIII /'IEgjolət] i /'IIII /'IIII

fig 2.9. International monophthongs.

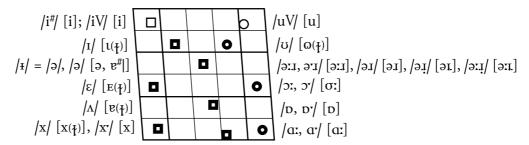
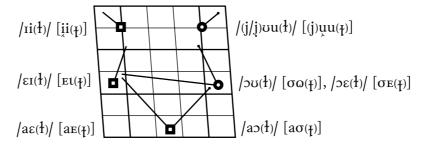


fig 2.10. International diphthongs.



['het]ⁱ ['hat]^a ['het]^b /'hat/ hut, ['hot]ⁱ ['hot]^a ['hot]^b /'hot/ hot, ['so:]ⁱ ['so:]^a ['so:]^b /'so:/ saw, [sttfu'etfən]ⁱ [sttfu'etfən]^a [sttfu'etfən]^b /sttfu'etfən/ situation.

For /əːi/, we have [əːi]: [ˈwəːid]ⁱ [ˈwɹːd]^a [ˈwɜːd]^b /ˈwəːid/ word; for /əːi, əːi/ [əːi]: [ˈhəːi]ⁱ [ˈhɹ̞-i]^a [ˈheɪi]^b /ˈhəɪi/ hurry; for /əi/, in unstressed syllables, we find [əɪ]: [ˈbɪeðəɪ(z)]ⁱ [ˈbɪeðɪ(z)]ⁱ [-ɪ(z)]^a [-e, -3z]^b /ˈbɪʌðəɪ(z)/ brother(s).

For /1əi, ɛəi, ʊəi/ we have [Vəi]: [ˈhvəi]ⁱ [ˈhra]^a [ˈhvəl]^b /ˈhɪəi/ hear, [ˈðeˈəi]ⁱ [ˈðeˈi]^a [ˈðeˈa]^b /ˈðeəi/ there, [ˈphoˈəi]ⁱ [ˈphoˈi]^a [ˈphoˈe]^b /ˈpuəi/ poor; and for /1ṣi, ɛṣi, ʊại/ we have [ii, ei, oi]: [ˈhiiŋ]ⁱ [ˈhiiŋ]^a [ˈhiəiŋ]^b /ˈhiəiŋ/ hearing, [ˈmeii]ⁱ [ˈmeii]^a [ˈmeɜ-ii]^b /ˈmeṣii/ Mary, [ˈdjoɪŋ]ⁱ [ˈdoɪŋ, ˈdṛ-]^a [ˈdjoəɪŋ, ˈdjoː-]^b /ˈdjʊəɪŋ/ during.

2.4.1.4. As to diphthongs, it is sufficient to notice: /ii, vu, vv/ [ii, vv, vv/ [ii, vv/ [ii, vv/ [ii, vv/ [ii, vv/ [ii]/ [it]/ [it

For $/\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, it is better to use $[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}]$ (semilateral, fig 1.15.1), which, articulatorily, are decidedly simpler than $[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}]$ (in case, even velar can be used –velar semilateral $[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}]$ – which, auditorily, are decidedly better than $[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}]$).

As for consonants, suffice to say that [?] is acceptable for /t/ (§ 2.2.2.4) and that [1] may be good for /t/, mainly after vowels, while, [†] is more recommendable, after /n, i, i/: ['befi, -ii]i ['befi]a ['befi]b/'befi/ Betty, ['thwenfi]i ['thwenfi]a ['thwenfi]b/'twenfi/ twenty.

Thus, for r, we have: $|\mathbf{j}| [\mathbf{j}]$, $|\mathbf{j}| [\mathbf{j}]$. Besides, $|\mathbf{h}\mathbf{w}|$ simply corresponds to $|\mathbf{w}|$: $[\mathbf{wen}]^i$ $|\mathbf{h}\mathbf{wen}|$ when, and $|\mathbf{j}|$ to $|\mathbf{j}|$: $[\mathbf{j}\mathbf{h}\mathbf{j}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}]^i$ $|\mathbf{j}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}|$ tune, $[\mathbf{j}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}]^i$ $|\mathbf{j}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}|$ new.

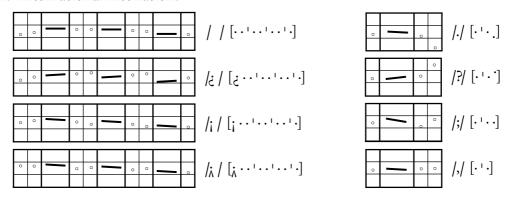
The intonation of (international) English has a restrained and more general movement, as can be seen from fig 2.11 (although the first stressed syllable in a preintoneme could be half-high, [-], instead of just raised mid).

2.4.1.5. Both the (RP) and the American models have some problems of social acceptability. (RP), though still very widely used, both in the BBC news and in some kinds of British *sitcom* and movies, has always had a strong connotation of artificial affectation, which makes it disagreeable to many native speakers. RP is generally associated with a (high) social position (eg members of the aristocracy, of the higher clergy or military ranks, Tory MP's, prestigious university professors, &c), and a certain age group (over 50 years of age). Clothing, too, should be sufficiently formal, to be suitable for the RP accent. If these conditions are lacking —ie for common natives— the British neutral accent could prove to be definitely inappropriate.

It is to be said that, paradoxically, even an impersonation of an RP speaker (even only partially successful, especially if belonging to certain particular varieties) may give rise to negative feelings from British listeners belonging to the middle or working class. Indeed, these people might find a few snobbish phonetic traits, easily recognizable as marked ones, even if mixed with foreign traits, especially if the speakers are young(er).

Against these (empirically checked) difficulties, it might be better to choose the American neutral accent. This is certainly recommendable to learners in North America, but not in the British Isles, where most people would consider it inappropriate.

fig 2.11. International intonation.



We reckon that this dilemma may be faced, in a practical and diplomatic way, aiming at acquiring an <international> accent, which —although it might seem to be <nobody's accent>— would have none of the possible negative connotations of the two mediatic accents (we will be dealing with below), or even of the two national neutral ones (which some people seem to consider <nobody's accent>, as well, since—in both nations—only about 3% of native speakers actually use them).

(Mediatic) accents

2.4.2.0. In addition to the two neutral accents, the American and the British ones, and to the international accent, we believe it is important to show the two kinds of accent actually used by American and British native speakers. Naturally, (mediatic) pronunciations are often used by North-American people in the midwestern states, and by English people in the southeastern counties, respectively, as well as by most spoken-word mass media (ie radio and television) that do not use the neutral accents nor more local ones.

Therefore, fig 2.12-18 (which speak for themselves) must be carefully analyzed, comparing them with the neutral ones, in order to capture the differences, which are sometimes not slight! In ordinary people's opinion, mainly if their own pronunciation is directly concerned, these mediatic accents are thought to be less peculiar than the neutral ones.

On the other hand, as everyone knows, neutral pronunciation –in percentage terms– is used the least by native speakers; but, it is the one generally aimed at by advanced foreign learners, except for more or less frequent interferences, especially from their mother tongue, and individual peculiarities.

For this reason, we do not hesitate to show these actual realities, although we will not get to the point of recommending an active usage by foreigners. On the contrary, a passive usage is certainly welcome, to really understand native speakers, when they talk... (as they can). Actually, this happens every day, all over the world, because school and society usually ignore (good) pronunciation.

However, as these mediatic pronunciations are really very widespread, and often considered as (almost) neutral (or, at least, less affected and less artificial than the neutral accent), many people would be willing to declare them to be neutral. They would do so, on the one hand, in opposition to pronunciations which are more recognizable as local ones, and, on the other hand, to an (unsubstantial) neutral kind of pronunciation... It is no rare fact that some (mediatic) speakers fluctuate towards the neutral type (or away from it), for some words.

Here we wish to briefly draw attention to some details, with reference only to the respective (American or British) variant, for a direct ((internal)) comparison. In the light of what has been seen so far, it will not be difficult to find the corresponding neutral forms of the other accent. On the contrary, it will be a very useful exercise.

(Mediatic) American English pronunciation

2.4.2.1. Traditionally it was called (General American accent), since it is different from the stereotyped accents of New York City, and Eastern New England, or of the Great Lakes (ie Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, Superior), or the South (either the (Deep South) and its variants, or its mountains, ie Appalachia, Ozarks), or of the American Blacks.

2.4.2.2. As can be seen from fig 2.12, /I, υ , ε / are [9, v, ε]: ['hət] $^{m.a}$ ['hɪt] a /'hɪt/ bit , ['phvt] $^{m.a}$ ['phvt] a /'p υ t/ a /'lvt/ a ('lvt) a /'lvt/ a /'

In addition, /u/ is fronter, [$\[\] \]$: [

Let us rather talk about /æ', which is diphthongized, [æa]: $['phæast]^{m.a}$ $['phæ(')st]^a$ /'pæst/past, as well as /æN/ $[\~ẽ3N]$ (which is considerably raised and nasalized, too): $['m\~ẽ3n]^{m.a}$ $['mæn]^a$ /'mæn/man, $['\~ẽ3n\~ẽm\~t]^{m.a}$ $['ænəm†]^a$ /'ænɨm†/animal, $[f\~ẽ3n'thæastək]^{m.a}$ $[fæn'thæstik]^a$ /fæn'tæstik/fantastic, $['θ\~ẽ3nkju, -ja]^{m.a}$ $['θænkju, -ja]^a$ /'θænkju, -ja /'θænkju, -ja /'fæn'tæstik/fantastic, $['fẽ3n]^a$ /'fẽ3n /'fe3n /'fe

We also find the neutralization of /ɑː/ and /ɒ/ into [ɑːː), including /ɑːɪ, ɑːɪ/, with an oscillating phonetic length: [ɑː, ɑː, ɑ]. Generally, in monosyllables (or in final-stressed words), we have [ɑː], when absolutely final or followed by voiced C: [ˈbɑːb̥, ˈnɑːd̪, ˈspɑː, ˈbɹɑː, ˈfɑːɪ, ˈkhɑːɪd̪]^{m.a} [ˈbɑːbˌ, ˈnɑːd̪; ˈspɑː, ˈbɹɑː, ˈfɑːɪ, ˈkhɑːɪd̪]^a /ˈbɒb, ˈnod; ˈspɑː, ˈbɹɑː, ˈfɑːɪ, ˈkɑːɪd/ Bob, nod, spa, bra, far, card. However, we have [ɑ], when followed by voiceless C: [ˈsfɑp, ˈhɑṭ, ˈʃɑk]^{m.a} [ˈsfɑp, ˈhɑṭ, ˈʃɑk]^a /ˈstɒp, ˈhɒt, ˈʃok/ stop, hot, shock.

In bisyllables (or penultimate-stressed words) we find [ar] in intonemes, but [a] in preintonemes: [ˈfar̞ðə̞, ˈfarðə̞, ˈbarðə̞, ˈhar̞ə̞ ˈmar²i, ˈkharʔn, ˈphapi, ˈḍarョmɛ̞] ^{m.a} [ˈfarɪðə̞, ˈbaðə̞, ˈhar̞ə, ˈbaðə̞, ˈharə̞, ˈmali, ˈkharʔn, ˈphapi, ˈḍagmʌ] ^a /ˈfarɪðə̞i, ˈfarðə̞i; ˈbaðə̞i, ˈharə̞, ˈmali, ˈpapi, ˈdagmə/ farther, father, bother, hotter, Molly, cotton, poppy, dogma; [ˈharə̞ ũnˈharə̞] ^{m.a} [ˈharə̞ ənˈharə̞] ^a /ˈharəə ən(d)ˈharəəˌ/ hotter and hotter, [ˈhaəə̞ unˈharə̞a] ^{m.a} [ˈharəə ənˈharə]a /ˈharəəə ən(d)ˈharəəɪ/ harder and harder.

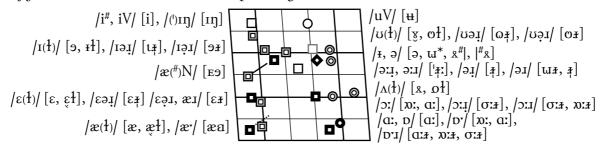
On the contrary, in plurisyllables (or in prepenultimate-stressed words) we have [a]: ['dakjəmənt, 'phalutəks, 'dagmətəst, 'khandəgan]^{m.a} ['dakjəmənt, 'phalətıks, 'dagmətist; 'khandıgun]^a /'dakjəmənt, 'palıtıks, 'dagmətist; 'kandıgən/ document, politics, dogmatist, cardigan.

As can be seen from fig 2.12, the articulation of $[\infty]$ and $[\alpha]$ is mainly distin-

guished by labialization (which is slight since the two vocoids are low). Thus many speakers can unify them (but, productively m perceptively, things are rather complex and oscillating) by also obtaining $[sa*i, sa*i, sa*i]^{m.a}$ ($[sa*i]^a / sa*i / sa*i / sa*i]^m.a$ ($[sa*i]^a / sa*i / sa*i / sa*i]^m.a$ ($[sa*i]^a / sa*i / sa*i / sa*i]^m.a$ ($[sa*i]^a / sa*i / sa*i$

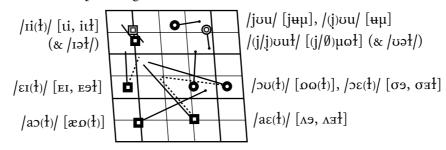
Besides, we have $|\partial|[x]^{m.a}(\langle |\Lambda| \rangle)$, not only when final before a pause, but even after a pause, even if near velar(ized) C, where -in the neutral accent—we find $[u]^a$: $[x'phlne]/\partial plae/apply$, $[x'sned]/\partial saed/aside$, $[x'fhempt]/\partial tempt/attempt$, $[x'phlne]/\partial plae/apply$, $[x'sned]/\partial saed/aside$, $[x'fhempt]/\partial plae/apply$, $[x'fempt]/\partial pla$

fig 2.12. Mediatic American monophthongs.



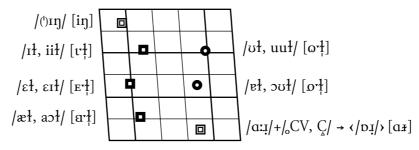
2.4.2.3. fig 2.13 gives the diphthongs. Let us observe the differences for /Ii, aɛ, aɔ, ɔʊ, (j)ʊu, ʊuł/ [ti, ʌə, æo, oo, (j)ʉµ, µoł]^{m.a} [Ii, aə, ao, oo, ʊu, jµu, ʊuł] a : [ˈbri] $^{m.a}$ [ˈbri] a /ˈbri/ bee, [ˈgʌə] $^{m.a}$ [ˈga·ə] a /ˈgaɛ/ guy, [ˈd͡æ·on] $^{m.a}$ [ˈda·on] a /ˈdaɔn/ down, [ˈnōo] $^{m.a}$ [ˈnoʊ] a /ˈnɔʊ/ no, [ˈthu·µ] $^{m.a}$ [ˈthʊ·u] a /ˈtʊu/ two, [ˈnēr $\tilde{\mu}$] $^{m.a}$ [ˈnoʊu] a /ˈnjʊu/ new, [ˈfjµroɫ] $^{m.a}$ [ˈfjʊuł] a /ˈfjʊuł/ fuel.

fig 2.13. Mediatic American diphthongs.



2.4.2.4. As far as V are concerned, then, we have to pay attention to frequent neutralizations (+ /ł/), which however can present oscillations depending on words or speakers. In extreme cases, which are not at all rare indeed, we can find: [ˈft-l/]^{m.a} both for [ˈft-l/]^a /ˈft-l/ fill and [ˈft-l/, ˈfi-l/]^a /ˈft-l/ feel; [ˈwe-l/]^{m.a} both for [ˈwe-l/]^a /ˈwe-l/ wel/ and [ˈwe-l/, ˈwe-l/]^a /ˈwe-l/ wale; [ˈva-l/]^{m.a} both for [ˈto-l/]^a /ˈfu-l/ full and [ˈfu-u-l/, ˈfu-l/]^a /ˈfu-l/ fool, and [ˈqo-l/]^{m.a} both for [ˈqʌl/]^a /ˈqʌl/ gull and [ˈqo-u-l/]^a /ˈqɔ-u-l/ goal. Two

fig 2.14. Mediatic American neutralizations (and two further possible variants).



2.4.2.5. As far as *C* are concerned, keeping in mind that these observations are general (and not absolutely cobligatory) for all speakers m words) and that our transcriptions are conormalized, let us say that for l(j)Vl we have [l(j)Vl]: $[ll_ll_l]^{m.a}$ $[ll_ll_l]^a$ $[ll_ll_l]^a$ [ll

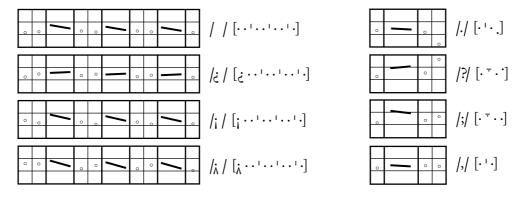
Besides, /1/ has a uvularized velar rounded articulation, which is darker (or $\langle harder \rangle$): ['#\tau\frac{1}{4}]^m.a ['\textrac{1}{4}]^m.a ['\textrac{1}{4}\textrac{1}{4}]^m.a ['\textrac{1}{4}\textrac{1}{4}]^m.a ['\textrac{1}{4}\textrac{1}{

As we have seen, a N nasalizes the following V. It often also nasalizes the preceding V (as we indicate). Even intense C in contact are nasalized. When we find syllables with $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, we very frequently have $|V| + |mp^{\#}$, $nt^{\#}$, $nt^{$

/t/ behaves as in neutral American pronunciation, but often this use spreads to /d/ as well, so that ['læ]‡]^{m.a} can represent either ['læ]‡]^a /ˈlæṭəː/ latter or ['læd‡]^a /ˈlædəː/ ladder; [x̃n¾'ṣ†ɛ̃·ə̃nd, x̃n)‡-]^{m.a} [ˌʌndɹ'ṣ†æːnd]^a /ʌndəɪˈstænd/ understand.

The same goes for $|j| \rightarrow [\emptyset]$, as seen in new; and it is also possible to have /hw/:

fig 2.15. Mediatic American intonation.



[ˈwɛ̃nː, 'ho-, 'hw-]^{m.a} [ˈwenː; 'ho-; 'hw-]^a /ˈḥwɛn/ when.

There is a tendency to slightly shorten stressed final vowels and diphthongs, which we will only mark here, because they oscillate (by indicating /ɔː, ɑː/ as doublings, [VV]^{m.a}, for [V·V]^a): [ˈsɪi] /ˈsɪi/ see, [ˈthuu] /ˈtʊu/ two, [ˈdeɪ] /ˈdɛɪ/ day, [ˈɡoo] /ˈɡoʊ/ go, [ˈhʌə] /ˈhaɛ/ high, [ˈnæ̃o] /ˈnaɔ/ now, [ˈboə] /ˈbɔɛ/ boy, [ˈspɑɑ] /ˈspɑː/ spa, [ˈsɒɒ] /ˈsɔː/ saw (also [ˈsɒɑ, ˈsɑɑ]).

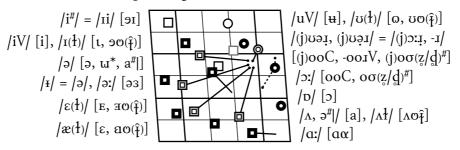
(Mediatic) British English pronunciation

2.4.3.1. Journalists love to call it (Estuary English), in reference to the Thames estuary, but it is not limited to this area, since —from the south-eastern coasts of England— it surely stretches to Cambridge, Oxford, and Southampton, too. Of course, the direct influence of London is real, especially on the (new towns) (such as Milton Keynes /ˈmɪ²tnˌˈkɪinz/, in northern Buckinghamshire, 1967), which have been built since 1946, each one planned as an autonomous whole (with factories, houses, shops, &c), in order to decentralize masses of populations, particularly from London.

However, in general, the South-East has always shared —to a lesser or greater extent— the London-type pronunciation characteristics. Thus, this accent rather than spreading has been emerging more and more, with the actual recognition of its existence.

Many speakers find that this accent is more genuine and authentic, in comparison with traditional (RP) ((Received Pronunciation)), which used to be the symbol of the prestigious and expensive –and definitely private— (Public Schools), such as Eton, Harrow, and Winchester. (RP) –/ 'axi 'pri/— is also known as (BBC English), because it was used by the BBC right from the beginning (1927 [and television, 1932]). But today it can be mainly heard only on international transmissions of the (BBC World Service) radio broadcastings and the (BBC World) television broadcastings, since most English people —who do not use it—find it to be too affected and élitist.

fig 2.16. Mediatic British monophthongs.



Therefore, foreigners must be familiar with the mediatic British accent too, but with no real need to actually use it. However, often, the native speakers' conception of this accent is subjective and contrasting. In fact, if on the one hand they may consider it to be neutral, or almost neutral, with respect to (common) peo-

ple, when \(\text{public}\) people are concerned –as politicians are—the same pronunciation can be defined as \(\text{Cockney}\), that is very dialectal (and hardly appropriate). But we do know that linguistic opinions are very colorful and personal.

2.4.3.2. As can be seen from fig 2.16, / α , α , α , α , α , α , α . The last one is doubled (since it moves upwards slightly), or diphthongized (downwards) when lexeme final, or followed by the $/z^{\#}$, $d^{\#}/[\cos(d/z)^{\#}]$ grammemes. Also $/\epsilon/$ is higher, though remaining within its own box, $[\epsilon_{\perp}]$ (to be better distinguished from $/\alpha/[\epsilon]$): $[\frac{1}{2}(h)\epsilon^{2}]^{m.b}$ $[\frac{1}{2}h\epsilon^{2}]^{b}$ $/\frac{1}{2}h\epsilon^{2}$ $|\frac{1}{2}h\epsilon^{2}]^{b}$ $|\frac{1}{2}h\epsilon^{2}]$

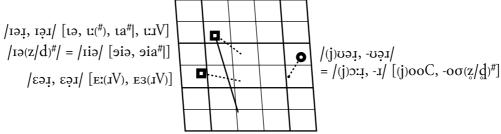
Those who systematically realize $/\alpha/$ as [A] are influenced by a sort of strategy in reaction to the mediatic (and Cockney proper) closer articulation, which is realized as [ϵ], but it does not belong to neutral pronunciation. In addition, it can cause confusion with $/\alpha/$, not neutralization (as some think), since these realizations are uttered by different speakers, not the same, although in the same places.

Besides, /u/ is fronter, [u]: [suʔtʃuˈaɪʃən] $^{m.b}$ [sutʃuˈeɪʃṇ] b /sutʃuˈeɪʃən/ situation; /ʌ, ə(ɪ)|/ are lower (and fronter), [a>]: [ˈbaʔtṣa] $^{m.b}$ [ˈbere] b /ˈbʌṭəɪ/ butter, [ˈbua] $^{m.b}$ [ˈbue] b /ˈbɪəɪ/ beer; whereas, /əːɪ, ɑː(ɪ)/ are diphthongized, [əɜ, ɑɑ]: [ˈfəʊa(z)] $^{m.b}$ [ˈfɜː(z)] b /ˈfəːɪ(z)/ fur(s), [ˈkhɑːq(z)] $^{m.b}$ [ˈkhɑːq(z)/ car(s).

2.4.3.3. fig 2.17 gives us the positions of /191, 191; ε91, ε91/. We have just seen /191/ (beer); instead, for /191/ (and /191, 191/ not before pauses) more often we have [t]: ['(h)t/111, -19-]^{m,b} ['h/1911] / 'h/1911] / hearing, ['(h)t/1911] on 'δΕ΄, -19-, -Ε΄3]^{m,b} ['h/191] on (d) δε91/ here and there, ['(h)t/18 khamz δ9'san; '(h)t/2, (h)t/2, (h)t/2] m.b ['h/191] khamz δ9'san; h/191] / 'h/191 khamz δ9'san; h/191] / h/191 khamz δ9'san; h/191] / h/191] /

Generally, in this accent, for $/VV = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \sqrt{\frac{1$

fig 2.17. Mediatic British /Və/ diphthongs.



(| aco, ceo| \icsc\, (| aco, coa| \icsc\, (| aco,

/ˈduuəi/ doer. In addition: [ˈphlaɪa] $^{m.b}$ [ˈphlaɪɐ] b /ˈplaɪəi/ player, [ˈfaəa] $^{m.b}$ [ˈfaəɐ] b /ˈfaəəi/ fire, [ˈthæoa] $^{m.b}$ [ˈthaoɐ] b /ˈtaɔəi/ tower, and even: [ˈgaoa] $^{m.b}$ [ˈgɜoɐ] b /ˈgɔuəi/ goer, [umʔˈphloəa] $^{m.b}$ [umˈphloəe] b /umˈphloəei/ employer (all with /-əiz/ [-əz]).

For $[\text{'fa:}]^b$ /'fa: $]^b$ /'fa: $]^b$ /'fa: $]^b$ /'fa: $]^b$ /'ka: $]^b$ /'k

2.4.3.4. fig 2.18 shows that there is a more retracted first element for /ii, iił, aɛ/, ie [91, 11ł, a9]: ['bər]^{m.b} ['bri]^b /'bii/ bee, ['tṣharəm] $^{m.b}$ ['tharəm] b /'taɛm/ time. The first element is lower and backer for /ɛ1, ∞ / (this last one is unrounded too, when not followed by /ł/, as in neutral British pronunciation), [α 1, α 2]: ['dar1] $^{m.b}$ ['der1] b /'dɛ1/ day, ['gə α 3] b /'go α 4] b /'go α 6] b /'go α 7] b /'go α 8] b /'go α 9. ['tṣhærən] $^{m.b}$ ['tṣhærən] $^{m.b}$ ['tharən] b /'taɔn/ town, ['tṣhærəl] $^{m.b}$ ['thural] b /'tou/ two, ['tʃhærəb] $^{m.b}$ ['thirab] b /'tjoub/ tube, ['fjoru($\hat{\tau}$ 3)] $^{m.b}$ ['fjorut] b /'fjout/ tue1; whereas, the first element is higher for / α 5/ [o9]: ['bor9] $^{m.b}$ ['bor9] b /'boɛ/ boy.

For the diphthongs with front second elements, there are some remarkable triphthongs which derive from the vocalization of /ł/ (and realized with or without [\frac{1}{4}]); /ril, ril, arl, arl, orl/ [rio(\hat{\frac{1}{4}}), aro(\hat{\frac{1}{4}}), oro(\hat{\frac{1}{4}})]: ['(h)rio(\hat{\frac{1}{4}})]^{m.b} ['hirl, 'hirl]^b / ['hirl, 'heel, ['rio(\hat{\frac{1}{4}})]^{m.b} ['rirl, 'ril, ['foro(\hat{\frac{1}{4}})]^{m.b} ['rirl, 'ril]^b / [rirl, 'ril, 'ril]^b / [rirl, 'ril]^b / [r

In (n)either the American-like pronunciation prevails: $['(n)=i\delta a; -a-]^{m.b}$ $['(n)=i\delta a; -a$

Seeing that native phoneticians continue to overlook phonetic particulars, we add some sociolinguistic variants for several phonemes (drawing from our archives for the description of regional accents) for now without adding figures, and within the limits of the seven most typical diphthongs.

As regards what we have said above, we also provide the transcription of both the most marked variants ($\langle broader \rangle$, $\langle [\downarrow] \rangle$), and the least marked ones (more crefined), that is more controlled, $\langle [\uparrow] \rangle$): $\langle II/[\ni I, \downarrow I, \uparrow II], \langle EI/[\ni I, \downarrow EI, \uparrow EI], \langle AE/[\ni I, \downarrow EI], \langle EI/[\ni I, \downarrow EI, \uparrow EI], \langle EI/[\ni I, \downarrow EI/[\mid I,$

fig 2.18. Mediatic British diphthongs.

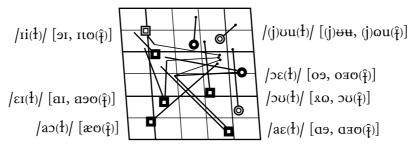
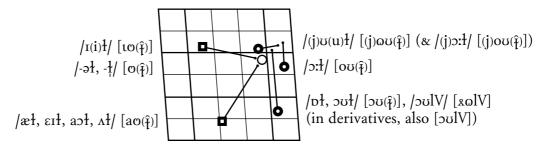


fig 2.19. Mediatic British neutralizations.



2.4.3.5. Even for (mediatic) British English, neutralizations are frequent before /ł/ (although less frequent than in Cockney, the typical and popular –and less educated—dialect and accent of the East End of London). In fact, cf fig 2.19, we often find $[\text{'ftvo}(\hat{\mathbf{i}})]^{m.b}$ both for $[\text{'ftl:}]^b / \text{'ftl} / \text{fill}$ and $[\text{'firl}]^b / \text{'ftil} / \text{feel} ;$ in addition, $[\text{'(h)avo}(\hat{\mathbf{i}})]^{m.b}$ both for $[\text{'harl}]^b / \text{'harl} / \text{Hal}$ and $[\text{'herl}]^b / \text{'harl} / \text{hail} ,$ and both for $[\text{'harl}]^b / \text{'harl} / \text{howl}$ and $[\text{'harl}]^b / \text{'harl} / \text{Hull}$, as well. Besides, we find $[\text{'qov}(\hat{\mathbf{i}})]^{m.b}$ both for $[\text{'qorl}]^b / \text{'dorl} / \text{doll}$ and $[\text{'qov}]^b / \text{'dovl} / \text{dole} ;$ and $[\text{'fov}(\hat{\mathbf{i}})]^{m.b}$ both for $[\text{'forl}]^b / \text{full}$ and $[\text{'fuvl}]^b / \text{foul} / \text{fool}$ (the last one is possible for $[\text{'fov}(\hat{\mathbf{i}})]^{m.b}$ $[\text{'forl}]^b / \text{fall}$ too). (We will deal with $[\hat{\mathbf{i}}]$ shortly.)

2.4.3.6. For the consonants, the strong preglottalization of /p, k, tf/ must not be forgotten as it practically occurs in all the cases indicated in § 2.2.6.1-2 & § 2.2.7.1; in addition, it is important to mention the massive substitution of /t/ with [ʔ], in all the cases indicated in § 2.2.5.2; whereas we can say that, generally, [ts] replaces [t] /t, t/ of neutral pronunciation. Therefore: $['d_{1}2^{2}p]^{m.b}$ $['d_{1}pp]^{b}$ /'d_1pp/ dropp, $['d_{1}2^{2}pt_{3}]^{m.b}$ $['d_{1}pp_{3}]^{b}$ /'d_1pp/ dropped, $['phe_{3}k]^{m.b}$ $['phæk]^{b}$ /'pæk/ pack, $['phe_{3}kt_{3}]^{m.b}$ $['phæk]^{b}$ /'pækt/ packed, $['phe_{3}t_{3}]^{m.b}$ $['qnit_{3}t_{3}]^{b}$ /'mit_/ reach, $['phe_{3}t_{3}]^{m.b}$ $['qnit_{3}t_{3}]^{m.b}$ $['qnit_{3}t_{$

The preglottalization of /p, t, k/ (and of /tʃ/, as in neutral British English) also occurs between V, both within words and in sentences: ['pheʔpa] $^{m.b}$ ['phepe] b /'pepəɪ/ pepper, ['beʔtṣa] $^{m.b}$ ['beɪte] b /'beɪkəɪ/ better, ['baɪʔka] $^{m.b}$ ['beɪke] b /'beɪkəɪ/ baker, ['leʔtṣtṣ, -tʔ] $^{m.b}$ ['leftf, -tʔ] b /'lettt/ let it. In the /st, stʃ/ sequences, there is the possible variant /s/ [s] (by further assimilating to the following contoid, which is typical of broader accents): ['stɔʔp, 'stṣ-] $^{m.b}$ ['stpp] b /'stp/ stop/ stop, ['stɹaɪɪndʒ/ strange, ['khwestʃən, -stʃ-, -ʃtʃən, -ʃtʃən] $^{m.b}$ ['khwestʃən, -ftʃən] b /'kwestʃən, -ftʃ-/ question.

For /t/, [1] can occur, too: ['philipsi, 'philipsi; 'thwen?tsi, -ennil] $^{m.b}$ ['philipsi, 'thwenti] b /'piiti, 'twenti/ pretty, twenty. Even [N? η] (in addition to [N?tson, - η]): ['khlin? η , 'eo(\hat{t})? η , 'bəs? η] $^{m.b}$ ['khlin η , 'el η , 'bs η] b /'klintən, 'eltən, 'bəiitən/ Clinton, Elton, Burton.

Besides, we find [in] for the grammeme $\{-ing\}$: ['ixolin, 'iyou-]^{m.b} ['ixolin] b /'iyou-lin/ b rolling; this example also shows the oscillation for /yu/ before /IV/, under the in-

fluence of $/\operatorname{sul}/[\operatorname{su}(\hat{\mathfrak{f}})]^{m.b}[\operatorname{sol}]^b$, whereas in non-derivatives the normal realization occurs: $[\operatorname{phxola}]^{m.b}[\operatorname{phxole}]^b/\operatorname{psule}]^b/\operatorname{polar}$. It is possible to have $/\operatorname{gk}/\operatorname{in}$: $[\operatorname{sam-\thetaig}]^k/\operatorname{sim}]^b/\operatorname{sim}$, $[\operatorname{sin}]^b/\operatorname{sin}]^b/\operatorname{sin}$.

From the examples, one can notice that the most frequent realization of /1/ is not postalveolar rounded ([1], as in neutral pronunciation), but (postalveolarized) prevelar rounded ([1], corresponding to the neutral American articulation). But there are also four further quite frequent variants: the labiodental, [v], and its combinations with other articulations, labiodental rounded, [û], velarized labiodental, [v], and postalveolarized labiodental, [v]: [1919]1917, velarized labiod

Very frequently, a non-etymological /i/ is inserted: $[ab/sout]^{m.b}$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$ $[ab/sout]^b$

vəiˈhəːid/ I overheard.

2.4.3.7. Our examples have already shown that one of the most evident characteristics, which is socially stigmatized, is the $\langle \text{zero} \rangle$ realization of /h/ (\rightarrow [\emptyset]): $['(h) \text{dre}]^{m.b}$ $['har]^b$ /'har high. Consequently, even hypercorrections are frequent, as happens with the name of the letter h (not without a certain $\langle \text{internal} \rangle$ logic): $['(h) \text{ai} \text{ft}]^{m.b}$ $['\text{eit}]^b$ /'eit]/. On the other hand, the reduced form of him is less frequent: $['\text{tsheo}(\hat{\textbf{f}}) \text{hum}]^{m.b}$ $['\text{thelum}]^b$ /'telim/ tell him; equally for the reduced form of a: $[\text{ai'mern}]^{m.b}$ $[\text{pimærn}]^a$ /pimærn/ a man. Also for $/\text{Cpn}^{\#}/$, a less reduced form is more frequent: $[\text{phipinansi'aijen}, '\text{dzerksen}]^{m.b}$ $[\text{phipinansi'eijen}, '\text{dzeksen}]^b$ /pienansi'eijen, 'dzeksen/ pronunciation, Jackson.

The sequences /tj, dj, nj/ have the peculiarity of typically corresponding to /tʃ, dʒ/ and [n]: ['tʃhēun]^{m.b} ['thjūun] b /'tjūun/ tune, ['dʒēun] $^{m.b}$ ['djūun] b /'dioun/ dune, ['nēu] $^{m.b}$ ['njūu] b /'niūu/ new (in Cockney we actually find ['nēu] = /'nou/). Occasionally, /θ, o / can become /f/ and / $^{#}$ d, v respectively (which is a typical Cockney pronunciation, and can be heard even on the borders of the Estuary) area [and in further –mostly metropolitan– areas, which have been influenced by this accent]): ['θɹēɪ, 'fɹ-]^{m.b} ['θɹri] b /'θɹɪi/ three, ['ðɪs, 'd-] $^{m.b}$ ['ðɪs] b /'ðɪs/ this, ['maða, -va] $^{m.b}$ ['meðe] b /'mʌðəɪ/ b mother.

2.4.3.8. There is nothing to say about /l/, while for /ł/ there is a typical (vocalization) of [ł, ½] which become [o] (fig 2.19), after V or C, as many examples have already shown (particularly those of the neutralization before /½/). The lateralized velar rounded approximant [ŷ] (in brackets in the figure) indicates a less marked pronunciation, where the lateralized contoid is added to the vocalization, [o], in order to try to attenuate this characteristic, which is often socially stigmatized. So, we can find [ɣ], without lip-rounding, as a kind of halfway compromise.

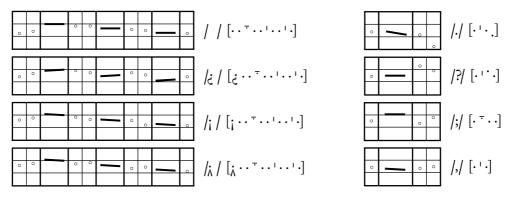
Here are some examples, to complete the survey: $['l\iota ? t \circ (\hat{\imath})]^{m.b}$ $['l\iota !]^b$ $/'l\iota !]^b$ /

b3lt, -o'h-]^{m.b} [lths'bəl] b /'lths'bəlth 'lth '

2.4.3.9. In cases like the following, we often find secondary stresses: $['d\iota k] = 1$, 'sem=1, 'doom=1, 'dooma\text{'doom}

Regarding intonation, we have to say that the pitch of the first stressed syllable and of the following internal unstressed syllables in a preintoneme is less high than in the neutral pronunciation, as can be seen from fig 2.20. The suspensive intoneme is more similar to the American one; and, often, the interrogative intoneme, besides being as in neutral British English, can be rising-falling (again in fig 2.20, where we show only the different type): [¿dʒə⁻spəɪʔk 'unglıʃ 'wero(͡ᢋ):]^{m.b} [¿dʒə⁻spəɪk 'unglıʃ 'wero(͡ᢋ):]^b Do you speak English well?

fig 2.20. Mediatic British intonation.



Text

2.5.0. The story *The North Wind and the Sun* (by Aesop) follows. It is given in five different (normalized) versions. In fact, they systematically and coherently present the most typical characteristics, which are acknowledged as peculiar. We start with the American and British versions in (neutral) English, which is the first step of the phonetic method. The international version follows together with the two mediatic versions of American and British English.

In the other chapters of the book, for each language dealt with, at least *two* kinds of *foreign pronunciations* are given: first the *foreign pronunciation of English*, and lastly the *British English pronunciation of the foreign language* in question, according to the same principles. The speakers are supposed to be neutral speakers of their own language, fluent in English (after prolonged contact with native speakers, but with no help from the phonetic method), who have adequately learned the relative prominences, but who substantially use segments (vowels & consonants) and intonation elements, which are typical of neutral English (although, of course, a neutral accent is not so common). Obviously, the same principle is valid for the foreign pronunciations of English, given first. Sometimes further accents have been added as can be seen in the correspondent chapters.

Graphemic text

2.5.2.0. The North Wind and the Sun were disputing which was the stronger, when a travel(l)er came along wrapped in a warm cloak. They agreed that the one who first succeeded in making the travel(l)er take his cloak off should be considered stronger than the other.

Then the North Wind blew as hard as he could, but the more he blew the more closely did the travel(l)er fold his cloak around him; and at last the North Wind gave up the attempt. Then the Sun shone out warmly, and immediately the travel(l)er took off his cloak. And so the North Wind was obliged to confess that the Sun was the stronger of the two.

Did you like the story? Do you want to hear it again?

Neutral American pronunciation

2.5.2.1. [ðəˈnoˈɪð ˈwunːd· ənðəˈsʌnː· wɪ̞duˈspj̞µunɪŋ ˈwutʃ wuzðəˈsṛɹɔˈŋgɨ̞ː] ˈwen ə-ˈthɹævlɨ̞ ˈkherim əˈlɔˈŋ· lˈæpʈ unuˈwoːɹm ˈkhlook·] ðeɪuˈgɹridɨ̞ ðətðuˈwʌn µˈfɨ̞rs suk-ˈsridəd· umˈmeɪkuŋ ðəˈʈhɹævlɨ̞ ˈˈʈheɪk uzˈkhlook ˈɔˈf·-| "ʃobbikunˈsudɨ̞d ˈˈsṛɹɔˈŋgə̞ ðənði-ˈʌðɨ̞ː]

t:om'eδ |·uruld'i t:om'eδted |.·brohk'ise ·bt:ph'se ·uruld' ·muw' θtron'eδ ·naδ' ·iplw ·dtron'eδ ;·plosal'se(b)nej |·mubnopt'u koplhk'su błord' ·plosal' ·p

[||::nap'w rilid'e(r) now'ujb; |·irote'e6; ·deel'ezbib;

Neutral British pronunciation

2.5.2.2. [ðə norð 'winid ənðə'sen: wudi spjuutin 'with wuzðə'sttonge...| wen ə-'thtævlə kherim ə'lon tapt inu worm khlaok...| deiu girid dətdu wen ufars suk'siidid im meikin də'thtævlə theik iz khlaok of. hobbikun sidad "sttonga dəndi'eðe...|

 $\label{eq:com_epsilon} $$\operatorname{com_e\delta} : \operatorname{com_e\delta} : \operatorname{c$

 $[\|[\cdot]_{n} + \|_{n} +$

(International) English pronunciation

2.5.2.3. [ðəˈnoˈrð ˈwɪnːd· ənðəˈsenː· wərdɪˈspjuutɪŋ ˈwɪtʃ wəzðəˈstʃɹɒŋgərː] ˈwen əˈtʃhɹævlər· ˈkherm əˈlɒˈŋ· ˌˈɹæpt ɪnəˈwoːɪm ˈkhlook·,] ðerəˈgɹirid·: ðətðəˈwen uˈfəˈrs
səkˈsiidəd· ɪmˈmerkɪŋ ðəˈtʃhɹævlər· ˈtherk ɪzˈkhlook ˈɒf·· | "ʃobbikənˈsɪdərd "stʃɹɒŋgər
ðənðiˈeðər.]|

-sapinari wum; hundi izam'ebised | . pradi'ize pradi'ize

¿dıdzə'laek: ¿ðə'sfozi: | ¿dju'won fə'hızıf ə'gen: |||]

«Mediatic» American pronunciation

[||:n3p⁺w rekedig ubanamaki ijakanamaki mganamaki ijakanamaki mganamaki ijakanamaki ijak

<Mediatic> British pronunciation

2.5.2.5. [ðə¬nooθ ˈwɪnːd· ənðəˈsan:· wudɪ¬spjəuð ˈwɪzðəˈstsɪŋga...|
wen əˈtshɪɛvlə· ¬kharım əˈlɔŋ· լ¬ɪɛʔpts ınuˈworom ˈkhlxoʔk...| ðaɪuˈɡɪərɪdɨ ðəʔðu¬wan uˈsəs suʔkˈsəɪdɪd· m¬maɪʔkɪŋ ðəˈtshɪɛvlə· ¬tshark uzˈkhlxoʔk ˈɔf..| ˌdobbiʔkun¬sɪdad "stsɪŋga ðənðiˈaða...|

orom eg |: m-aldi tolom eg |: m-aldi tolom eg |: m-aldi tolom eg |: m-aldi tolom eg |: m-alge |: m-al

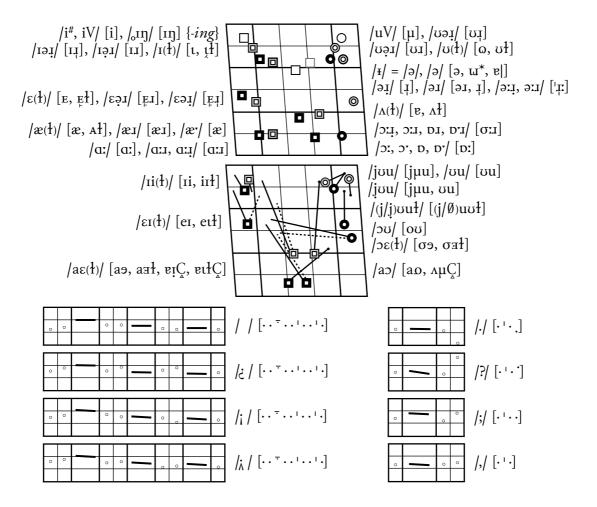
[||:nap'w atirihea fucm. http://ierooas/eg? atenfedip.

Appendix: further accents

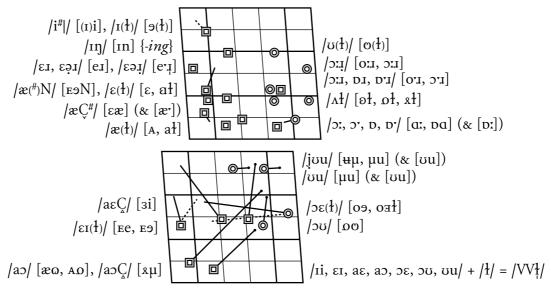
2.6.0. Concisely, we now provide the phonosyntheses of six accents. The practice had with the five preceding accents (ie the two neutral and two mediatic American and British, and the international one) will surely allow us to identify their peculiarities, starting from the diaphonemic transcriptions to see how they are actually realized in the indicated areas. Obviously, if the readers cannot immediately find some appropriate examples, they can use those given in the whole chapter, depending on its sections. Clearly, the readers who are already familiar with these other accents will more easily and spontaneously find both the examples and the phonic values (together with connections and analogies). A more systematic treatment will be done in *English Pronunciations* (in the bibliography); although a careful examination of the vocograms given here will certainly provide more detailed information.

Canadian English pronunciation

2.6.1. There are many peculiar unifications of vowels, with the merging of /ɔː, ɔː, ɒ, ɒː/ into [ɒː] and of /ɔːi, ɔːɪ, ɒɪ, ɒɪ/ into [σːɪ] ([ˈsʊːi] /ˈsɒːi/ sorry). In addition, there are peculiar diphthongs with narrow taxophones of /ει, ɔʊ/ [ει, oʊ], and of those of /aɛ, aɔ/ followed by a voiceless C within the word, [ɐɪ, ʌμ]: [ˈnɐɪ̞t, ˌʌμt]



Current and mediatic variants



/ˈnaɛt, ˈaɔt/ night, out. There are neutral and non-neutral taxophones for many vowels and diphthongs + /t/. The neutral ones which change phones are: /æt, ʌt, ʊt; ɪit, ɛɪt, aɛt, ɔɛt, ʊut/; the others are /ɪt, ɛt/ and /ʌt/ with other variants; in addition to a possible insertion of [w] before [t]. As far as phoneme distribution is concerned, certain words are pronounced with <code>Abritish</code> vowel elements, others with <code>American</code> ones. For the consonants, the use is similar to the American one.

In *current* and *mediatic* pronunciations (given in the second set of vocograms), we find that hypercorrection can produce $|j\upsilon u|$ for $|\upsilon u|$ (noon, too, do...), due to the fact that, for $|j\upsilon u|$, careful speakers prefer $|j\upsilon u|$, after |n|, t, d/. In addition, we find the nasalization of $|VN^{\#}, VN^{\#}|$ [$\tilde{V}N^{\#}, \tilde{V}N^{\#}$], even in $|V^{\#}N|$ (above all for $|\varpi|$); lastly, for |1|, we have $[\frac{1}{2}V]$, in these kinds of pronunciations.

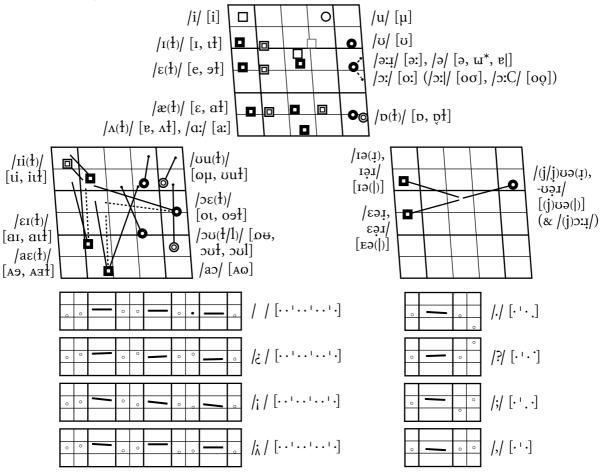
Australian English pronunciation

2.6.2. We present four different accents separately: neutral (<cultivated Australian), in the first three vocograms, which is used by a limited number of speakers, who have learned it intentionally, as happens for all neutral accents).

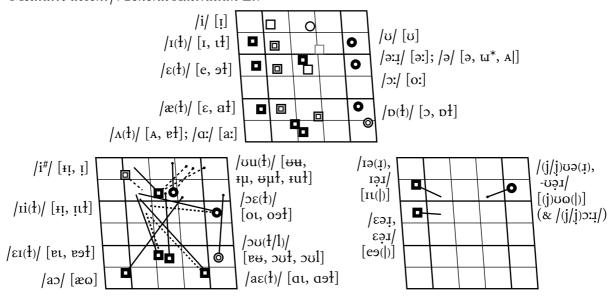
The *mediatic* accent (general Australian), in the second series of three vocograms, typical of mass media and many speakers), the *broad* accent (broad Australian) in the third series of three vocograms, typical of uneducated people, which is heavily nasalized, too), and also the *affected* accent (modified Australian), in the fourth series of three vocograms, used by a very small group of élite speakers, who aim at imitating traditional or affected British pronunciation, which is considered to be too mannered and unacceptable).

For each accent, we will first see the monophthongs (given in the first vocogram), moving then to the diphthongs, and lastly to centering diphthongs (in the third vocogram; in this case, the peculiarities of broad accents are quite evident). For /* we regularly have / > /, except in affected pronunciations.

Neutral accent/< Cultivated Australian E.>



Mediatic accent/(General Australian E.)



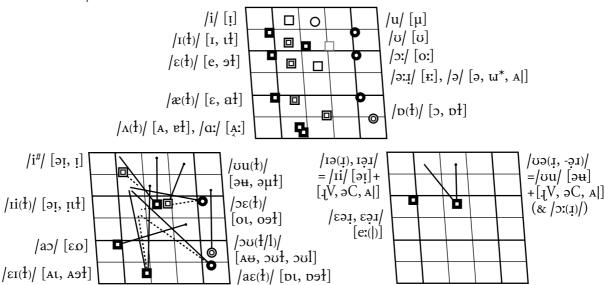
The most typical characteristic (similar to mediatic British and Cockney pronunciations) consists in a wider pronunciation of the diphthongs /II, EI, aE, DE, aD, DU, UU/, as can be seen from the respective vocograms (in addition to [I, e] for /I, E/, since, only in affected pronunciations, can we find [E+] for E/). The diapho-

neme $/\underline{\imath}/$ follows British use (although some young Australians, especially females, who live abroad, present a fluctuating and non-neutral use of $[\underline{\imath}]$). Let us notice (and very well too) the various taxophones + $/\frac{1}{\imath}/$.

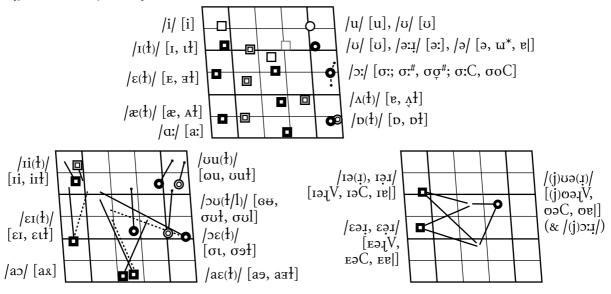
We systematically find $\langle / \text{oulV} \rangle$ (whereas in Cockney and in mediatic British English minimal pairs occur such as $\langle / \text{oulV} \rangle \neq \langle / \text{oulV} \rangle$, as *polar*). Occasionally, we can have $\langle / \text{o:a.j.} \rangle$, for $/ \text{o:a.j.} \rangle$ (either $\langle / \text{o:a.j.} \rangle$). Except in neutral pronunciation, for the /ii, ϵ i, a ϵ , o ϵ / diphthongs, we have [VVł, VVł]; besides, /(V)Vəl/ [(V)Vul, (V)Vł], without vocalizations (with [ł, ł], after phones with labial component).

The diaphoneme /t/ has [1], as in American English. For /C † , Cə † , neutral pronunciation has [C † , Cu †]; thus, it has [IV †], without vocalizations (which are present, though, in broad pronunciations). It is possible to hear a non-neutral pronunciation with /l/ [†], for l + - † , - † e, - † er... (grammemes [or even pseudo-grammemes] added to / † #/).

Broad accent/ Broad Australian E.>



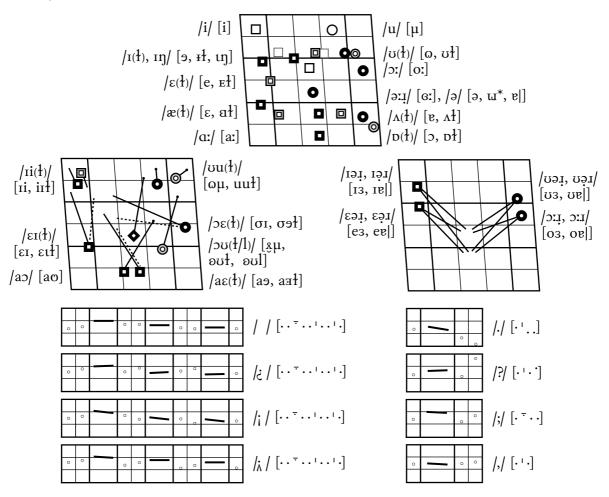
Affected accent/ (Modified Australian E.)



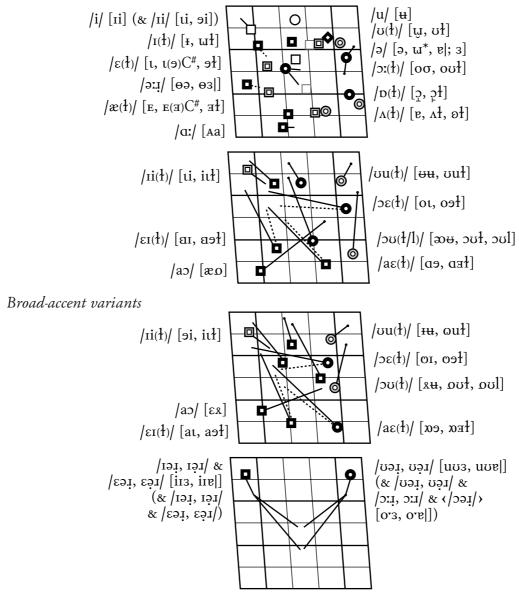
New Zealand English pronunciation

/@I/[EI; EI] is always distinct (in all accents). Occasionally, we can find $\langle /\text{Siel}/\rangle$, for $/\text{Siel}/(\text{both} \langle /\text{Siel}/\rangle)$, and $\langle /\text{Or}/\rangle$. The triphthongs are not attenuated into diphthongs. Even in neutral pronunciation, we have /II/[II] (not $\langle [\text{SII}, \text{III}]\rangle$). In New Zealand, /@V, /OI/[III/(IV, IV, IV)] = /IV/[II/(IV, IV)] is only an intentional choice); /III/[III/(III/(II/(II))]) is only in intentional choice); /IIII/[IIII/(IIII/(III/(III))])

The most typical characteristic consists in [9, e] for /1, $\varepsilon/$, in neutral pronunciation (but [1, t], in the other accents), in addition to the pronunciation of the diphthongs /1i, εI , a ε can be seen from the respective vocograms. Besides, $/2\pi I$, a ε is rounded, $[6\pi]$ (or only partially so, $[6\theta, 63]$), in the other pronunciation kinds).



Mediatic-accent variants



The diaphoneme $|\underline{x}|$ is distributed like in British English (although in the southern and rural part of the South Island, $|\underline{x}|$ is not silent, as in American pronunciation). On the other hand, even in non-neutral pronunciations of other New-Zealand areas, $|\underline{x}|$ can be pronounced in words –mostly in monosyllables– ending in r.

Neutral /1/ is [1] (while non-neutral accents can even have [2]); as in British English, /t1, d1/ can be realized as [$\xi(h)$ 1, d21], in addition to normal [$\xi(h)$ 1, d1] (whereas the other accents can also have [$\xi(h)$ 1, d21] and [$\xi(h)$ 2, d22], including /st1/ [$\xi(h)$ 3]. In non-neutral pronunciation, often / $\xi(h)$ 3 | $\xi(h)$ 4 | $\xi(h)$ 5.

The neutral accent can have /hw/ [b], still rather extensively used, even in current pronunciation; besides, it has [lVt]; whereas, non-neutral pronunciation has [lVt] and also $[{}^{\dagger}V_{\xi}^{\sharp}, {}^{\dagger}V_{\xi}^{\sharp}, {}^{\dagger}V_{\varphi}^{\sharp}]$. Except in neutral pronunciation, for the diphthongs /II, EI, aE, DE/, we find /VVt, VVt/; unless they are vocalized as [VVo]. For /Ct/*, Cot/*/, the neutral accent has $[\![Ct]^{\sharp}, Ct/^{\sharp}, Cut/^{\sharp}]$; the other accents have $[\![Cet]^{\sharp}, Cet/^{\sharp}, Cot/^{\sharp}]$; $[\![Cet]^{\sharp}, Cet/^{\sharp}, Cet/^{\sharp}]$; $[\![Cet]^{\sharp}, Cet/^{\sharp}]$; $[\![Cet]$

We systematically find $\langle / \Im \upsilon | V \rangle$ (whereas in Cockney and in mediatic British English there are minimal pairs with $\langle / \Lambda \upsilon | V \rangle \neq \langle / \Im \upsilon | V \rangle$, as in *polar*). The reader is invited to carefully observe the numerous taxophones + / 1 /, both neutral and non-neutral.

In non-neutral pronunciation, there are more or less regular vowel *neutralizations* % *mergers* (realized as in the given vocograms; those appearing in round brackets occur less often): $normal - |\text{ri}^{\dagger}, \text{ri}^{\dagger}| \rightarrow |\text{ri}^{\dagger}| (|\text{ri}^{\dagger}|); |\text{riəi}, \text{rəi}| \rightarrow |\text{riəi}| (|\text{rəi}|); |\text{rəi}, \text{cəi}| \rightarrow |\text{riai}| (|\text{rəi}, \text{cəi}|); |\text{rəi}, \text{cəi}| \rightarrow |\text{rii}| (|\text{rəi}, \text{cai}|); |\text{rəi}, \text{cai}| \rightarrow |\text{rii}| (|\text{rai}, \text{cai}|); |\text{rəi}, \text{cai}| \rightarrow |\text{rai}| (|\text{rai}, \text{cai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{cai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{cai}| \rightarrow |\text{rai}| (|\text{rai}, \text{cai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}| \rightarrow |\text{rai}| (|\text{rai}, \text{rai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}| (|\text{rai}, \text{rai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}| (|\text{rai}, \text{rai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}| (|\text{rai}, \text{rai}|); |\text{rai}, \text{rai}| (|$

The following are *occasional*: $/(j)\upsilon \ni i$, $\ni : i/ \rightarrow /\ni : i/$, $/i \nmid i/ \rightarrow /\upsilon \nmid i/$; $/i \nmid i/ \rightarrow /\iota \nmid i/$; $/i \nmid i/ \rightarrow /\iota \mid i/$; $/i \nmid i/$; $/i \mid i$

/t, t/ (and /p, k, t/) behave as in American English (without glottalization; but, between V, they can behave as in British English, with continuous –non-occlusive–realizations of /p, t, k/). Neutral pronunciation regularly has linking / μ /1, but avoids linking when no etymological / μ /1 occurs.

Generally, reduced forms are less frequent and less systematic. Tendentially, there is no systematic reduction of *you*, *her*; more often (even unstressed) *been* has its full form: /biin/. In cases such as *affect*, *effect* and *allusion*, *illusion*, above all in less neutral pronunciations, for a, we have |x| [3x]; for i, e, |x|, |x|, we have |x| Frequently [3x] occurs for the article a, too.

For -ary, -ery, &c, the American stressing is frequent, but neutral pronunciation prefers the British one.

Traditional British English pronunciation

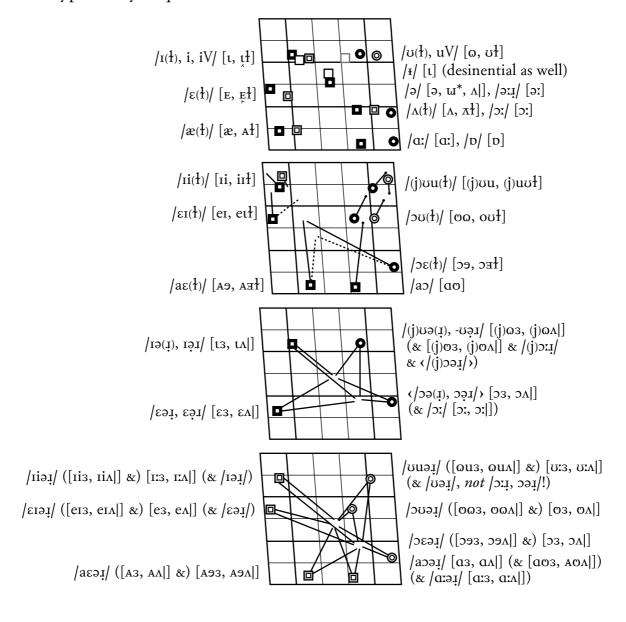
2.6.4. This is the classic pronunciation known as RP (*Received Pronunciation*), which was the only one to be admitted by the BBC up to one or two generations ago, with narrow /II, EI, DU, UU/ [IxI, EI, OO, UxU], and /AE, AD, DE/ with well distinguished first elements, [A9, OO, D9] (and diametrically opposed to the mediatic realizations, [OP, EO, OP]). It has no glottalization of /P, t, k, tf/ (not even [PC], nor [C], with the only possible occurrence of [P] for /t/, before sonants: [Iskotland, IskoPland] *Scotland*). Let us notice carefully the taxophones of the short vowels and diphthongs with front first elements before /\frac{1}{2}.

In addition, it has /x[#]V/ only when it is etymological and spelt as r (in which case, it rather has [#7V], except in informal or colloquial speech, at times). Besides, $\langle tj, dj, sj, zj, \theta j \rangle$ are highly frequent, as in ['khwestjən, -stʃən; 'sjoupʌ, 'sou-], *question*, *super* (with [ʃ ʒ, ʃj ʒj] only in colloquial or informal pronunciation, for /ˈkwestʃən, 'soupəɪ/ [ˈkhwestʃən, 'spupɐ]); /pf, -θ, -s, -ft, -st/ = /ɔː/ [ɔː] (as in [ˈɔrf, 'lɔrst]) off, lost, for /ˈpf, 'lɒrst/ [ˈpf, 'lɒst]); /ɪ/ [ɪ, 'VrV, θr, ðr, pr, br, kr, gr].

It invariably presents $[-i\eta]$ /- $i\eta$ /; it has $[h, \emptyset]$ for /*_oh/ hotel, and $[\emptyset]$ in reduced forms with #h and in -ham#; /hw/ [w], [wen:] when; in addition, unstressed my is

/_oma9, _omi, _omə/; besides, /_oει, _oɔʊ/ are [E, ʊ] before [']: *vacation*, *november*; /-ɔʊ/ is [ʊ] in compounds when it is at the end of the first lexeme (even if separated): *window sill*. For *ar*, ⟨/αλ/⟩ [αλ] is possible; even ⟨/ɔəɪ/⟩ for /ɔːɪ/. Fınally, it has [VɜɪV] for /VəɪV, VəɪV/, and [ι] for /i[#], iV/: [ˈkhɑː, ˈkhɑʌ; ˈmɔʌ; ˈmɛɜɪ̯ι, -rɪ] /ˈkɑɹɪ, ˈmɔɹɪ, ˈmɛəɹi/ *car*, *more*, *Mary*.

Triphthong attenuation is very frequent (but less than in affected pronunciation or in Cockney), even between word, also for /VV#oI/: [ˈfaxʌ, ˈfax; aəɪnˈdʒɔɪt/ fire, I enjoy it. Substantially, its intonation patterns correspond to the neutral ones; with the conclusive and suspensive intonemes, a creaky phonation type is very frequent.



Affected British English pronunciation

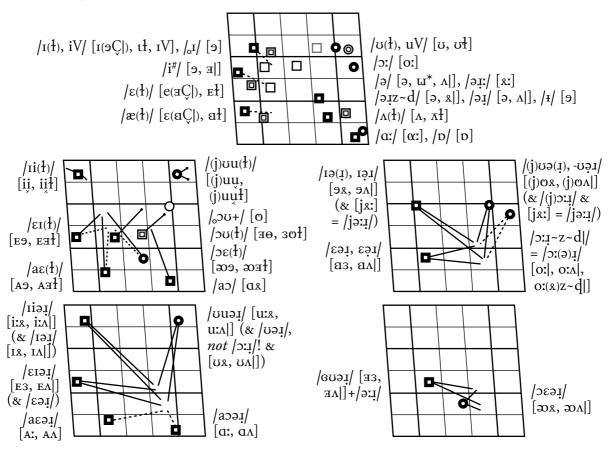
2.6.5. It can be flaunted by aristocrats and people of high social, religious, and cultural standings. But it is generally thought of as too affected. It is characterized

by more peripheral /1, υ /, ie [1, υ] (instead of [ι , ω]); but they are more centralized in /1 ι 1, ι 2 ι 2, ι 3 ι 3 ι 4, ι 4 ι 5, ι 5 ι 4, ι 5 ι 5, ι 5 ι 7, ι 5 ι 7, ι 7, ι 8, ι 9, ι 9

When the phoneme /1/ is fully unstressed, it is [ə], as /i[#]/ too (instead of [i]), and, before pauses, it even becomes [ɪ]: [rt]-etelud'ezıvı]; it has /-ɪŋ/ [-ən, əŋ]; also /ɪ/ is [ə], as many /ə/ are, as well.

Besides, $|\varepsilon, \varkappa|$ are closer $[\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$; when $|\iota, \varepsilon, \varkappa|$ are final, in stressed checked syllables ending in voiced C before a pause, they diphthongize as $[\iota, \varepsilon, \varepsilon]$: $[\iota, \varepsilon]$; $[\iota, \varepsilon]$, $[\iota, \varepsilon]$,

/əːɪ, əːɪ; ʌ; ɑː/ are backer, [xː, ʌ, ɑː] (and the last one occurs more frequently than in neutral pronunciation); for ar, $\langle |\alpha A \rangle \rangle$ [αx] is possible. The diphthongs are considerably narrow and have particular timbres, manly /ɪi, ʊu/ [ii, uu] and /aɔ, ɔɛ, ɔu/ [ɑx, ɔə, əə] (and [soł], for [ɪi, µu, ao, σə, so] and [ooł]). For short vowels and for diphthongs with front first elements, there are taxophones requiring different symbols.



It has no glottalization of /p, t, k, tʃ/ (ie neither [?C], nor [\mathring{C}]; with the only possible occurrence of [?] for /t/, before sonants: ['skptlənd, 'skp?lənd] *Scotland*); </tj, dj, sj, zj, θ j/> are fairly frequent, as in ['khwestjən, -stʃən; 'sjuupʌ, 'suu-], *question*, *super* (with [ʃ ʒ, ʃj ʒj] only in colloquial or informal pronunciation, for /ˈkwestʃən, 'suupəɪ/ [ˈkhwestʃən, 'shupɐ]); /p·f, - θ , -s, -ft, -st/ = /p:/ [oː], in addition to /p/ [p] in some words, today, but *off* maintains /p:/.

/I/ [I, \forall VrV, θ r, δ r, /I/ [I, \forall VrV, θ r, δ r, pr, br, kr, gr] (also $[\forall$ VvV], and even $[\forall$ VfV,

'VųV] in some frequent words: *very*, *terrible*, *sorry*, *tomorrow*); non-written and non-etymological /ɪ[#]V/ is frequent. Often, the (aspiration) of /p, t, k, tʃ/ is very weak (contrary to Cockney usage). In addition, it has [Ø] for /[#]_oh/ hotel; /ḥw/ [w], [ˈweョn] *when*; unstressed *my* is /_omɪ, _omə/; /-ɔʊ/ is [o] in compounds when it is at the end of the first lexeme (even if separated): *window sill*.

Triphthong attenuation is extremely frequent (as in Cockney), even between words, also for /VV#oI/: ['fax, 'fax; Asin'dzoif, Ain-] /'faeəi, aein'dzoeit/ fire, I enjoy it. Substantially, its intonation patterns correspond to the neutral ones; with the conclusive and suspensive intonemes, the creaky phonation type is very frequent; paraphonic pitch expansion is typical; in intonemes, syllables are lengthened.

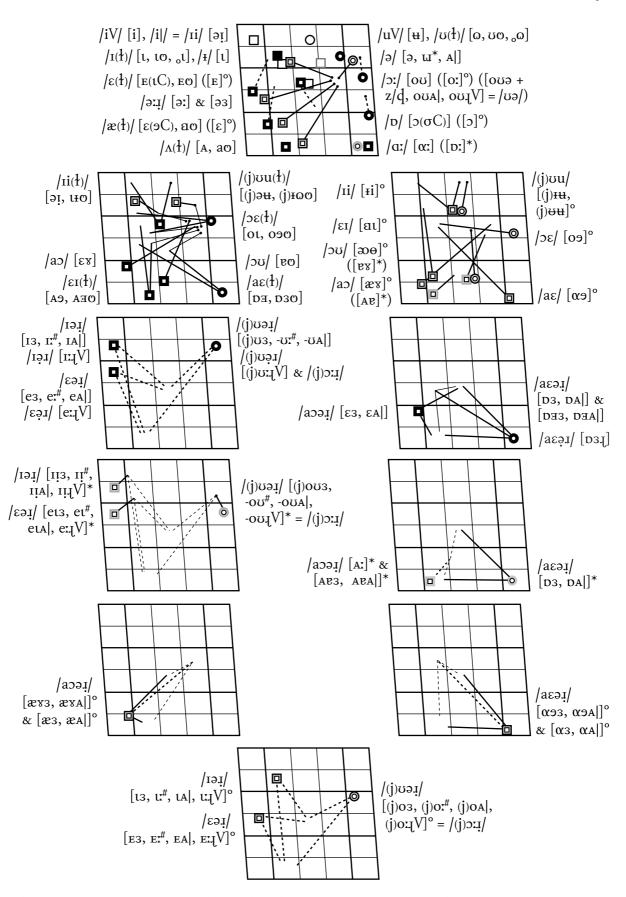
Cockney pronunciation (London)

For the monophthongs, the most evident characteristics –in addition to some timbres– are contextual diphthongizations. In fact, in the most typical and broad accent, $|\varepsilon, \varepsilon, \sigma|$ occurring in stressed monosyllables in (bi)checked syllables –ie with $|C^{\#}, CC^{\#}|$ – are pronounced [E1, ε 9, ε 9]. For the first two phonemes, this fact is particularly clear with $|n, nd, t, d; \eta, k, ks, g|$ (although |t| = [7]) and with other voiced C (but also with voiceless ones), as in: $[\frac{1}{2}\cos^2 t] \frac{1}{2}\cos^2 t$

Something similar happens to /ɔː(i)/, which most typically is [oʊ] (although in a less broad pronunciation it is [oː]), as in [ˈloʊn, ˈwoʊʔa, ˈstsoʊɹəi] /ˈlɔːn, ˈwɔʊṭəi, ˈstɔːɪi/ lawn, water, story (for [ˈloːn, ˈwoʊɾ̞ɛ, ˈsfʊʊɹi]). In an intermediate accent as in the less broad one, in all positions, we always find [oː, oʊ], respectively; instead, in the most typical and broadest, we find [oʊa], when in word-final position before pauses.

However, in final position, within sentences, or with the grammemes /z#, d#/, we have [ou3]: ['pphouA] paw, pore, pour, poor (for ['pho:] /'pɔ:, 'pɔ:i/, and ['pho:, -org] /'puəi, -ɔ:/ for the last one [following the most international phonemic order]); ['pphou3z] paws, pores, pours, poor's (for ['pho:z] /'pɔ:z, 'pɔ:iz/, and ['pho:z, -or3z] /'puəiz, -ɔ:z/).

/ɔː/ occurs more frequently (and the same is true of traditional and affected pronunciations) than in the neutral accent, especially for /ɒː/: [ˈouf, ˈkxhlouf, ˈkxhlous] /ˈɒrf, ˈklɒrθ, ˈkxɒrs/ off, cloth, cross. Even /əːɪ/ can be diphthongized [əː, ərɜ]; and also the timbres of /ɑː, ʌ/ are quite remarkable (for /ə(ɪ)#|/, too): [ˈkxhɑː, -ɒː*; ˈfərva, ˈfəɜ-] /ˈkɑːi, ˈfəːɪðəɪ/ car, further. The vowels which are followed by nasal consonants (and often those which are preceded by nasals, too) are nasalized (as is the diph-



thong /aɔ/, quite often independently from context). For the grammeme /ɪŋ/ we have [ĩn, ə̃n, n̩]; and, for -thing, [-fĩŋʔk] is frequent: [ˈmõ̃n, ˈsʌ̃mfɪ̃ŋʔk, ˈɛ̃nɔ̃ɪ̃ˌfɪ̃ŋʔk]

 $\frac{1}{2}$ maεn, $\frac{1}{2}$ samθιη, $\frac{1}{2}$ eniθιη/ mine, something, anything.

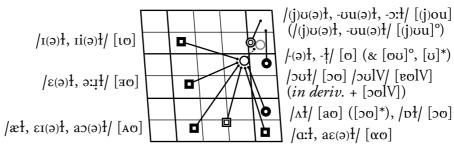
The fourth and fifth vocograms show the realizations of /121, 121; ϵ 21; ϵ 31; ϵ 31; ϵ 31; ϵ 32; (j)021, -21; as21, as21, as21, as21 (often /(j)0-/ becomes /(j)2:-/); instead, the sixth and seventh vocograms show the broadest variants, whereas the eighth to the tenth vocograms give the least broad variants.

\text{\(\io\)}, \(\io\), \(\i

We will now consider, in the last vocogram, the many (and typical) neutralizations of |V(V)| + |1|, which is vocalized into [ϖ] (in broader pronunciations, we find [ϖ], while in less broad ones, [ϖ ϖ], which we do not mark): $|\Pi^{\dagger}, \Pi^{\dagger}, \Pi^{$

For $/5\epsilon^{\frac{1}{2}}$, we have [090] (even in less broad accents); for $/-5\frac{1}{2}$, $-\frac{1}{2}$, we have [0] (and $[0]^*$, $[00]^\circ$); -el, -al and 'll, after vowels, can be slightly lengthened $[0^\circ, 00^\circ]$ (and the same is true of $/-5\frac{1}{2}$, $-\frac{1}{2}$). For $/-5\frac{1}{2}$, $-\frac{1}{2}$, we find $[01V, 01V^*]$, uncle (4°) (4°) [An?kol'33b3?(4°)].

In the first two vocograms, we have marked in grey also five *V* and five *VV*, which before /½/ may not undergo the typical neutralization shown in the last vocogram.



Examples: ['bAʔA] /'bAṭəɪ/ butter, ['wouʔA] /'wɔ-ṭəɪ/ water, [ˈkxhɔʔn̩] /ˈkɒtn̩/ cot-ton, ['sɪʔn̩] /ˈsitɪn̩/ sitting, [ˈdɔʔm̞] /ˈbeṭəm/ mottod, [ˈbəɜʔn̩] /ˈbəɪɪn/ butter, [ˈwouʔA] / mottod /

/ˈɛłtn/ Elton, [ˈkxhlĩnʔn] /ˈklɪntən/ Clinton, [ˈluʔo] /ˈlɪṭʔ/ little, [ˈpphɑ·ʔnÃ, -ɒ·ʔ-] /ˈpɑːɪtnəɪ/ partner, [ˈsɛʔppɪɹcʔəɪ] /ˈsɛpəɹətli/ separately, [ˈlɔʔs] /ˈlɒts/ lots.

More examples: ['pφhãšnʔa, -nʔa, -na, -na, -nʔta] /'pεɪnṭəɪ/ painter, ['pφhãšn-ʔtʔ, -nrʔ, -nrʔ, -nrʔ, -nrʔta] /'pεɪnṭət/ paint it, ['wouʔa] /'wɔːʔṭəɪ/ Walter, ['ouʔtʔ, -ʔtʔ, -rtʔ, -ʔtṣtʔ] /'hɔːʔṭət/ halt it, ['ṣṭṣαʔtʔ, -ʔtʔ, -rtʔ, -ʔtṣtʔ] /'stɑːṭət/ start it, ['tʔtʔ, 'tʔtʔ, 'tʔtʔ, 'tʔtʔ] /'htṭət/ hit it, [əˈltʔo ˈbtʔ əˈbaʔa] /əˈlṭṭ/ ˈbtṭ əvˈbaʔa] /a little bit of butter,

['ppho? 'A?pp] /'put 'Ap/ put up, ['ppho?t? 'A?pp] /'putit 'Ap/ put it up.

In less broad pronunciations, an incomplete, attenuated stop is possible: [?], which is less (invasive); the vocoid preceding [?] can even be laryngealized, whereas [?] can become (zero), especially before another vocoid (adding, however, the creaky phonation type), [V?V \rightarrow V?V \rightarrow VV]: [\rightarrow V], [\right

Before V (even if derived from /‡/, and even between words), also a less broad variant, [1], is possible (or even [2t5] in ⟨elegant⟩ speech, which we do not indicate). It is also possible for [n1] to become [n]; here we will report the relevant examples, without spelling, following the order in which they are given above (including water and Walter): ['baia, 'wouia, 'stiān, 'bdiān, 'liio], ['pphāānia, -na; 'pphāānia, -ni?], ['wouia, 'ouit?, 'stsait?, 'tit?, əˈliio ˈbii əˈbaia, 'pphoi ˈaʔpp, 'pphoiti ˈaʔpp].

Other consonants can become [ʔ], especially /p, k/: [ˈstsɔʔm̩] /ˈstɒpɪŋ/ stopping, [ˈfulʔ ˈlɒɜʔtsuʔ] /ˈfulɪp ˈlaɛktɪt/ Philip liked it, [ˈkxhɔʔnəɪ] /ˈkɒkni/ Cockney. In a previous example, we have seen that typically /d/ becomes stopstrictive, [dɪ]; besides, commonly, /Vd/ is realized as [Vʔ], when it is word-final and followed by C or V, and in the grammeme sequence {-dn't} /-dnt/, as well: [ˈbɹɛʔm ˈbaʔa] /ˈbɹɛdn ˈbʌtəɪ/ bread and butter, [ˈqoʔ ˈboɔə] /ˈqud ˈbɔɛ/ good boy, [pəˈdɪʔn(ʔts)] /aeˈdɪdnt/ I didn't.

For /st, stɪ, stʃ/, broad pronunciations have [sts, stɪ, ʃtʃ]: [ˈstsa-ə] /ˈstɛɪ/ stay, [ˈstɪɔ-ŋ] /ˈstɪɔ-ŋ/ strong, [ˈkxwheʃtʃən, -tʃn] /ˈkwɛstʃən/ question. In broad pronunciations, /θ, ð/ become /f, v/; however, there are many intermediate nuances, including the realizations of normal pronunciation: [f, v; ł, v; ϑ, δ; θ, δ; θ, δ]. More often, /#ð/ can be realized as [Ø, ρ, d, d]: [ɪsˈɛvs ɪzˈmõān, ριs-, dıs-, dıs-] /ðɪsˈhaɔs ɪz-ˈmaɛn/ this house is mine. As we have seen, the typical realization of /h/ is [Ø], which is a stigmatized pronunciation, and therefore can lead many speakers to hypercorrecting: [ˈhəɪʔ(tṣ)] /ˈrit/ eat. For /nj, tj, dj/, the typical Cockney pronunciation has no /j/, but, in less broad pronunciations, mediatic-like types are possible, as well: [ˈnə-u, ˈn-u, ˈn-u, ˈn-u] /ˈn-juu/ new, [ˈtṣh̄-ũn, ˈtṣh̄-ũn, ˈtṣh̄-un, ˈtṣh̄-un, ˈtṣh̄-un, ˈtṣh̄-un

Triphthong attenuation is extremely frequent, even between words, also for $|VV^{\#}_{o}I|$: ['fo'A, 'fo'A; Dip'doit, oip.] /'faeəi, aein'doeit/ fire, I enjoy it. Substantially, its intonation patterns correspond to the neutral ones. For (n)either we generally find /ii/.