## 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 everyday 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 Pronunciationf- 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 « ) after the diaphonemes, with examples.

## Vowels



```
/عı/ «/еı/» day /'deı/ ['de'i]
```




```
/ao/ </av/> cow/kas/ [kharo]
```



```
/vu/ «/ux, u/> who /hou/ [hou \(]^{a}[\mathrm{~h} \mu \mathrm{u}]^{b}\)
```



```
    ['wifyz] \({ }^{6}\)
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/a'/ </a', æ/> pasta /'pa'stə/ ['pharst^] \({ }^{a}\)
    ['phæste] \({ }^{b}\)
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```
\(\mid \mathrm{o} /\langle/ \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{o} /\rangle\) false /'forts/ ['fors, 'fałs] \({ }^{a}\)
    ['forłs, 'fołs] \({ }^{b}\)
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    ['hrif \({ }^{a}\) ['he.fi] \(b\)
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 ［＇43 $\left.{ }^{3} \mathrm{i}\right]^{b}$
 ［＇f3：］${ }^{b}$


 ［＇w $n$ nd $\left._{7}\right]^{a}$［＇wende］${ }^{b}$
 happier／hæріәџ！／［＇hæріп．］${ }^{a}\left[\right.$ hæpie］${ }^{b}$
 ［hrit］${ }^{a}$［hしe］${ }^{b}$



 pronunciations）
／uə！／«／uə，və，uər，vər，uə，uə ${ }^{\text {r }}$ ，və ${ }^{\text {r }, ~}$
 ［＇ieskjue］${ }^{b}$


 player／＇pleıə！$/$［＇phleir $]^{a}[\text {＇phleie }]^{b}$


 employer／im＇plocə．！／［ $\left.\mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{p}} \mathrm{phlog}_{\mathrm{I}}\right]^{a}$［ $\mathrm{mm}-$ ＇phloэe］${ }^{b}$
 tower／＇taəəı！／／［＇thaor］${ }^{\text {a }}$［＇†haoe］${ }^{b}$


 ／＇dvuə！／［＇dvur］$]^{a}$［＇quue］${ }^{b}$
 ．ıig／［＇w $-\eta$ q．$\left._{\text {tin }}\right]^{b}$


 ［kherit］${ }^{a}$［khez．fı］${ }^{b}$
／və̣．I／／／vər，var，vr／＞curing／kjuə̣．ュy／ ［＇khjoxıy］${ }^{a}$［khjoə fı七］${ }^{b}$（with f．pron．）







## Consonants

$/ \mathrm{m} /</ \mathrm{m} /$ s some $/$＇s $\Lambda \mathrm{m} /$［＇s $\left.^{\mathrm{s}} \mathrm{m} \mathrm{m}\right]^{a}[\text {＇sem：}]^{b}$


 $\mathrm{m}]^{a}\left[{ }^{[\mathrm{x}} \mathrm{-}-\right]^{b}$
 ［kho－］${ }^{b}$
／p／／／p／＞pack／＇pæk／［＇phæk］
／b／＜／b／＞back／bæk／［＇bæk］
$\mid \mathrm{t} /\langle/ \mathrm{t} /\rangle$ two／＇tvu／［＇$\left.\dagger \mathrm{h} \mathbf{J}^{\prime} \mathrm{u}\right]^{a}\left[{ }^{\prime} \dagger \mathrm{H} \mu \cdot \mathrm{u}\right]^{b}$
／d／＜／d／＞do／＇dvu／［＇quru］${ }^{a}[' \mathrm{q} \mu \mathrm{u} \mathrm{u}]^{b}$
／k／«／k／＞came／＇keım／［khe＇ım］
／g／／／g／＞game／＇geım／［＇gerim］
$|\mathrm{t} /</ \mathrm{t} / /\rangle$ chain／＇tyein／［＇the＇In］

｜f／＜／f／＞few／＇fjvu／［＇fjuru］
／v／＜／v／＞view／＇vjvu／［＇vj $\mu$ ru］


／s／＜／s／＞ice／＇acs／［＇aэs］
｜z｜＜／z／＞eyes／＇aعz／［＇a•эz］
$/ \mathrm{S} /$／／ $\mathrm{S} /$／dilution／dılvufə̣n／［dəlvufən］${ }^{a}$ ［diluufn］${ }^{b}$
$|3|</ 3 /\rangle$ delusion／dłlvu弓ə̣n／［dəlıu弓ən］${ }^{a}$ ［qıluuzn］${ }^{b}$

／j／＜／j／＞yate／＇jeıt／［jert］
／w／＜／w／＞wait／＇weit／［＇wert］
／h／＜／h／＞hate／heit／［hert］
／1／＜／1／＞late／leit／［1Erf］
$/ \mathrm{t} /</ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t} />$ city／＇sıți／［＇sui］${ }^{a}[\text {＇stii }]^{b}$


／h／＜／h，－／＞when／＇hwen／［＇wen：；＇hwen：； luen：］



## 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
 there are some diaphonemes: $\mid \mathfrak{X}^{\top}, \mathrm{a}^{\prime}, \mathrm{D}^{\top}, \partial^{\prime}, \partial^{\prime} /$, and unstressed $/ \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{f} /$ (plus some other possible devices). But, in the volume English Pronunciations, instead of /ii,


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

2.1.2.1. fig 2.1 shows the American monophthongs (the British ones are given in fig 2.2). Let us start from the eight black markers, which indicate the realizations of the following eight vowel phonemes (in stressed or unstressed syllables): [u] /r/, $[\mathrm{E}] / \varepsilon /,[æ] / æ /,[\mathrm{a}] / \mathrm{a} /,[\mathrm{a}] / \mathrm{p} /,[\Lambda] / \Lambda /,[\mathrm{s}] / \mathrm{x} /,[\mathrm{a}] / v /$. Although in the <mediatic American accent $(c f \$ 2.4 .2 .2) / \mathrm{a} /$ and $/ \mathrm{p} /$ are often neutralized -because they can both be realized as $[\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{s})]$ - in the neutral American accent we keep them apart, for three good reasons. Firstly, they are in actual fact different, even if chiefly only in terms of length. Furthermore, in this way we can keep a diaphonemic relation with the British neutral accent. And finally, this will help us in highlighting the characteristics of other accents, starting from comparable bases, although they are actually shared only by a minority of speakers. Let us stress, in fact, that a neutral pronunciation is always learned voluntarily.

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 /in/ [in], compared to the adverb in /'mn/ ['in:], or to the noun inn/'mn/ ['nn]]): ['ht f]
 ['Iлn:] /'İn/ run, ['lo:n] /'lo:n/ lawn, ['phof] /'pot/ put.

For the sake of descriptive precision, although generally variations do not require different symbols, it is worthwhile to notice the taxophones of $/ \mathrm{r}, \varepsilon \neq æ \not, \Lambda \not$, , $\mathrm{vt} /$; please note the two that change their symbols as well, in comparison with [ E ,

2.1.2.2. The grey markers in the vocogram also show three variants of $/ \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{v} / /$ $\left[\mathrm{I}, v_{0}, \sigma_{:}\right]$(compared to normal [ $\left.\left[, \omega, \sigma_{i}\right]\right)$. They occur in (stressed or unstressed) syl-
 terms of the nuclear element (or, perhaps, «nucleal» element) in [E.I] / $\varepsilon \partial_{!} /$, [a:I] /a:I/, because they coincide with the black markers for $/ \varepsilon, a: /[E, a:]$. Instead, the
typical American realization of /aب! / is through an intense contoid [rix , rather than a vocoid as in British pronunciation ([3:]).

 (instead of [II, UIT], for /IəỊ, və! $/$ /) does not sound strange, although it is not the most frequently heard.

For /ori/ (that is, before vowels: /oxiV/), the realization is [0x] (different from
 glish the diaphonemic transcriptions /ıə̣, $\varepsilon \underset{I}{ } \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{v}_{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{I} /$ correspond to /II, $\varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{v}_{\mathrm{I}} /$, with their typical articulations shown by the black markers. By the way, the difference




It must be also noticed that, in American pronunciation, the phonemic sequence

 əns] endurance, ['doıiy; 'drity] during. This is also true of other consonants with a


The difference between ['mo'mnı] /'moxnıy/ morning and ['moınıŋ, 'mo'ınıy] 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 ['moxnıy] (['monnıy] $\left.{ }^{b}\right) / \mathrm{moxinıy} /$ (and the traditional pronunciation of mourning could be shown diaphonemically as </'məə!̣nıy/> or </'moạniy/>).
fig 2.1. American monophthongs.

| /i\#, iV/ [i] | $\square$ |  | d |  | $/ \mathrm{uV} /[\mu]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 回 |  | 0 | $\bigcirc$ |  |
|  |  | $\square$ |  |  |  |
|  | $\square$ |  |  | $\bigcirc$ |  |
|  |  |  |  | 0 |  |
|  | $\square$ |  | 4 |  | $\|\mathrm{a}: /[\mathrm{a}],\|\mathrm{a}\|[\mathrm{a}:]$ |

2.1.2.3. The four white markers show the unstressed realizations of the remaining three phonemes: $[i] / i /,[\mu] / u /,[\partial, u] / \partial /$. They occur in the following contexts


 (value, statue, virtue, issue, tissue) may have a reduced variant, especially in a preintoneme, which might usefully be represented with the diaphoneme $/ \mathrm{u}^{\#} /:$ :'vælj $\mu(\mathrm{u})$,


Finally, / $/$ is the most frequent unstressed vowel phoneme of the English language (in particular American, Oceanian, and South African): [fə' ${ }^{\prime}$ hagıəfı] /fə'tog-

final /a/ before a pause (even a short one), is realized as if it were the (unstressed) phoneme $/ \Lambda /$; 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: ['soofəz] ${ }^{a}$ ['sзofəz] ${ }^{b}$ /'sэr-
 wuz'o'ołd, -fu wz-]b /hə!'soufz wəz'oułd/ her sofa was old (c $£ \$ 2.1 .3 \cdot 4$ ).

On the other hand, if we introduce even a simple continuative intoneme, with



Thus, this is what happens to /ə./, |ə?/, /ə;/ /a,/, (ie with intonemes and pauses of any length). The same is true, but only in the neutral British accent, of /ar.//,


 and before that, $\left[\mathrm{kh}^{*} \mathrm{~N}\right]^{b}$ - but let us close this micro-diachronic digression.

The second taxophone of $/ \mathrm{g} /,[\mathrm{u}]$, occurs in contact with $/ \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{y} ; \mathrm{w}, \mathfrak{l} /$ (as they are velar, or at least have a velar component): [bæk u'gen;; -E'm] /'bæk ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{g} \varepsilon(\mathrm{I}) \mathrm{n} /$

 -dyuł] /'عind3t, -dzəł/ angel.
As can be seen from the vocograms, [ u ] substantially is [ a ] with no lip rounding (and the symbol itself makes this quite clear). However, in these cases [ə] 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


 /'dxay/ door, ['phot] /'pot/ put, and ['wz:d] /'wa:ب̣d/ word (for American English, of course, this last word was in the group of $/ \mathbb{T} /$, as we have seen above). If we consider farther, /'faüдə!|, we can see that it is pronounced exactly as father, [farðe] (with
 an American pronunciation like ['fa $\gamma_{\ddagger}$ ], for farther, and other words, see below: dissimilation (\$2.3.3.5).

pronunciations like ['wore, 'wo ${ }^{-3 z]}$ are old-fashioned (or regional).
For / $\mathrm{\imath} \neq \varepsilon \neq \mathfrak{x}, \Delta \nmid, \mathrm{zl} /$ we have some modifications, with an actual change only for two of them: ['A•f, 'hat:] /'æł, 'hat/ $A l$, hull (in comparison with [ $\mathfrak{x}, \mathrm{e}]$ ).
fig 2.2. British monophthongs.


 glish a simple vocoid, with no contoid, occurs in cases like ['f3:] /'fa:! / fur. It is to be noticed that, in this type of pronunciation, the phonemic sequence $/(\mathrm{j})$ və! $/$, by this time, is almost exclusively substituted with its variant /(j)x:!̣/: ['phjö; 'phjo‘e]


It is curious to note that, in the British pronunciation of the sixties, a similar
 pure, curious, endurance, during, sure (at that time, of course, the neutral pronunciation had $[\mathrm{LV}]</ \mathrm{IV} /\rangle$ for modern [ iV$] / \mathrm{iV} /:$ : $\left[\mathrm{khj} 33^{\prime} \mathrm{t}\right.$ เəs] $]$, curious $)$. Another curiosity is that, in the first half of the twentieth century, the same pronunciation [jz:] /ja:! / (which today no longer occurs, except as an old-fashioned variant) was a variant of
 $\tau^{\boldsymbol{\jmath} \mathrm{n} s}$ ] clearance; however, it still remains as a secondary variant in ['jıe; 'j3:] year.
2.1.3.3. Also in the British accent, the four white markers show the realizations of the remaining phonemes, always in unstressed positions: $[\mathrm{i}] / \mathrm{i} /,[\mu] / \mathrm{u} /,[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{u}]$ $\mid \partial /$. They occur in the same contexts $-/ \mathrm{i} /$ at the end of a lexeme: [ $1 \mathrm{Erdi}(\mathrm{z})] / 1 \varepsilon \mathrm{cidi}(\mathrm{z}) /$

 'æłdzi/ to Algy. The possibility of finding /'vælju/ value ( $\$ 2.1 .2 .3$ ) is less common in British English.

Finally, / / is the most frequent unstressed vowel phoneme in British English,

 to go ([†hu'g $\left.\left.\sigma^{\circ} \circ\right]^{a}\right)$. Of course, we also find [e|]/ə, ə! / (before pauses): ['ssofe]

2.1.3.4. However, in British pronunciation, $/ \partial /$ has another -rather importanttaxophone, [3]. Phonetically, it is the short version of / $\mathrm{z} /$ / [3:], and occurs for $/ \partial \mathrm{I}^{\#}$ / followed by the grammemes $/ \mathrm{z}^{\#}, \mathrm{~d}^{\#} /$, and for non-prepausal / $\cdot \mathrm{t}^{\#} /$ (while, if $/ \partial \underline{I}^{\#} /$ is final before a pause, it becomes [e]).



In addition to / $\partial \mathrm{t}^{\#} /$, this happens to non-prepausal / $\partial^{\#}$ / as well (also in American English, generally only up to [ə], with no need to use [3]): [Ał'phæk3 kh3ot] ([-a khoot ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ) alpaca coat -so, as can be seen, [3] occurs, even near a $/ \mathrm{k} / \& \mathrm{c}$, instead of [u], of [aat'phæk w'kh3ot] ([u'khoot ${ }^{a}$ a I'll pack a coat)- but: [Ał'phæke|] ([æł'phæks| []a) alpaca.

However, even this taxophone can be represented by the usual realization of $/ \partial /$ : [ə], as many native speakers do. As a matter of fact, compared to [u], 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 con-

 $\mid \mathrm{i} /:\left[-\mathrm{dr}(\mathrm{z})\right.$, 'Enr-, $\mathrm{II}^{-}{ }^{-} / \mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{I}}$ -,$\left.-\mathrm{d}_{3}\right]$. On the other hand, in American English $/ \mathrm{uV} /=$



2.1.3.5. It is useful to recall here (although this is also true of the preceding cases of $/ \partial!!$ ) that, in neutral British pronunciation (as well as Oceanian and South African), the normal realization of /ə! / is [ə]: [phə'f $\sigma$ 'məns] /pər!foximəns/ performance, [æsə'the'in] /æsər!'teın/ ascertain, [hə'hezbənd] /hər!hnzbənd/ her husband. Of course, this holds good unless in absolute final position before a pause, $[\mathrm{e} \mid]$, or final

 'дЕ’з] /hıə ən(d)'дєə!!/ here and there.

The modern neutral British pronunciation of / $\varepsilon \boldsymbol{\partial}_{1} /$ does not change any longer according to context, but it is always [E3] (with a strong tendency to a long monophthong, through $[\mathrm{Er}]$, up to $\langle[\mathrm{Ex}] / \varepsilon: /\rangle$, as has, for a few generations, already hap-




In absolute final position and before pauses, we find: [buel] /biə! ! / beer,


fig 2.3. British /Və/ diphthongs.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { /аєə, аєəІ!, аєวฺ.І/ [аэə, аэе\#|] }
\end{aligned}
$$






+ «/aə/» [aə. V, aзz $^{\#}$, aзd $^{\#}$, ae $\left.^{\#} \mid\right]$
(+ «/az/» [aә.. $V$, asz $\left.\left.^{\#}, ~ a 3 d^{\#}, ~ a e^{\# \#} \mid\right]\right)$





## 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]/عi/,
 ['ha`o] /'has/ high, ['bo`s] /'bos/ boy, ['na`o] /'nas/ now, ['gơo] /'gov/ go, ['huru] /hvu/ who. Besides, we need: [irł] /rił/, [juu]/jvu/, [vu, $\mu \mathrm{u}] / \mathrm{j} v u /$, [j) uvł] /(j)vul/:
 /'jvuł/ yule, ['khu'vł, khuvł] /'kvuł/ cool.

The other diphthongs, even if followed by $/ \mathbb{1}$, do not change much their components, apart from those with front second elements; besides (except for / ov/, which has only $/ \mathcal{1} /$, in neutral pronunciation), they freely fluctuate between $/ \mathcal{1} /$ and
 'fasł] /'facł/ file, ['bo'ał, 'bosł] /'bocł/ boil, ['fa'oł, 'faoł] /'faoł/ fowl; but only ['so'oll] /'sovt/ soul.
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 $/ \mathrm{i} \mathrm{i}, \varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, \nu \varepsilon, \mathrm{a} /$ and for $/ \mathrm{iil} /$, 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 /vu, vv/ and /vuł, voł/. Indeed, we have: ['†hri] /'tii/ tea, ['de'r] /'deı/ day, ['ha`s] /has/ high, ['bo‘o] /'bos/ boy, ['na`o] /'nao/ now, and also: ['fiııt, 'firł]/'fiił/ feel, ['se't, 'setł]/'seıł/ sail, ['fa'sł, 'fagł] /'facł/ file, ['bo'ał, boał] /'bocł/ boil, but only: ['fa`oł] /'faoł/ fowl, ['ju`vł] /'jvuł/ yule, ['khu`vł] /kvuł/ cool. We find then: ['soool] /'souł/ soul and -above all- ['ss'o] /'sov/ so, as well as: ['jpu ${ }^{\circ}$ ] /'jvu日/ youth, ['nju'u] /'nj̣vu/ new, ['h $\left.{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{u}\right]$ /'hvu/ who (/VVt/ can always be realized as /VVəł/ [VVul]).

Of course, the most peculiar diphthong is /ov/ [30], not followed by [1]: ['n3º..
 /ov/ is central and unrounded, [30], while in American pronunciation it is back
 ginning of the twentieth century, [ool was widespread; until the fifties it was [00], always with lip rounding, while $[\partial \omega, 3 \Omega]$, at that time, sounded rather affected.
fig 2.5. British diphthongs.

 аวə!!/. As a matter of fact, in a typical British pronunciation (besides remaining stable, as in American English), both can frequently reduce to </aə! /> [aəə] (and [а•e|]): ['fаэзz, 'faэe|] and ['farзz, 'fare|] /'faعəı! (z)/ fire(s). Otherwise, /аэəэ!/ can be-
 ['†har3z, '†harel] (also ['†har3z, '†hare|], besides ['tha:(z)]) /'taวə! (z)/ tower(s).

In this kind of pronunciation (sometimes defined 〈smoothing»), even the rarer



 with /əi! /): ['m3@3z, 'm30e|], ['m3'3z, 'm3'e|], ['m3:(z)] /'movə! (z)/ mower(s) (cf

2.1.4.4. In neutral (both American and British) pronunciation, /æI/ remains:




The difference -only by now in traditional American pronunciation- between
 as in the misleading transcription 〈/'vit/>) oral is neither neutral, nor any longer modern: it is ['כ1 $\ddagger$ ] for both. At most, sometimes (in both accents), one can resort to /'mıl/ for oral, in order to avoid ambiguities. But, for this very reason, not infrequently, people even say ['aoıı ${ }_{1}$ /'aorif/ aural).

## Vowel diaphonemes

2.1.5.1. There is a difference, especially in British English, between ['frri] ${ }^{a}$


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

We must now also introduce the diaphoneme /ə̣I/, occurring in the context



Typically, in American English, / $/$ / is dropped and realized as «zero»; so we have: ['meni] ${ }^{a}$ ['mes_ii] $/$ 'meə.ni/ Mary (consequently, in American pronunciation, it is the same as merry, and, in current and widespread pronunciation, which however is not neutral -but mediatic, of $\$ 2.4 .2 .2$ - the same goes for marry, too), ['khluI-

 iny/ (this example shows the diaphoneme / $\mathrm{j} /$, too).

Therefore, in American English, ['sputf, -әt] holds good both of /'spıust/ spirit
 er hand, some speakers may distinguish, saying: ['spııə,$-\mathrm{t} f$ ] /'spıut// and ['spııt, -әt]
 there.
2.1.5.2. When $/ \partial /$ is preceded by a consonant, it may be dropped (more frequently so in the British accent): [EElə'men(1)əıi, -ntri] ${ }^{a}$ [Elt'menttii] ${ }^{b} / \varepsilon$ lı'mentarii/ $^{\prime}$ elementary. With this kind of suffix, in American English, a secondary stress is


 convenient to use the diaphonemes $/ \varepsilon$, $\mathfrak{y}$ :/, 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


Especially for British English, it may be useful to use the diaphoneme / $\quad$ /, to

 American English, /jə/ definitely prevails.

Besides, the handy diaphonemes /ju, u/ may be useful, to show the fluctuation
 statue.

It is convenient to use the diaphoneme / $\partial /$ in other contexts, too: [vəlasəni, -sti] ${ }^{a}$


2.1.5.3. Two other diaphonemes, $\mid \mathfrak{X}^{\prime}, \mathrm{b} /$, are more important in distinguishing between the American and British modern neutral accents. The first, $|\nmid \cdot|$, shows the difference between $/ æ /^{a}$ (but it often behaves like a long monophthong «/æ:/>)




More examples are: ['dæ( $\left.\left.{ }^{( }\right) \mathrm{ns}\right]^{a}$ ['darns] ${ }^{b} /$ 'dæ'ns/ dance, ['phlæ( $\left.\left.{ }^{( }\right) \mathrm{n} \dagger\right]^{a}$ ['phla'nt] $b$





Even in British English, there are forms with /æ/: ['æsp] /'æsp/ asp, ['phænt] /'pænt/ pant, \&c, of course, besides: ['bæ'nd] /'bænd/ band, ['mæ'n] /'mæn/ man, ['mæ日s] /'mæ日s/ maths, \&c.
2.1.5.4. The second of these diaphonemes, $/ \mathrm{o}^{\gamma} /$, shows the difference between $\rho \mathrm{o} / /^{a}$ (but $/ \mathrm{v} /{ }^{a}$ occurs, too) and $/ \mathrm{s} / b^{b}$ (in particular before $/ \mathrm{f}, \theta, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{g} /$ and $/ \mathrm{IV} /$ ), as






But, for $/ \mathrm{o}^{\mathrm{v}} /$, there are even cases like: $/ \mathrm{o} /{ }^{a}$ (but $/ \mathrm{s} / /^{a}$ is to be preferred) $/ \mathrm{s} /{ }^{b}$, as




 ter. In England, ['wote] is no neutral pronunciation; it can be found most commonly in an area including Oxford and Reading. In a few words with / $\mathrm{p}^{\circ} \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{p}^{\circ} \theta$, $\mathrm{p}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}$, $\mathrm{o} \cdot \mathrm{ft}$, $\mathrm{b} \cdot \mathrm{st}$ /, even in British English, a minority pronunciation with /o:/ is possible, besides the preferred one with /o/; 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, $/ \alpha^{\circ}, \rho^{\circ} /$, which are relatively less significant, because $/ \mathrm{a} /$ is used especially in words of foreign origin, written
 'na'm/ Vietnam.

While $/ \mathrm{J}^{\prime} /$ occurs in particular in words written with aus C , aunC, alC: [ $\mathrm{J}^{\prime} \mathrm{s} \mathrm{s} \mathrm{r} \mathrm{f}$,

 American English. On the other hand, $/ \mathrm{a} /$ may present twofold possibilities, in both accents, according to words and to speakers.

## The (socio)diaphoneme / I /

2.1.6.1. The last vowel diaphoneme we must consider is $|\mathrm{x} /=| \partial \mathrm{I} /$. This refers to the alternation in the realizations of $/ \mathrm{I} /:$ between $/ \partial /$ and $/ \mathrm{I} /$. Clearly, $/ \partial /[\partial]$ prevails in the American accent, while / $\mathrm{I} /[\mathrm{l}]$ prevails in the British one, even if things are a little more complicated. Indeed, in American English, too, there are cases of
$|\mathrm{I} /=| \mathrm{I} /$, chiefly in a more refind and more conservative way of speaking. By the same token, in British English, there are cases of $|\mathrm{z}|=|\partial|$, 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.

 'henfọn/.
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 /z/ (while /I/ sounds quite pompous) in: -ace ['phælos] /'pæləs/ palace; -ate ['ţhaklət]a ['thoklət]b/'tjoklat/ chocolate; - ily ['hæpəli] /hæpəli/ happily; -ity [khwan(1) 2 il$]^{a}$ [khwontəti] /kwonṭati/ quantity.
 includes both possibilities, while excluding that the two diaphonemes /a, $t /$ may work together, because of contextual incompatibilities. That means that, if $/ \rho /$ falls, then $/ \mathrm{t} /$ automatically becomes $/ \mathrm{t} /$, because it is preceded by $/ \mathrm{s} /$ ): necessity, university, velocity /na'sesọti, juunł'va

Besides, we have: -less [hooplas]a ['hзoplos]b /houplas/ hopeless; -ness ['godnəs] /'gudnas/ goodness. For -ess, /as/ prevails, chiefly in American English, while in British English /ıs/ is also possible (actress, waitress); in some cases, /عs/ too (duchess); for princess, we have: ['phonnsəs, -es] ${ }^{a}$ [p.tın'ses, 'ph.fnses] ${ }^{b}$. To end with, -let ['bieis-

2.1.6.3. We have /f/ (which means, mainly / $/$ / in American, but $/ \mathrm{I} /$ in British





Besides: -ice ['afəs, 'כ-] ${ }^{a}$ ['vfss] ${ }^{b} /$ 'D'ffs/ office; -ine [1g'zæmən] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{nn}]^{b} / \mathrm{Ig}$ 'zæmın/ examine; -ify ['ve.ıə fao ${ }^{a}$ ['ve.tıfas] ${ }^{b}$ /'ve.rfae/ verify.

Furthermore: be- [bu'khım:]a [bu'khem:] /brkım/ become; de- [də'mænd,




In words like become, demand, pretend, retire, eleven, we could add that/f/ has a possible variant /i/ (or even /ri/). 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 / f / (namely, as a trend, $/ 2 /$ in American and $/ \mathrm{I} /$ in British pronunciation): ['Elomən $]^{a}$
 tution.
2.1.6.4. On the contrary, regularly we have $/ \mathrm{I} /$ in: $-i c(s)\left[\text { fo'nent }^{2}(\mathrm{~s})\right]^{a}[-\mathrm{t} \mathrm{k}(\mathrm{s})]^{b} / \mathrm{f}$ д-
 /'stændıy/ standing; -ship ['fıenfıp] ${ }^{a}\left[\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{f}}-\right]^{b}$ /'faendfıp/ friendship; -ive [un'thensıv] /nn'tensiv/ intensive.

This group includes: -age ['vılıḑ] /'vilıd3/ village; -ish ['ทีglı]] /'mglif/ English; -ist [lingwist] /lingwist/ linguist; $e$ - and $i$ - (at the beginning of words, in unchecked

 'ste'd] /in'sted/ instead. In some American pronunciations, all these words may have either / $\mathrm{I} /$ or $/ \mathrm{\partial} /$.

As far as / $\mathrm{I} /$ is concerned, Oceanian and South African English are more like American English.

Usually, $/ \partial /$ is unstressed, being the weak vowel par excellence. There are two forms, however, that are very often heard even with stressed / / /except in formal
 dren, ['dəznt, 'dznt, -nて] /'dıznt, 'də-/ doesn't (this is given in an example in $\mathbb{\$}$ 2.6.4, too). Let us consider also the possibility of «restressing > for emphasis, as in: Oh, I
 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.


## Nasals

2.2.1.1. English has three nasal phonemes: /m, $n, \mathfrak{y} /$. The velar phoneme does not occur at the beginning of English words, but it is normal in internal and final


 /'stıry $\theta \mathrm{n} ı \mathrm{y} /$ strengthening.

In unstressed syllables, after $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} ; \theta, ð ; \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z} /$, there is a typical intense ( $($ syllabic») realization of $/ n /([n] / n / /$; after $/ \theta$, $\partial /$, we find $\llbracket \stackrel{\square}{\square} \rrbracket)$. It is definitely worthwhile to use it in (dia)phonemic transcriptions, as well, although clearly its origin is $/ \partial n /$ :


 $\mathrm{Cd} /$, it is best to use /ən/: ['winsfən] /'winstən/ Winston, ['hoołdən] ${ }^{a}$ ['hooł-]b /hovłdən/ Holden.

 toneme, [ən] can easily become [n], chiefly after $/ \mathbb{S}, 3 ; \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}_{3} /$.

 ['ıñjən] ${ }^{a}$ ['eñjən]b/'ınjən/ onion, ['†heıkuın]/'terkən/taken.

When speed is higher, especially in a preintoneme, we can go as far as $\left[\mathrm{t} \mathrm{f}_{1}, d_{3} \mathrm{n}\right.$;

 /'ougan/ organ. On the other hand, when speed is lower, or for emphasis, /n/ can easily become [ən]: [14sn, -sən] /1ısn/ listen.

 wanton.
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, $\mathfrak{y} /$, resist well; while, the unmarked one, $/ \mathrm{n} /$, undergoes several changes, contrary to what phonemic transcriptions generally seem to indicate.

However, proceeding in an organized manner, we have: ['drrimd] ${ }^{a}$ [' $\left.\mathrm{C}_{t}-\right]^{b}$
 taemz/ sometimes, ['se'ım 'kha`ond] /'serm 'kaend/ same kind, [səm'dzeli] /səm'dzeli/ some jelly, ['se'im 'voэs, -m 'ßoэs] /'serm 'vocs/ same voice, ['se'im 'fækt, -mp 'f-, -m '甲ækt] /'serm 'fækt/ same fact, [khımfıt, -mpf-, -mp-] ${ }^{a}$ [khemfət, -mpf-, -mp-]b /kımfərt/ 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): $[\mathrm{m} \varphi, \mathrm{m} ß]$.

Our examples also show that at present a homorganic（labiodental）stop may very often be inserted into the sequence［mf］（ie only with voiceless $/ \mathrm{f} /$ ）；but a too frequent use is better avoided．This homorganic insertion can happen with other sequences too：［＇w $\sigma \cdot \mathrm{Im} \theta,-\mathrm{mp} \theta]^{a}[' \mathrm{w} \cdot \mathrm{m}-] b / \mathrm{w} \cdot \mathrm{x} \mathrm{m} \theta /$ warmth，［＇Emfi，＇Empti］／＇zm－ ti／empty，［＇sumsn，＇sımpsn］／＇sımsn／ $\operatorname{Sim}(p)$ son．
 bæk／wingback．Only for the suffix－ing［七七］／in／（but at a non－neutral level，not to be followed），can we have／in， $\mathrm{mn}, \mathrm{n} /:$ ：［＇selın；$\downarrow$－nn；$\downarrow-\mathrm{n}$ ］／＇sclin／selling．We can also



2．2．1．3．On the contrary，except in a very accurate way of speaking（even too accurate！），／n／assimilates to a following contoid：［m＇blæk］／m＇blæk／in black，［um－
 ðə＇boks／in the box，［＇$\dagger \mathrm{hen} \theta ;-\mathrm{nt} \theta]$／＇ten $\theta /$ tenth，［＇thens；－nts］／＇tens／tense，［＇phinst， - ts．$\left._{1}\right]^{a}[-\mathrm{e}]^{b} /$＇pinseı！$/$ pincer（for $\llbracket \mathrm{r} \rrbracket$ see below）．

For some time，$/ \mathrm{nzV} /$ has been simplified（but $/ \mathrm{ndzV} /$ can always be restored，ac－ cording to current spelling）：［＇winzı，－ndzı］$]^{a}[-\mathrm{e}]^{b} /$＇winza！$/$ Windsor，［lınzi，－dzi］ ／linzi／Lindsey．Even in／nz\＃\＃，a dd／can be inserted：［khlen：z，－n：dz］／klenz／cleanse， ［khlenzıŋ，－ndzıŋ］／klenzıy／cleansing．But this is less and less recommendable， specially with grammemes：［＇†hæljənz；－ndz；ə－］／I＇tæljənz，a－／Italians，［＇ł孔anz； －ndz］${ }^{a}$［＇çbr－］b $/$＇dzonz／John＇s．

 $\left.-n \mathrm{n} \mathrm{fn} ;-\mathrm{n} t \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{n}}^{\mathrm{n}}\right]^{b}$ attention．But we find $[\mathrm{n}]$（prepalatal）before $/ \mathrm{j} /$（if this is hetero－ syllabic）：［khum＇phænjən］／kəm＇pænjən／companion，［＇nıjəən］a［＇r－］b／＇＾njən／onion．

 $[-\mathrm{n} \mathrm{r} \mathrm{e}]^{b} / \mathrm{In}$＇wintạı／／in winter should be noticed．

A better transcription for［ntf，nd $\}$ ，nt even $« \llbracket \rrbracket \rrbracket »$（for a «postalveopalatal stop»）．It was stated above that dental $\llbracket r \rrbracket$ could be represented with［ n ］，as well，chiefly in［nð］，because the simple fact that／ $\mathrm{n} ð /$ has（dental）［ $\nearrow$ ］allows us to infer that we automatically have $\llbracket n \partial \rrbracket$ ，by assimilation．

On the contrary，a special symbol would be more important in 【nri】，to show that it is not $[\mathrm{nn}]$（alveolar，but dental，coming from $\llbracket n ð \rrbracket / \mathrm{n} /$ ），as，for instance， in：［un＇no ootha＇sm $]^{a}\left[-3^{\circ} \circ-\right]^{b} /$ in＇noutaem／in no time．On the other hand，for some speakers，a less completely assimilated realization produces exactly［nn］．This is not very different auditorily，so more precise symbols could even be avoided，with no real drawbacks．

In lexical composition，as well as for the negative prefix $u n$－，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）－bi－




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, [lınntf;



## 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 [ $\dagger, \mathrm{d}]$ : [†hə'de'r]
 д; s, z/, /t, d/ become dental [t, d]: ['Eit $\theta$ ] /'عit $\theta /$ eighth, ['wıd $\theta]$ /'wid $\theta /$ width, ['hæts]/hæts/ hats, ['he'dz]/'hedz/ heads.

On the contrary, before $/ \mathrm{I} /\left[_{-\tau}\right]^{b}$, in British English, /t, d/ become postalveolar,



For /ti, dil/, however, several pronunciations are possible, mostly with / t , $\mathrm{d} /$ realized as stop-strictives (or «affricates»): in American English [ț(h) I, dzı; th(h) I, dz;
 Furthermore, a (homorganic) constrictive realization is possible for /x/ (which is then, respectively, alveolar or postalveolar rounded, $[\hat{s}, \hat{s}]):[\mathrm{t}(\mathrm{h}) \hat{s}, \mathrm{~d} \hat{s}]^{a}[\mathrm{t}(\mathrm{h}) \hat{\mathfrak{s}}, \mathrm{d} \hat{\mathfrak{r}}]^{b}$.


 drink.

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, $/ \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{I}}, \mathrm{d}_{3} \mathrm{I} /$ could represent a fitting parallelism with $/ \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{I}} /$, as in $\left[\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{Injk}}\right]^{a}\left[\mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{t}}\right]^{b} / \mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{mk} / \operatorname{shrink}$.
2.2.2.2. Some other transformations of $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /$ are much more significant; indeed, although to foreigners [ t , d] might seem more «marked», actually, in the natives' phonological system, /t, d/ are an unmarked diphonic pair of stops (as happens to $/ \mathrm{n} /$ in comparison with $/ \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{y} /$ ). From an articulatory point of view, $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /$ 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]: [,ðæp'mæ n]/ðæt'mæn/ that man, [„æp'bo‘s] /ðæt'bos/ that boy, ['nap 'wnn:] ${ }^{a}$ ['nop 'wen:] ${ }^{b} /$ 'not 'wnn/not one; likewise, before $/ \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g} /$, they become [k, g]: ['wak kunja'qu'u, 'wn-] ${ }^{a}$ ['wok kuñ-
 girl.

Even the rare sequences $/ \mathrm{pf}, \mathrm{bv} /$ present some kind of assimilation (in one direction or in the other): [kh^pqoł, -pfol] ${ }^{[ }[\mathrm{khe}-]^{b} / \mathrm{k} \wedge \mathrm{pfut} /$ cupful, ['abßizs, 'apv-] ${ }^{a}$ ['D-]b/'obvias/ obvious.

Prevelar articulations, which are automatic by coarticulation, need not be ex-

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 $/ \mathrm{p}$, $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$ are «aspirated» (unless they are preceded by $/ \mathrm{s} /$ in the same syllable and in a same lexeme), also after silence (even in an unstressed syllable) - [Ch] /C/: [thə'deri] /ta'deı/ today, ['phrik] /'prik/ peak (but: ['sprik] /'sprik/ speak), ['therk] /'terk/
 $\left[\right.$ 'skers] ${ }^{6} /$ 'skeə̣/ scare). Nevertheless, one should notice: [mıs'phinn(1)ad] ${ }^{a}$ [mis'ph.futtd] $/$ /mis'punṭad/ misprinted (with different phono-syllables and different morphemes).

## American $t / \mathrm{t} /[\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{l}]$

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


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: [ $\dagger$ hen:] /'ten/

 matism.

 ti/ empty.

Before consonants: ['fh
 əPll-] /atlææntrk/ Atlantic.

It remains [t] even in words in -Vtic (with no secondary stress, too): [lvunətk] ${ }^{a}$
 $\left.{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{q}^{2} \theta-\right]^{b} / \partial^{\prime} \mathrm{n} \theta$ matrk/ arithmetic. It is the same even between $/ \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{x} /$ and $/ \mathrm{n} /:$ ['noxin,


2.2.3.2. Let us now turn to the contexts where $/ t /[t]$ becomes $/ t /[1, \eta]$, in normal (not slow, nor particularly careful) speaking.

Between a stressed (or unstressed) vowel and another vowel, or [ $\ddagger, \downarrow]$ : [beii] ${ }^{a}$

 ter, $[\operatorname{lnt}]^{a}[1 \uparrow \ddagger]^{b} / 1 \mathrm{lt} \uparrow \uparrow /$ little.

Between $/ \mathrm{n}, \underset{\mathrm{n}}{\mathrm{I}}, \mathfrak{\downarrow} /$ and a vowel, or $[\underset{\uparrow}{\mathrm{f}}, \underset{\sim}{]}]$ (remembering that, as our examples show, $[1, \downarrow]$ may often be dropped after /n/, $[\mathrm{n}(1), \mathrm{n}(1)])$ : $[\mathrm{b} æ \mathrm{n}(1) ə \mathrm{~m}]^{a}[\text { bæntəm }]^{b} / \mathrm{b} æ \mathrm{nt}-$




Even before a stressed vowel (provided it is heterosyllabic): [pho'fhenoon, phəı-
 all (it should be noted that there is a difference, between the two accents, for at all).
 /'peınṭıy/ painting, ['pha`i]a /'pauṭti/ party, ['fo'ıi]a /'forț̣i/ faulty.

However, in American English, when speed is reduced, or when more attention


 even to less common words, such as: ['viin $\sigma \omega$, $-\dagger \sigma \omega$ ]/'viiṭov/ veto, ['phlein $\sigma \omega$, -† $\sigma \omega$ ] /'pleıṭov/ Plato, [dıfrin,ızm, -tızm] /dr'fritızm/ defeatism.

Also in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa (and in towns in Wales and Ireland) $/ \mathrm{t} /$ is $[1, \uparrow]$; while, Scotland is well-known for $/ \mathrm{t} / \rightarrow[\mathrm{P}]$, even between vowels and before $\left[\frac{1}{1}\right] / \frac{1}{1} /$ (and even before its typical pronunciation of [ər]/ə! $/$ ). The same change, $/ \mathrm{t} / \rightarrow$ [r], 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 $/ V(\mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{f}) /$, 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; $\mathfrak{\mathrm { k }}, \mathrm{yg} /$ ), or by /!, $\mathfrak{1} /$. 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
 /kıp/ cup, ['khæmp'] /'kæmp/ camp; ['hær'] /hæt/ hat, ['hæ'nd'] /hænd/ hand,
 /'fortt/ fault, ['blæk'] /blæk/ black, ['bæりk'] /'bæyk/ bank, ['qưg'] /'dıg/ dig. When said in isolation, as plain examples, before a pause, they are released: [ $\left.\mathrm{ba}^{\cdot} \mathrm{b}_{\mathrm{o}_{*}}\right]^{a}$

 actor, ['ın'b'd] ${ }^{a}$ ['æerb'd] ${ }^{b}$ /'ınbd/ rubbed, ['æt'kınsn, 'æk'k-] /'ætkınsn/ Atkinson,




 /rtkæıiz/ 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 $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /(+/ \mathrm{p}$, $\mathrm{b} ; \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g} /$, in addition to $[\mathrm{pp}, \mathrm{pb} ; \mathrm{bp}, \mathrm{bb} ; \mathrm{kk}, \mathrm{kg} ; \mathrm{g} \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{gg}]$ ), the alveolar contact can be maintained, by adding either a bilabial, [ $\uparrow, \not \subset]$, or a velar, [ $\ddagger, \ddagger]$, coarticulation. A bilabial or velar articulation is also possible, to which an alveolar coarticulation can be added: respectively $[\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}]$ or $[\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}]$.
2.2.4.2. The so-called «nasal» and «lateral» explosions are included in this group. It is essential that transitions from $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /$ to $/ \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{n} ; 1,1 /$ are direct, with no off-glide similar to <aspiration», and even with no insertion of vocoids.

Therefore, we have: ['phy'tini] /'pitni/ Pitney, ['wod'n]/'wodn/ wooden, [khum-
 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 [?] is used, when there is some emphasis, before vowels, especially stressed ones: [tts'Roffl $]^{a}\left[-\mathrm{P} \sigma^{-}-\right] b / \mathrm{Its}^{\prime}(\mathrm{R}) \mathrm{P}^{\prime} \mathrm{ff} /$ it's awful! In British pronunciation, [r] may be used even to avoid the insertion of


2.2.5.2. Furthermore, even in neutral pronunciation, before consonants, we of-
 (adjusting some examples just seen).

In a more systematic way, proceeding by groups, this occurs with vowels (chiefly, but not necessarily, stressed; and even with interspersed sonants, /m, n, y, $\mathbf{I}, \mathrm{l} /$ ),








 /wi'wount ('dvuit)/ we won't (do it). In absolute final position, [?] is not used, ex-

 $-\mathrm{z}]^{a}[-\mathrm{t},-\mathrm{tr}]^{b} /$ 'trktt/ ticket.

However, the change $/ \mathrm{t} / \rightarrow[\mathrm{P}]$ is less frequent before /h/: ['Ert 'hæts; - F ] |'عit hæts/
 In /ntn/, it is more frequent (but it is only possible with / $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{f} /$ ): ['skırn $\mathrm{fn},-\mathrm{Pn}$,




 van/ not even. It is accepted even for $i t$, before a pause: ['theiktt, -ri] /'teikıt/ take it.

Whereas, it is possible, for $/ \mathrm{p} /$, (only) before $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b} /$, and for $/ \mathrm{k} /$, (only) before $/ \mathrm{k}$,
 powder, [bok,kheis, -r,kh-] /bukkeıs/ bookcase, [bæk 'gaııdn, --7]a ['gadn]b/bæk 'ga:ب̣dn/ back garden.

## British glottalization

2.2.6.1. As far as British pronunciation is concerned, we must report the «glottalization $>$ of $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$, 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 -[?]- is produced. This is not added before the contoid -[?C]- giving two phones (or two segments), but is simply coarticulated with that -[C] - so that this additional closure is not too intrusive: $[\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{k}]$.

Here are some examples, showing the absence or presence of synglottalization: ['phrip, 'phrip] /'prip/ peep, [hot, 'hof] /hot/ hot, [bæk, 'bæk] /bæk/ back.
Furthermore, before contoids: ['æk't, 'xk't] /'ækt/act, ['æk'te, 'xk'te] /'xktəy/ ac-
 do'g/ hotdog, ['sfipp' 'quuug, 'stop'] /'stop 'duuin/ stop doing.


 -p',m-] /'topmoust/ topmost, ['phet'ni, -f'ni] /'pstni/ Putney.

 /'bets/ bets, ['bełts, -ts] /'bełts/ belts, ['bents, -ts] /'bents/ bents, ['wiks, -ks] /'wiks/ wicks, ['wıłks, -ks] /'wiłks/ Wilkes, ['wiŋks, -ks] /'wiŋks/ winks.

For the substitution of $/ \mathrm{t} /$ with $[\mathrm{R}] \mathrm{Cf} \$$ 2.2.5.2.
2.2.6.2. A stronger degree of glottalization is the 〈glottal reinforcement», ie producing [ r ] just before $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /: ~[\mathrm{pp}, \mathrm{P} \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{Pk}]$ (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: $\llbracket P^{7} p_{*}, r^{7} t_{*}, r^{\prime} k_{*} \rrbracket$ before pauses (but not before contoids, in a sentence).

Let us see, now, our examples (in progression): ['phrip, 'phrip, 'phriip] /'prip/ peep, ['hot, 'hoff, ho?t] /hot/ hot, ['bæk, 'bæk, 'bæpk] /'bæk/ back.






 - -Ttni] /'pstni/ Putney.

 -Pts] /'bets/ bets, ['bełts, -tss, -रts]/'bełts/ belts, ['bents, -tss, -Tts] /Bents/ bents, ['wuks,
 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 $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b} ; \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$; $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g} /$, 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, $[\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}]$ ), $[\varphi, \beta ; z, s ; x, \gamma]$ : ['phei-
 ter, ['feıqıŋ, 'feısıŋ] /'feıdıŋ/fading, [beıke, 'beıxe] /'beıkəı!/baker, ['dıgıy, 'dıдıŋ] /'dıgıy/ digging.

In American pronunciation, one possible lenition is just a partial voicing of $/ \mathrm{p}$,
 er. A further variation of $|t|=|t|=[1, \downarrow]$, may be $[1, q ; 1, q]$ ([partially] devoiced or



 writer), ['bedi; be.vi] /bedi/ beddy (ff [bevi] /bsṭi/ 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 voiceless-
 tioned and illustrated above), with no lengthening of the vocoid before $/ \mathrm{d} /[1, \mathrm{n}]$.
In informal British pronunciation, chiefly in monosyllables of low semantic val-





 /bə̣ą'duu/ but I do.

## Stop-strictives (or «affricates»)

2.2.7.1. English has just one (diphonic) pair of stopstrictives, $\left[\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{d}_{3}\right] / \mathrm{t} f, \mathrm{~d}_{3} /$. 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 $[\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}]$ or $\left[\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{s}, \int, \mathrm{x}\right]$, 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 $[\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b} ; \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} ; \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}]$.

As we said, the only (diphonic) pair of stop-strictives of the English language is $\left[\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{d}_{3}\right] / \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{d}_{3} /$. In stressed syllables (or after pauses, even in the rare cases of unstressed syllable, as in Chaucerian), / $\mathrm{f} /$ is «aspirated $»$, as / $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$ are (although most
native phoneticians do not say that, in the least): ['thimni] /'fyrmni/ chimney.
Usually, / t , d $\mathrm{d}_{3} /$ 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 $\left.\llbracket 4, d_{5} \rrbracket \rrbracket\right)$.

Besides, $/ d_{3} /$ (as any other voiced phoneme in diphonic pairs) is partially de-
 judge.

While English stops are very often inaudibly released, English / t , $\mathrm{d}_{3} /$ always show an audible plosion, even when they occur before themselves (notice that we prefer to mark this plosion only here, by means of $\left[\mathrm{C}_{*}\right]$ ): ['wat $]_{*}$ kherfli; 'wort $\left.\mathrm{f}_{*}\right] a$



The only possible reduction may be in changing the first stop-strictive with the


 'ḑuus, -n3]b /'Dimnds 'dzuus/ orange juice.

For British English, we must add that/ $\mathrm{f} /$, as well as / $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$, can show the two kind of glottalization we saw (\$2.2.6.1-2), with the same frequence and degree of


 /'trit ºxp/ teacher. $^{2}$

Finally, chiefly in British English, $/ \mathrm{g} /$ may become [ f$]$ ], before a pause or a $C$ :
 $/ \mathrm{kxt} /$ / catch, [e'wut 'bok..; c-wlf 'bok..]/'whrtg 'buk/ 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.
 $\mathrm{v} /$ readers are referred to what has been said about $/ \mathrm{pf}, \mathrm{bv} /(\$$ 2.2.2.2 $)$. We now add some examples that show the frequent reduction or dropping of $/ \mathrm{v} /$ : [as'khæ( $) \mathrm{m}$

 / acr'Jututndtt/ I've shortened it (in spite of an information loss in comparison with
 $\ddagger \mathfrak{b} /$ their lives are terrible (in spite of the ambiguity with their lies are terrible),

 /'dु\&f 'prt, 'facv bits/ Jeff Pit, five bits.
$/ \theta, ð /$ are slit dental (whereas in American English a «prodental» or «interdental»
articulation is possible, perhaps more often indeed, which may be transcribed with $\llbracket \theta, ð \rrbracket$; however, since their auditory impression is not very different, the official symbols, $[\theta, ð]$, may be sufficient. It is important for foreigners to acquire this slit ar-
 tence begins with a more or less pleonastic I think, generally, a semi-constrictive $/ \theta /$ is used: $\left[\Lambda_{1} \theta \mathrm{ng}\right]^{a}[\mathrm{e}-]^{b}$; the same can occur for the $/^{\# \partial} \partial /,[\partial]$, of grammemes: the, this...

Besides, in quick informal speech, $\mid \# ð /$ in forms such as the, that, this, both is normally assimilated: ['wsts zə'tha'эm, 'wats] ${ }^{[ }$['wots] ${ }^{b} /$ 'wdsts ðə'taعm/ what's the time?, ['wsts 'zæt, 'wats] ['wots]b/'wots 'ðæt/ what's that?, ['boos 'sa'9dz]a ['bsos] ${ }^{\text {b }}$ /'bou日 'saedz/ both sides, [hizðu'weif, hizdu-, hizzu-] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{fe}]^{b} /$ hiz $^{2}$ 'werta! / he's the


2.2.8.2. $/ \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z} /$ 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 $[\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}]$, 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: ['SE'ım] /'seım/ same, ['Io@zəz] ${ }^{a}$


For word-initial $s m$-, $s n$-, $s l$ - (as well as for the non-autochthonous $s r-$ ), $/ \mathrm{s} /[\mathrm{s}]$ is normal (contrary to some other languages): ['smost] ${ }^{a}[\text { 'smost }]^{b} /$ 'smort/ small,
 kə, sıi-, S.ıii-/ Sri Lanka).

For dis- followed by a voiced stop, there are several possibilities, both phonetic




Let us now observe (but only here) that /s, z/ preceded by one or more consonants, are usually articulated as (dental/denti-alveolar) approximants, [ $\mathrm{s}, ~ \check{z}$ ], rather

 scribe: ['Japs] ${ }^{a}\left[\right.$ ['Jpps] ${ }^{b}$, ['Өæりks, 'bełzz, hæ`ndz] ${ }^{a}$ ['bełzz] ${ }^{b}$.

In American English, the sequences /ats, $\mathrm{I} \mathrm{z} /$ are realized as [ IS , xz ] (with alveolar


 newsreel.

More often, $/ \int 3 /$ are produced with the tip of the tongue raised, ie as «apico--postalveo-palatal rounded) contoids, so that more suitable symbols, contrastively, could be $\llbracket f, 3 \rrbracket$. But, as several natives pronounce them with the tip of the tongue lowered, $\left[\int, 3\right]$ 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


For $|\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}|$, too, assimilation is rather important. As a matter of fact, $|\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}| \rightarrow|\mathrm{S}, 3|$


 /kwestfon/ question.

Generally, with you, your, there is a complete fusion between elements: [a' ${ }^{\prime} 1 \int_{\Lambda}$,


 :/ 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.

2.2.9.1. The English $</ \mathrm{r} /\rangle$ phoneme is completely different from that of most languages, which have alveolar trills or taps [ $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}]$. It is thus extremely important to use a different symbol for English $r$, even at a phonemic level: $/ \mathrm{x} /$. 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 $/ \mathrm{I} /$, 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 $/ \mathrm{I} /$ 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, [ $\left[_{\uparrow}\right.$ ], 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 [I] and [. f ] 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 $/ \mathrm{ta}, \mathrm{d}_{\mathrm{I}} /$, the British pronunciation regularly undergoes assimilation, giving [ $\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{f}}, \mathrm{d}_{-}$]. 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, [ $\left.\mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{t}}, \mathrm{d}_{\uparrow}\right]$ can be used, besides the more usual ones, $\left[\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{q}_{\mathrm{I}}\right]$.

Certainly, it is very strange that the majority of phoneticians (even native ones) keep on using the symbol [ $[\uparrow]$ to hint at the American type, which is far from being postaveolar. By the way, the term postalveolar corresponds to the official one «retroflex», 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 $/ \mathrm{I} /[\mathrm{I}]^{a}\left[{ }_{-}\right]^{b}$, and several others will follow. Let us remember only that our diaphonemic transcription rigorously distinguishes between $/ x /$, which is always pronounced in the two accents, and $/ \underset{I}{ } /$, which is pronounced, as such, only in American English. As a matter of fact, in British English, / $/ /$ corresponds to «zero», as $r$ is pronounced only before vowels:


In American pronunciation, / $\boldsymbol{\partial}_{1} /$, preceded by vowels or consonants, is realized


 frequent.
2.2.9.4. However, $/ \underset{\mid}{/} /$ 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



 frequently, also final / $\partial$, гə, шә, $\mathfrak{\Sigma}$, а:/ are realized as the previous ones, even if no etymological $r$ is present in their spelling: [ðiaэ'qıə(ア)əvı; -ıəəәvt] /ðiac'dıəәvıt/ the
 /'dzribri ' $\mathfrak{x}$ : 'askkt/ G. B. Shaw asked.

This use is very widespread, chiefly for / $\partial \mathrm{I} /$, 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，$\left.\right|_{x} /$ is $[\ddagger]$ ，instead of $[\uparrow]$ ，usual also in neutral New Zealand English．As in American English（except in typical Southern，East－ ern，and Black accents）and Canadian English，also Irish English（in the whole is－ land）has $/ \underset{\mu}{ } /=\mid x /$ ．The same goes both for an area in the South Island in New Zea－ land 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 $\mid \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{I} / \mathrm{=}$［r］．

As a speech defect，$/_{\mathrm{I}} /$ is realized as a labiodental［ v ］．This is so widespread，espe－ cially in Great Britain，that someone considers it to be normal（all the more so be－ cause it is frequent in the mediatic British accent）．

## The other approximants

2．2．9．5．The voiced palatal approximant，／j／$[\mathrm{j}]$ ，has no particular characteris－ tics．It is therefore more interesting to talk about the diaphoneme $/ \mathrm{j} /$ ，that－restrict－ ing ourselves to the two neutral accents－distinguishes American English from British English，because，between／ $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$／and／vu，v／，in «non－weak» syllables（ie those with primary or secondary stress），in American pronunciation／j$/ \mathrm{j}$ becomes «zero）．

This means that，in American English，／nju（u），tịv（u），djuv（u）／correspond to $/ \mathrm{tv}(\mathbf{u}), \mathrm{dv}(\mathbf{u}), \mathrm{nv}(\mathbf{u}) /$ ，while，in British English，they are／ $\mathrm{njv}(\mathbf{u}), \mathrm{tjv}(\mathbf{u}), \mathrm{djv}(\mathbf{u}) /$ ：
 duke．

It is true that，in American pronunciation，one can even find［＇njuu，＇thjurub， ＇djuuk］and even a compromise realization，［＇n $\mu \mathbf{u}$ ，＇th $\mu \cdot \mathrm{ub}$ ，＇d $\mathrm{d} \mu \mathrm{k}]$ ．However，the more usual pronunciation has［vu］，even if［＇quu］may happen to correspond to both／＇dvu／do and／＇djuvu／due，\＆c．

In you and your，due to the assimilation of $/ \mathrm{j} /$ to preceding $/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /$ ，there are note－


 ＇gov／did your brother go？For the assimilation to preceding $/ \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z} /$ ，see above（\＄2．2．4）．

Although rarely，English phonotactics presents sequences such as：［jıp］／jip／yip， ［jirist］／jirist／yeast．Before／iil，／j／may be realized as a semi－constrictive contoid，［j］， which is stronger than［j］：【j；rist】．On the other hand，in unstressed syllables，／j／ ［j］may lessen，up to a semi－approximant，［J］：【＇neb－jolos】／＇nebjolas／nebulous．

2．2．9．6．The velar rounded approximant，$[\mathrm{w}] / \mathrm{w} /$ ，has no particular characteris－ tics，apart from such rare sequences as in：［＇word］／＇wvd／wood，［＇wvundəd］${ }^{a}$［＇whun－ $\mathrm{d} 4 \mathrm{~d}]$／$/ \mathrm{wsund} \mathrm{d} \mathrm{d} /$ wounded．Before／vu／，／w／may be realized as a semi－constrictive
 a semi－approximant，［u］：【vi＇ðaof】／wi＇ðaot／without．It is important to remember that／w／has a strong bilabial component，which causes changes in the realization


By now, the sequence /hw/ [ $\mathrm{w}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{hw}$ ] 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: ['witf] /'witf/ witch, ['wutf; hutf; 'hwitg] /hwitf/ which; ['wet] /'wet/ wet, ['wet; luet; hwet] /hwet/ whet.

This distinction is more stable in Scotland, Ireland (including Ulster) and in New Zealand. For /hj/, we can have [hj, h]: [hjurudु, 'hje, 'h-] /hjouç/ huge; whereas [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 $[\mathrm{h}] / \mathrm{h} /$. It occurs before vowels and -between voiced sounds- it can become voiced: [hæt] /hæt/ hat,
 'ha'ond, -fi- ${ }^{a}$ [bt-]b/błhaend/ behind.

In British (and Welsh and Australian) uneducated pronunciation, /h/ often becomes «zero», |ø|: «/|øxt, 'Øuu/», hat, who, \&c. However, it must be clearly stated that in non-emphatic grammemes (not occurring after a pause) the change $/{ }^{*} \mathrm{~h} / \rightarrow$
 (very different from ['†het: "hum:] ['thet: "hım:] ${ }^{b} /$ 'teł "hım/ tell Him!', ['Herk "hri]a ['†herk "ha:]b /'trik "hə:I/ take HER.').

On the other hand, in comparison with Romance languages, we must emphasize the importance of 〈aspiration $\rangle$ for $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{f} /$, at the very beginning of stressed syllables (and even of unstressed syllables after pauses), including second elements
 (but ['sferk] /'sterk/ stake).

## Laterals

2.2.10.1. The only lateral English phoneme, from a strict intraphonemic point of view, is |/ौ/| [l, 1$]$, 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 $/ 1,1 /$ (instead of a more abstract $/!/ /$-which is decidedly less (interphonemic - for $/ \mathrm{f} /$ ). There is one caveat: although we have decided to include / f / among our diaphonemic symbols, this does not imply that we consider it a real phoneme, as no opposition exists in English between /f/ and /1/. 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: [khaqlın] $]^{a}[\mathrm{kho}-]^{b} / \mathrm{kbdlry} /$ codling and
 [-dlıy], which unifies different pronunciations into one.

Traditional transcriptions excessively hide many characteristics, including the
difference between $[\mathfrak{f}, 1]$ ，and the actual fact that，before（a heterosyllabic）$/ \mathrm{j} /$ ，not only does［ 1 l not occur（as，instead，it does before any other consonants），but it is prepalatal，［［ ］］，［＇mul－jən］．In other contexts，it is alveolar，［l］，as in：［lvusaэt］${ }^{a}$［l $\mu \mathrm{u}-$ ， ${ }_{\text {Ijjuu－］}}{ }^{b} /$ lvusact， 1 l －／leucite．Even between a stressed short vowel and another vow－ el，which makes one syllable with $/ 1 /$ ，in the neutral（American or British）pronun－ ciation，［1］（not［1］）is used：［＇fal－i］${ }^{a}$［＇fol－i $]^{b}$／＇foli／folly，［＇fal－oo $]^{a}[\text {＇fol－3o }]^{b}$／＇folov／ follow，［＇†hel－ım］／＇telim／tell him，［＇ffilıt］／＇frilıt／feel it，［＇forl＇aof］a［＇foil］b／＇forl＇aot／ fall out，［＇bll＇evənz］／Bıl＇£vənz／Bill Evans．

2．2．10．2．Their distribution is in any case rather simple，once it has been clear－ ly explained．As we have said，in diaphonemic transcriptions，it is convenient to use the two primary symbols，$/ 1, \mathfrak{l}$ ；although（to be precise）it would be useful to use at least four symbols，$[1,1, \not, \not, \downarrow]$（besides［ $\ddagger]$ in British［and British－like］pronun－ ciation，before $/ \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{t}_{\mathrm{I}}, \mathrm{d} \mathrm{I} /$ ），in addition to three intense ones，$\left[1, \not, \frac{1}{1}, \nmid\right.$ ．Furthermore， at least in specific descriptions，the taxophones with dental contact，$\llbracket I, \ddagger \rrbracket$ ，should be indicated，and also those with lip－rounding after $V$ or $C$ which have a labial
 tomatic；therefore，it is necessary to mark it only where it is being explained，in or－ der to draw attention to the phenomenon．
 ［1ok］／lvk／look，［l $\sigma^{\circ} \circ \mathrm{n}$ ］／locn／loin．To be rigorous，lip－rounding also occurs be－ fore rounded $V$ ，by coarticulation：【1 $\omega \mathrm{l}$ ，$\ \quad \sigma^{\circ} \cdot n \rrbracket$ ；however，a special symbol－like $\llbracket 1 \rrbracket$－is not needed，since it is absolutely inevitable to prepare the lips for the round－ ed vocoids that follow，within the syllable．

In fact，an articulation of／l／without lip－rounding，$\llbracket 1 \rrbracket$ ，would somehow be per－ ceived as something «strange»，exactly as for $/ \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g} /$ followed either by front V or by $/ \mathrm{j} /$ ，or else by rounded $V$ or by $/ \mathrm{w} /$ ：the articulations $\llbracket \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{q} \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket \mathrm{k}, \hat{g} \rrbracket$ ，respec－ tively，are natural and automatic：【＇khtๆ］［khtt］／kıt／kit，【＇get】［＇get］／＇get／get，



Therefore，in particular for $/ \frac{1}{\ddagger} \# /$ ，an «objective» pronunciation，obtained by juxta－ posing $/ \mathrm{p} /$ and $/ \mathcal{1} /$ ，for instance，would produce an effect that may perplex native speakers．Strictly speaking，in fact，［ $\mathrm{p} \ddagger$ ］would have something less in comparison


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；there－ fore，it need not be marked，as instead we are doing here．Before heterosyllabic $/ \mathrm{j} /$ ，



 $\llbracket$＇forfts $\rrbracket^{b}[-\mathrm{fts}] /$＇fortts／faults．With $/ \theta$ ，$\partial /+/ 1 /$ ，we have $\llbracket I \rrbracket$（dental，but not velar－




 built, 【h [- $\mathrm{fk} \mathrm{k} / \not \mathrm{f} \leftrightarrows \mathrm{Fl} /$ Falk. In the case of words with $/ \mathrm{f} \mathrm{N}^{\#} /$, we generally find nasalization:


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


As far as intense $l$ is concerned, $/ / 1 / / /$, we find lip-rounding after $C$ with a labial component, /m, p, b; f, v; ff, d; $\int, 3 ; \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{w} /$. In addition, before $V$ within words, we
【'th.sımblıy $\rrbracket^{a}$ ['there-]b [-blıy] /'tusmblıy/ trumbling. However, before $V$ belonging to a following word, a semi-velarized alveolar articulation is found, $\llbracket \mathfrak{l}, \mathfrak{i} \rrbracket$ (even be-
 'rinıg $\rrbracket^{a} \llbracket-\mathrm{t} ๆ \rrbracket b$ ['phrip $]$ /'pripł 'ritın/ people eating. Lastly, before a pause or a $C$, we

 [ben ${ }^{\prime} \ddagger$ ] /ben $\theta \ddagger /$ benthal.

Often, many transcriptions present sequences of $/ a / \mathrm{V} /$, because they refer to slow or careful speech: ['navalıst]a ['no-] /'novalist/ novelist, [ballriv] /bəliriv/ be-

 esting to compare the following forms, which generally maintain a slight difference of syllabic structure, in comparison with the cases previously seen: ['bliity] /'blirit/ bleach, ['phlriz] /'pliza/ please.
2.2.10.4. We will now report, though not recommend, the frequent insertion of a homorganic stop before $/ \theta, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{J} /($ not /f/) preceded by $/ \mathrm{f} /$ : $[\mathrm{ff} \uparrow \theta \mathrm{i}$; - $\mathrm{ft} \theta \mathrm{i}]$ [-ft $\theta \mathrm{i} \rrbracket$


 the reverse simplification may be heard, too, as in: [firifdz; --7z, firi-] [-fz] /'friłdz/
 ble ambiguities (and grammemes $\{-s,-s\}\}$ ), spelling is better respected.

In non-neutral American pronunciation, $/ 1 /$ can be realized as [ 1$]$ (sometimes even [t]) before $V$ or $/ \mathrm{j} /$. 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, [1] 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
 ber. Even the article $a$ often has a full timbre (which could sound too formal in


Furthermore, bisyllabic verbs in -ate, more frequently in American English, bear


 (and reptile, sterile). But we have: /'dosț; -acł/a /'dousacł, 'dosacł/b docile and /'dzuu-

 gıæm/ program ${ }^{a}$,-mmeb ).

To end with, let us see: /sıvəlł'zєıjə̣n; -lac-/a /-lac-, -lı-/b civilization, /kæpғ1ẹıi/a

 di, -bədi] ${ }^{\text {b }}$ поводу (and any-, every-, some-). Let us also notice this (seemingly

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) /'ædıદs, ə'dıes/a /a'd- $\left.\right|^{b}$
advertisement /ædvə!!'taદzmənt, 'æ-,

agave /ə̈'ga:vi/a /ə'gєıvi, -ar-, 'ægєıv/b
albino /æłbaenvo/a /-bii-/b
American [ə'mesukun, ə'm.riu-] ${ }^{a}$ [ə'me.tkun] ${ }^{b}$
anti- |ænṭac-, -i- $/ a \mid-\mathrm{i}-\|^{b}$
apparatus /æpə'ætəs/a $/-æ t-,-\varepsilon ı t-\left.\right|^{b}$
artisan /'au!̣tzn/a /au!̣łzæn, 'au!̣!zzæn/b
ate /'عıt/a /'عt, 'عıt/b
ballet /bælعІ/a /'bælعı/b
because /błk $1 \mathrm{zaz},-\left.\mathrm{Dz}\right|^{a} /-\left.\mathrm{Dz}\right|^{b}$
 -Іә! $/{ }^{b}$
beta /beıțə/a /briṭə/b
cabaret /kæbə'ıєı/a /kæbəıєı/b
cadre /'kædıi, 'kǎ-, -єı/a /ka:dəı̣, -dıə, 'keı-/b
centenary /sən'tenə̣ıi, 'sєnṭənẹii/a $/$ 'tiinə̣.i, -'te-/b
charade / $\int \partial^{\prime}$ Ieıd/a $/$-add/b
chassis /Jæsi, 't $f$-, -słs/a $/ \mathrm{J} æ s i / b$

cigarette /'sıgəııt, -'ıct/a -'ı $^{-1} \mathrm{t} /{ }^{b}$
circumstances /'sə:ب!kəmstænsłz, -tə-/a |-tə-, -tæ-, -ta:- $\left.\right|^{b}$
clerk/kla:ب̣k/a /kla:ب̣k/b
comrade /knmıæd, -чd/a $\mid-\varepsilon ı d,-\mp d$, knm- ${ }^{b}$
consommé /konsə'mとı, 'knnsəmとı/a
/kən'someı, konsə-/b
controversy /kontıəvว:ụsi/a /kon-, kən'tiovəə̣si/b
cordial /koxadjt/a 1 -dj-/b
coupé /kvu'per/a /kvuper/b
creek /kırik, kırı/a /kıirk/b
cuckoo /'kvukvu, ku-/a/kvkvu/b
data /'deıț, -æ-, -a:- $/ a\left|-\varepsilon I_{-},--\mathrm{ar}-\right|^{b}$

derby /'dəıب̣bi/a /'dax̣bi/b
deterrent / di'tə:ıənt, $-\varepsilon_{\mathrm{I}-} /{ }^{a} \mid-\varepsilon_{\mathrm{I}}-/^{b}$
doctrinal /'doktınt $/ a /$ dok'taac-, 'dok-/b
drama /'dıa:mə, 'dıæ-/a /'dıax:-/b
dynasty /'daenəsti/a /'di-, 'dac-/b
either /'iiðə!!; 'ає-/a /'ac-, 'тi-/b
erase $/ \mathrm{I}$＇ıcis $/{ }^{a}|-\mathrm{z}|^{b}$
figure／＇fıgjəэ̣／a／＇figə！$/ b$
financier／fąnæn＇sıə！，－nən－，ff＇næn－
siə！, fac－／a／fac＇næn－， $\mathrm{ft}_{\mathrm{f}} /{ }^{b}$（just one stress pattern）
fracas／＇fıækəs，＇fıєı－／a／＇fıæka：／b
from／＇fism，＇fıom／a／＇fidm／b
 harass／hə＇ıæs，＇hæェヱ／a／hæ－，hə－／b

hero／hıə̣ıov，＇hiix－／a／hıə̣－－／b
humble ${ }^{\prime}(\mathrm{h}) \wedge \mathrm{mbt} / a / \mathrm{h}-\dot{b}$
bumo（u）r／hjoumə．！；jj－／a／hj－／b
idea／ac＇dio＞／a／ac＇diə／b

inquiry／＇ıŋkwəri，－kwaعə－／a／－1kwacə－／b
isolate／＇acsolcit；${ }^{\mathrm{I}-/ a} / \mathrm{a}$＇ac－／b
khaki／ka：ki，kæ－／a／kas－／b
lasso／læssu，－vu，læ＇svu／a／lə＇svu，læ－， læssu／b

lever／lغvəェ̣，lıi－／a／lii－／b
lieutenent／lvu＇tenənt／a／lef＇t－，ləf＇t－／b
margarine／＇ma：ب̣dzo．ıən，－әпin／a ／ma：ب̣dza＇ınin，＇ma：ب̣dzəıin，－ga－／b
massage／mə＇sa：3，－ $\mathrm{d}_{3} /{ }^{a} /$ mæsa：3，$-\mathrm{d}_{3} /^{b}$
melancholy／＇meləŋkoli／a／－ali，－opli／b
migraine／＇masgııın／a／＇mas－，＇mi－， ＇mi－$/$ b
miscellany／mısəlııni／a／mı＇sєlə－，mısə－ ${ }^{1} \mathrm{EI}-{ }^{-}$b
multi－／msltace－，－i－$/{ }^{a} /-\mathrm{i}-/^{b}$
mustache（mou－）／＇mıstæf，mə＇st－／a ／ma＇sta： $\int$ ，mu－／b
neither／＇nniðəı！；＇nae－／a／＇nae－，＇nii－／b
nougat／＇nvugət／a／＇nvugas，＇nлgət／b
of／＇$\Lambda v, ~ ' \mathrm{Dv} /{ }^{a} / \mathrm{Dv} /^{b}$
omega／วu＇megə，－єı－，－іі－／a／＇כumıgə／b
omicron／＇mmıkıon，＇๖v－／a／ov＇mac－
kıion，－ən，＇omıkion／b
on $/ \mathrm{pn}, \sin /{ }^{a} / \mathrm{pn} /^{b}$
patriot／＇pert．Iiət／a／＇per－，＇pæ－／b
plateau／plæ＇tov／a／＇plætov／b
premier／pıı＇mıə！，＇pııi－，＇рıк－／a／＇pıє－， ＇pıii－／b
princess／＇pıınses，－әs／a／pıın＇ses，＇pıın－ ses／b
privacy／＇pıaєvəsi／a／＇рıı－，＇рıає－／b
рита／＇pvumə，＇pjvu－／a／＇pjvu－${ }^{b}$
quinine／kwarnaen，－nın／a／kwi＇nıin， kwınıin／b


ration／＇ェæfə̣n，－ЕІ－$/ a /$／æ－$/ b$

reveille／＇ıEvali／a $/ \mathrm{II}^{\prime} \mathrm{v} æ-$, －＇ve－－${ }^{b}$

semi－｜ssmac－，－i－$/{ }^{a}|-\mathrm{i}-|^{b}$
shone／／Joun／a／＇Sm／b
simultaneous／sacmfl＇teıniəs／a／＇sım－／${ }^{b}$

solder／＇sodə！ ，＇so：－／／／＇sout－，＇sot－／b
spinach／＇spinit $\int / a /-\mathrm{d}_{3},-\mathrm{t} / /^{b}$
squirrel／＇skwo．xt；－II－$/ a /-\mathrm{II}-\left.\right|^{b}$
stewardess／＇stjuvuəı̣drs／a／＇stj̣．，－＇des／b
stirrup／＇stə：Іәр；－пі－／a $/-\mathrm{II}-]^{b}$
stratum／＇stıєıṭəm，－ær－／［＇stiesiəm，

subaltern／so＇bortṭə！n／a／＇ssbł－－／b

syrup／＇səııәр，＇sıi－／a／＇six－／b
tomato／to＇merṭov／a $/-\mathrm{as}-/ b$
 ker，－э：Ị－／b
trachea／＇tıeıkiə／a／＇tıeı－，tıə＇kıiə／b
trait／＇tıeıt／a／＇tıeı，－t／b
upon／$\partial$＇pan，－－on，－om $/ a /-\mathrm{on} /{ }^{b}$
vase／＇veis，－z／a｜＇vazz／b
water／＇worta！，＇wo－／a／＇wo：－／b
what／＇wnt，＇wot；＇hw－／a／＇wot；＇hw－／b
wigwam／＇wigwom，－o：m $]^{a}[-æ m]^{b}$

xerox／＇zıə̣ıдks，＇ziix－／a／＇zıə̣І－，＇zex－／b
 －ชəさ！${ }^{b}$
Z／＇zii／a／＇zed／${ }^{b}$
zebra／＇zıibıə／a／＇ze－，＇zıi－／b
zenith／＇ziinı $\theta$ ；＇ze－／a／＇ze－／b


There is an additional short list of words that in American English may often have also / $\mathrm{o} /[\mathrm{s}]^{a}$, besides the more usual /v/ $[\mathrm{a}]^{a}[\mathrm{p}]^{b}$ : 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»

2.3.1.1. As can be seen from many of the previous transcriptions, English un-


 foreign accents of English, unstressed syllables too often show full vowels.

Indeed, many vowels (and consonants) may disappear entirely in comparison




However, not all unstressed syllables have vowel reduction or fall: [ khament$]^{a}$
 -rłt/ asphalt, [khvupan; khj-] ${ }^{a}$ [khuupon] ${ }^{b} / \mathrm{kvu}$ pon/ 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):
 [ə'juunət] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{t} \dagger]^{b}$ a unit, [ə'ne'Im] a name;
am: [aэm'weł:] ${ }^{a}$ [-Et:] $]^{b}$ I'm well, [aэm'fa'эn] I'm fine, [aэm'g'æ'd, a9m-, aэŋ-] I'm


'a:ım] ${ }^{a}$ [วn'a:m] ${ }^{b}$ an arm, [ən'E'Im] an aim;


 eni'mo:i, əni-, -† ni, -† ni, -र ni, -र ni, - $\mathrm{f} \mu]^{a}[\text { 'gdt, -र }]^{b}$ haven't you got any more?;




 zu'loks, sə-, -ast st-, -1'l-]a ['not s3o-]b not so light as it looks;


 lo:y, $\left.\Lambda^{-},-\mathrm{a} \cdot \mathrm{\eta}\right]^{a}[-3 \mathrm{a}-, \mathrm{e}-,-\mathrm{D} \cdot \mathrm{\eta}]^{b}$ I won't be long;
been: [aงbbınu'we'I, -ben-; -bən-, aэd-; аэə-; aэhə-]a [-bın-, -bıin-] ${ }^{b}$ I had been away (I'd);
 Billy;
by: [bas'oxtminz, bля-, bл-] [-o.ł, beэ-, be-] by all means, ['so'ołd baэðə'phaond,

can: [khunas'hævtf] can I have it?, [wikm'plhe'r, -kum-] we can play, [juki''go`o, -kuy-, j \(\mu-]^{a}\left[-3^{\circ}\right]^{b}\) you can go;  could make it;    go?, ['hao dıdðerlaэkıt, ఫə-, ddð-, dð-] how did they like it?, ['we'I, dıdzw'go'n, \(\left.-\mu-,-\mathrm{dj}^{-}, \mathrm{dd}_{3}-, \mathrm{d}_{3}\right]^{a}\left[{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{we}^{\prime} 3,-\mathrm{z}^{\circ} \mathrm{o}\right]^{b}\) where did you go?;         does it look? (how's);     had: [hədas'sıinıf, hæ-] had I seen it, [ðеıəd'વa`эd, ðеıd-; -ıhəd-] they had died
 done (it'd), [ðә'mæ'n ug'gom, əd-, -a•n] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{b} \cdot \mathrm{n}]^{b}$ the man had gone, [ [i'hæd tə-

 has done (she's), [tts'bun:, เฉəz-; thəəz-] ${ }^{a}$ [tts-, -rin, -ın:, t†əz-] it has been (it's),
 'SIE'I, -æs] he has to stay;
have: [həvjə'ssintt, hæ-, -ju-] have you seen it?, [ðеıv'gəm, -a'n; ðеıə-; -hə-]a [-orn] ${ }^{b}$ they have gone (they've), [wiv'khım:, -fk-; wiə-; wihə-] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{mm}]^{b}$ we have


 would, must, may, might;
he: [hi'went] he went, ['weni 'sort, we-, wu-] ${ }^{a}\left[{ }^{[1 s} \sigma^{\circ} \mathrm{t} \dagger\right]^{b}$ when he saw it, [hæzi] has he?;

 to her mother;
 his: [huz'phen:] his pen, [hi'thok izbok] he took his book, [hıj'jpu日] his youth;

 stay?;
 $\mathrm{fr}_{1}^{\prime} j \mu^{\prime} \mathrm{u}$, əf-, $\left.\mathrm{f}_{\mathrm{-}},-\mathrm{f}\right]^{a}\left[-\mathrm{nor} \mathrm{fa}^{\prime}-\right]^{b}$ if not for you;


 mınə'hriri, $\Lambda$-; -mnə-; аэəm-] ${ }^{a}$ [-e.ti, e- $]^{b} I$ am in a hurry (I'm);


 nice woman, [ðıs'dif $\mathrm{zz}^{\prime} w a 9 \dagger, \mathrm{z}^{\prime}-, \mathrm{s}^{\prime}$-, ðәs-] this dish is white;



 be nice ( $i t$ 'd);
 broken;
 goin u'we't, -əs-, -a‘n] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{e}-,-\partial-,-\mathrm{D} \cdot \mathrm{n}]^{b}$ she has just gone away (she's), [d3nslask

many: ['meni bo'sz] many boys, ['ha'o meni'moun, məni-, mni-] ${ }^{a}[-\sigma .]^{b}$ bow many more?;
 $\left[-3^{\circ} 0\right]^{b}$ we may go, [ [imer'ste'r; -mə-] she may stay;
 me the way;
 must be done, [ [iməs'pheri] she must pay;
 -ә-; ---; -i-, -रे] ${ }^{a}\left[\right.$ 'nd-, -еэ-, -е-] ${ }^{b}$ not to my knowledge;




not, n't: [u'ıznt $\dagger]^{a}\left[\mathrm{t}^{\prime} \mathrm{L}-\right]^{b}$ it isn't, [a9'woont, $\left.\Lambda^{-}\right]^{a}[\mathrm{e}-,-30 n \dagger]^{b}$ I won't, [hi'd $\Lambda z n \dagger$,
 'gord]a [ $\left.\mathrm{t}^{-1}\right]^{b}$ it isn't good, ['ızni, -nıi1] isn't he?, ['ıznt?, -nıt] isn't it?, [hi'juusn$\dagger \mathrm{T}]$ ] he used not to;


on (the most reduced form only occurs when no ambiguity with in is possible):



once: $\left[\mathrm{w} \Lambda \mathrm{ns}^{\prime} \mathrm{moxi}, \mathrm{wun}-\right]^{a}$ [wens'mo:, wun- $]^{b}$ once more (= again) - [wnns'moxi] ${ }^{a}$ [wens'mor] ${ }^{b}$ once more (= one more time);
one(s) (the form without / w/ may be judged as dialectal or regional): [ə'bıgiw 1 n,


 'na9s,wnnz, -wunz; -sənz] ${ }^{a}$ [ðð@zə-, -we-; -sənz] ${ }^{b}$ those are nice ones;

 'Ełs]b or else;

per: ['fufti prisent]a [pə-]b fifty per cent, ['fa'эv prt'semp pit'ænəm, -mP, -nt]a [pə's-, рә_'æ-] five per cent per annum;
shall (in American English it is a stylistic choice): [.fæla9'†herkt†, -лэ-] [ [Jolas-





 kh- $]^{a}[-\mathrm{fi}-,-\mathrm{e}-]^{b}$ that he should come out;


s-] ${ }^{b}$ Sir Charles;




some (determ.): [wudzəlask sm'†hri, səm-] would you like some tea?, [dju'wan
 [-mm] ${ }^{b}$ I have some;
St., Saint: [seım'philiŋ, -mp'ph-] [sm'phrite, sım-, seim-] St. Peter, [seıŋ'khle'f,
 sin-, sein-, - $\theta-] b$ St. Anthony;
 sə-] ${ }^{b}$ such a thing;


 əne-; „ææfı-]b that is more than I have (that's);

 know that; [ д'dе' $^{\prime}$ (ðәр) wi'met] the day (that) we met;

 дə'†ha'эm, zə-, 'wa-; -11z-] ['wo-; -tı--]b what is the time? (what's), [1zðurkhæt

 city;


them: [wi'sっ`дəm, -ðm, -эəəm] ${ }^{a}\left[-1 \mathrm{~s} \sigma^{\circ}-,-\sigma^{\circ} ə \mathrm{~m}\right]^{b}$ we saw them, ['gıvðəm, -ðm, -vəm, -ví] give them;


 - $\left.\mathrm{t} \mathrm{t}^{\text {' }} \mathrm{Th}-\right]^{b}$ then after a time...;

 haven't there?;


this: [ðıs'ivnıŋ, ðәs', Әә's-] this evening, [ðıs'phen:; ðәs-] this pen, [unðıs'we'r, un-
 ['wnts 'dıs, -Ps, -s, 'zıs, 'sıs, 'wa-; -1tz] ${ }^{a}$ ['wD-; - tz$]^{b}$ what is this? (what's);
 [-'†hjuu-] till tuesday;



to: [†həlındən] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{e}-]^{b}$ to London, [thə'skuvł] to school, [th ${ }^{\prime}$ 'ugglənd, 'thwl-] to


 PDfe] $^{b}$ to offer - for to, before consonants, [a, u] can be very short; and, before voiceless consonants, they are often devoiced: ['fhen tę farov] ten to five;

 (there's);
 another, [la'эn әpэn'la'эn, -pa-, -ps-,- -pə-]a [-pd-, -pz-]b line upon line;
 әs 'gs $\left.{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{o}\right]^{b}$ let us go;
 friend;
we: [wi'meri] we may, ['anntwi, -mpwi, -mpwi]a ['an-, 'am-]b aren't we?;
 there?;
 ...] ${ }^{\text {b }}$ see what you have done! (you've), [hi'nu'u wsil'wan(1) 2 d , wa-, wu-, -'won-;
 'serıl, -ju, ,wa-, wu-; hw-; h-; -E'ı] ${ }^{a}$ [wd $\left.{ }^{-}-, ..\right]^{b}$ what are you saying?

 $-\mu$, wa-, wu-; hw-; ho-] $[$ ww-, ...]b what do you do? (d'you);
when (not interr.): [əmwenas'sort, mwu-, -nə' ${ }^{\prime}$ a $\left[-\sigma^{\circ} \cdot\right]^{b}$ and when I saw it..., [soowenju'ger 'deft -wu-, -f]a [s30-, -E'3]b so when you get there...;

 country where people sing;




 (w)ułbifoł:, wł-] $[-3+f] b$ the church will be full;
 $[-\mu \mathrm{u}]^{b}$ they would do (they'd), [hig̊khım:, -dk-; hiugo; hizd;; hiwu-] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{em}:]^{b}$
 (it'd), ['ḑrrim wud'se'isoo, -n ad-] ${ }^{a}[-30]^{b}$ Jean would say so;



-n $n f-$ - $-\mathrm{n} j$-] didn't you quit?;

 (what's).
2.3.1.3. When prepositions become «postpositions〉, they have full vowels:

 silokıŋæ!, 'wsı uzi-, 'wa-] ['wot si-, -f 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): [hi'wemədfrij $\mu,-\mathrm{j} \Lambda$,
 [e, -æ†е] ${ }^{\text {b }}$ we're looking at her.

Of course, with emphasis, things change: [wrilokıŋ ufthirl 'nav ət"hım:] [wılokıy ut"h3:| 'not ət"hım:] ${ }^{b}$ we're looking at HER, not at HIM, [as"qu'u,noo] ${ }^{a}$ [a9" $\mathrm{q} \mu \mathrm{H}$ un3o] ${ }^{b}$ I Do know.

The forms beginning by $h$-, after a pause, never lose initial $/ \mathrm{h} /$ : [hi'noraz] ${ }^{a}$
 $\mathrm{j} \mu]^{b}$ who are you?, \&c.
2.3.1.4. Here we will make some examples of compounds with reduced second
 /-bẹıi/ (in particular with monosyllabic roots, cf $\$ 2.3 \cdot 5$ ), [kh^bıd] ${ }^{a}$ [khebəd] ${ }^{b}$ cup-
 an intoneme, but $/$-di/ in a preintoneme, $\langle/$-d $\varepsilon!/ /\rangle)$;




 ıиum] ${ }^{b}$ Cunningham $/$ hæm/, ['ıgglənd] England, ['phoosmən] ${ }^{a}$ ['phzos-] ${ }^{b}$ post-
 ni/, ['phlımə $\theta$ ] Plymouth;
['so's,phæn] ${ }^{a}$ ['sorspən] $]^{b}$ saucepan $/-\mathrm{p} æ n /$, ['nansens, -səns] ${ }^{a}[\text { 'nonsəns }]^{b}$ nonsense
 sən] ${ }^{a}\left[- \text { dे }^{2}\right]^{b}$ Henderson, ['fookstən, - stoon] ${ }^{a}$ ['fıokstən] ${ }^{b}$ Folkestone /-stọ̣n/.




## 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 (/ax, $\mathfrak{\partial}$, $2: /$, and the possible long ones from the diaphonemes $/ \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{r}}, \mathfrak{X}^{*}, \mathrm{D}^{\mathrm{r}}, \supset^{\top}, \partial^{\top} /$ ) as well as the diphthongs (/ri, $\varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, \supset \varepsilon$, aว, $\supset v, \nu u /$ ) undergo a little shortening -half-shortening, indeed: from $[V, V \cdot V]$ to $[V, V V]-$ 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: ['phlext /'pleı/ play, ['phleiz] /'pleız/ plays, ['phle'td] /'pleid/ played, ['phler,bæk] /'plırbæk/ playback, but ['phlerıy] (or, possibly, ['phle'ı])
 ['phleıt] /'pleıt/ plate, ['phlerts] /'pleıts/ plates, ['phlenad]] ${ }^{a}[-\mathrm{tq}]^{b}$ /'pletṭd/ plated, ['phlenıu] $]^{a}[-\mathrm{trg}]^{b} /$ 'pleıtın/ plating, ['pheınt] /'pent/ paint.


 [-ad-] $/$ /kaudir / carding, [khæ()nt $]^{a}[-\mathrm{ant}]^{b} / \mathrm{k} æ \mathrm{~m}^{2} /$ can't.

Besides, also unstressed or half-stressed syllables shorten, as seen in cardboard (a true compound, as to cupboard/ksboدd/, that is crystallized, by now, so that a more suitable spelling for the latter could certainly be «cubbard)): [phast'thss-




These degrees of length hold good both in intonemes and preintonemes.
2.3.2.2. For the English stressed vowels ( $/ \mathrm{I}, \varepsilon, \mathfrak{x}, \Lambda, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{v} /$ ), there is another interesting fact about phonetic length. In syllables checked by final voiced consonants, occurring in diphonic pairs (ie $/ \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{d} ; \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{J} /$ ), short stressed vowels undergo a little lengthening - half-lengthening, indeed: from [V] to [V]]- [lu-d] /Ird/ lid (but [lıf] /lit/ lit), ['mæ'd] /'mæd/ mad (but ['mæt] /'mæt/ mat), ['bNz] $]^{a}[\text { bez] }]^{b}$ /bsz/ buzz (but [bss]a [bes] /bas/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 $/ \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{\eta} ; \mathfrak{i} /$ ), instead of the vocoid, the contoid is a little lengthened (but only in intonemes, before paus-


In both accents, though, there is an exception to the exception, insofar as $/ \mathfrak{x}, \mathrm{o} /$ are half-lengthened (in a preintoneme, too), instead of a following contoid:


In the sequences /гə!, $\varepsilon ə!$, və! $/$, the first element is half-lengthened, both in intonemes and preintonemes; this occurs before vowels as well, if final in rhythm groups:



We should notice that, in American English, /Іə!̣, غə!̣, və!̣/ followed by vowels,
within words or rhythm groups，become＜／III，عI，vil／：［＇spunt］both for／＇spiọıit／
 ing．

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，$\partial, z, 3 /)$ ，before pauses or before voiceless consonants（＜postdevoicing»），is very important：［barb］${ }^{a}$

 ＇tukit／dad took it．

Of less importance is their devoicing after pauses or after voiceless consonants （＜predevoicing»），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 sym－


A dot could be used even after «aspirated»／p，t，k，t／／，but we will do that only here，because［h］is sufficient：【＇phḷeri】／＇pleı／play，【khwaэๆ】／kwact／quite．It is the same also for the other voiceless consonants（although their devoicing is only



## 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：［＇moosli］${ }^{a}$ ［＇m3o－］b／＇moustli／mostly，［＇hænsəm］／＇hændsəm／handsome，［＇phoosmən］${ }^{a}[-30-]^{b}$ ／＇poustmən／postman，［＇phrifukli］a［－3f－］b／＇pəufirktli／perfectly，［＇neks＇de＇r］／＇nckst
 ／＇mæft pə＇tciṭouz／mashed potatoes．

This simplification occurs for／sts／，as well：［＇phoosts，－sis，－ss $]^{a}[\text {＇ph3o－}]^{b} /$＇pousts／ posts，［＇†hests，－sis，－ss］／＇tests／tests，［＇†hekst səlekfən，－ks s－，sl＇e－］${ }^{a}\left[-\int n\right] b / ' t \varepsilon k s t ~ s ə l \varepsilon k-$ $\int$ ？̣n／text selection．

Besides：［＇mv＇uv bæk］${ }^{a}$［＇mu＇uv］${ }^{b} /$＇mvuvd＇bæk／moved back，［1ok lask］／lukt lack／looked like，［＇mitfmi］a［＇ษ－］b／＇mitftmi／reached me，［＇†horoł＇babo］［＇†hooł ＇bobb］／＇toułd＇bob／told Bob，［＇khep khwaэət］／＇kept kwaeət／kept quiet．

In addition to simplifications，there are assimilations：［＇hæ＇m＇me＇rd，－n＇m－］






 ['ph.ıabli, -bb-, -bəb-, ph.ıali] ${ }^{a}\left[\right.$ 'ph.to-] ${ }^{b}$ /'p.obbabli/ probably.
2.3.3.2. In vowel combinations, within words or sentences, several simplifica-


 ['sert, 'seit] /'senit/ say it, ['na: ən'ðen:, 'na־o] /'nao ən(d)'den/ now and then, [bo's






 $\mathrm{kj} \mathrm{\mu}]\left(\llbracket k^{\prime} \mathrm{kj} \mu \rrbracket\right) /|\theta æ \mathrm{jkju}|$ thank you.


 , $\mathrm{k}-]^{a}[-\sigma \cdot]^{b} /$ /əv'kد:


 only I could, ['skjuuzmi, lk'] /rk'skjouzmi/ excuse me!, [bas'ba's, b $\left\llcorner\right.$-, bə-, bas'ba's] ${ }^{a}$ [be-] /bac'baع/ bye-bye, [gob'ba•s, gub-, ga', gu'-; -q'b-, 'ba`s] /gud'baع/ goodbye,
 morning.



 $[-\mathrm{re}]^{b} / \mathrm{k} \wedge \mathrm{m}$ hıa! $/$ come here!





 $-\sigma^{*}$, - - - - ${ }^{b}$ / aemgənə'duut;- -govnə-; -gouintz-/ I'm going to do it (gonna do it), [hizgu-




[fol'fıt:, fut'-, fo'-, fə'-] /fut'fit/ fulfill, [ım'vaэıənmənt, -əmmə-, -əmə-, -aэımə-, e-,
 vironment, ['gлvıุnmən†, -vım-, -vəm-, -vm-, -vm-; -bmi-; -mm-] ['gevənm-, -vəmm-, -vəm-, -vm-, -vm-; -bm-; -mm-]b/'g^və!̣nmənt/ government.

American English has, too: [khændəədeıt, khænə-, -dət]/kændғdeıt, -dғt/ candidate, [æn†'هuktık, ænı'-, æn'-, -'ax $\quad$ ık] /ænṭ'aụktık/ 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: [ə'ne'mm] /a'neım/ a name,



In addition, let us note: ['wa's 'theruz] ${ }^{a}[-\mu \text { 'uz] }]^{b}$ /'was 'furuz/ why choose, ['wast

 black tie, [ə'blækt 'a’s] /ə'blækt 'a $/$ / a blacked eye.
 Smith may seem a bit strange. Indeed, as consonants often fall between others, so, in less slow manners of speaking, even [mı'spet:, mı'smı $\theta]^{a}[\text {-el: }]^{b}$ occur.

For British English, the following examples are usual, too: [s30'bug u'mærn, sə-]b /sou'bıg ə'mæn/ so big a man, [ə'bıgз 'mæ'n] /ə'bıgəฺ̣ 'mæn/ a bigger man; [la9† ә-

 he's a welterweight.

Let us add an important remark about the syllabic structure regarding //VCV/, which has $/ \mathrm{I}, \varepsilon, \mathfrak{x}, \Lambda, \mathrm{D}, v /$, even preceded by $/ \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{l} /$, or with final $/ \mathrm{n}, \mathfrak{l} /$. Although we will not mark it systematically, but only here (as it would be an almost useless increase in weight of our transcriptions), it is worthwhile knowing that a single consonant and the preceding short stressed vowel belong to the same sylla-











On the contrary, stressed long vowels and diphthongs belong to different syllables as to following single consonants: ['nor-ni] ${ }^{a}[$ 'nor-ti] $/$ /nstil/ naughty, ['nvu-tn,

 tıəł/ neutral, ['土aง-pli] a ['Łaง-pli] ${ }^{b}$ /'土acpli/ ripely.

## American dissimilation of $r$

2.3.3.5. To simplify the articulation of words and rhythm groups with two $/ \underset{\text { IT/ }}{ }$ 's, American pronunciation can have variants with / / / for the first / $1 /$, although not












 Northerner.

Less systematically, dissimilation is possible even in rhythm groups: [hrihart,





In addition to /גִ/, the following examples will show dissimilation for /I/ (which is used in British pronunciation too, due to a kind of simplification, even by anal-
 bıє̣ıi/ library, ['febıu,
 tẹ.ıi/ secretary.






All in all, we can see that dissimilation mostly occurs with: [' $\sigma \cdot x$ ] /'כ: $/$ /, usually, in stressed syllables (where, even if / $/$ / is not pronounced, words do not become ambiguous, because the vowel timbre alone is distinctive; see the examples above),
 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 $\{-e d ;-(e) s ;-s,-s\}$.

Simply，we have：
／d／［d］after voiced phonemes（ie vowels，diphthongs，and voiced consonants， except the very／d／）：／＇pleıd／played，／hərid／hurried，／｜ba：̣̣d／barred，｜＇土＾bd／rubbed， ／＇dund3d／judged，／＇plænd／planned；
$\mid \mathrm{t} /[\dagger]$ after voiceless consonants（except the very $/ \mathrm{t} /$ ）：／＇stopt／stopped，／＇wb．jt／ washed，／＇swiftt／switched，／læft／laughed；
$/ \mathrm{md} /[\mathrm{rd}]^{a}[\mathrm{Lq}]^{b}$ after $/ \mathrm{t}$ ， $\mathrm{d} /$ ，in order to be able to pronounce them：／＇weiṭd／wait－ ed，／＇nidłdd／needed，／＇sta：uṭd／started．

Finally，we have：
$|\mathrm{z}|[\mathrm{z}]$ after voiced phonemes（ie vowels，diphthongs，and voiced consonants，

 ard＇s；
$\mid \mathrm{s} /[\mathrm{s}]$ after voiceless consonants（except the grooved ones，／s， $\mathrm{S}, \mathrm{t} /$／）：／tops／tops，

$/ \mathrm{zz} /[\mathrm{zz}]^{a}[\mathrm{zz}]^{b}$ after $/ \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z} ; \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{z} ; \mathrm{tf}, \mathrm{d}_{3} /$ ，in order to be able to pronounce them：／kws－
 Charles＇s．

## Stress

2．3．4．1．We know that（the position of）stress may be distinctive，in English： ［＇mporit $]^{a}\left[-\sigma_{+}\right]^{b}$ import（noun，adj．），［m＇phorit $]^{a}\left[-\sigma^{\circ}+\right]^{b}$ import（verb）；［＇phiez－ $\left.n_{1} 1\right]^{a}[-\tau-]^{b}$ present（noun，adj．），［p．ı＇zent $]^{a}\left[\mathrm{p}_{-}-\right]^{b}$ 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）：［＇sæmz bort $\theta_{\text {．Iri }}$＇nvou＇smoł blæk khæts］${ }^{\text {［［bott }}$


 portance．

However，in long words（and in sentences as well），many syllables with full vow－ els generally receive secondary stresses（especially when they occur near unstressed

 $\left[{ }_{[\mathrm{I}-\mathrm{E}-]^{b} \text { recognize，}[\text {＇meks，koo }]^{a}[-30]^{b} \text { Mexico．}}\right.$
In compounds，the more frequent structure is［＇\＄\＄］（more rarely［\＄\＄\＄］：［ffif hrin］ fifteen）．Sometimes，even［ $\$ \$ \$]$ occurs，as in 〈collocations〉（or occasional－or free－ compounds，which are，then，modifiable）：［blæk，brat $]^{a}[-3 \cdot \mathrm{~d}]^{b}$ blackbird（but［blæk

 «a teacher of English» and［＇ınglv＇thrit $\left.f_{7}\right]^{a}[-\mathrm{e}]^{b}$ 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（f）
 ing and lexicographical purposes as well，it could be very useful to distinguish them as：／＇fə：ب̣st＇klæ’s／（compounds：«／＇\＄＇\＄／»）and／＇fə：ب̣st klæ＇s／（collocation：＜／＇\＄＇\＄／＞）．

Besides，patterns are flexibly structured．As a matter of fact，we have：［ffft 1 hrin］

 ［－ппjuu，－זе］a brandnew computer．

Moreover：［＇sekun（d）＇hæ゚nd］secondhand，but［＇sekun，hænd khlơo（ð）z］${ }^{a}$

 gud $\left._{1}\right]^{a}$［godaffə＇nurun， god $_{r}$, gud $\left._{i}\right]^{b}$ good afternoon，but［＇æft，nvoun＇thri］${ }^{a}$［＇af－


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 em－ phatic one，［＂］）are，in descending order：［＇］，［4］，［1］，［：］，［］．It is worthwhile observ－



 ${ }_{1}$ khripı $]^{a}[-\mathrm{e}]^{b}$ light housekeeper．

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 al－ ways the best choice，for this aspect，although，of course，they have to be consult－ ed．We willingly recommend the Random House dictionaries which，for second－ ary 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 \％r kept some other possible variants（mainly colloca－ tion－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 unpredicta－ ble，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 easi－ ly recoverable，because the second lexeme necessarily bears a secondary stress．

Vice versa，most dictionaries printed in the USA include secondary stress，«／\＄\＄\＄／»； but usually the non－IPA symbols they use put stresses after stressed syllables，unfor－ tunately，not before，and simply through a difference in thickness（which，some－ times，is not evident enough，even with both of them in presentia）；as a matter of fact，we happen to find，eg 〈in scrīb＇〉 instead of／in＇skıaعb／inscribe and «viz＇ə bil’’
$t \bar{e}\rangle$ for /vizə'bıləṭi/ [ıvızə'buləni] ${ }^{a}[-\partial \mathrm{i}]^{b}$ 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

 (their */,sentrəlistrk/).

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 ( ( / \$ \$/>) and which are prosodically (half)stressable (</(1)\$/২). As a matter of fact, the others, that have full vowels, are always (half)stressable ( $</ / \$ />)$. In addition to those with / $\partial$, ə!!, ғ/, the following are always unstressed: |-ik, -iks, -in, -if, -ist, -iv, -fił/ -ic, -ics, -ing, -ish, -ist, -ive, -phil: /'IEṭəık, 'polətıks, 'lıŋgəıı, 'jelourf, 'novalıst, dr'skıptıv, 'æŋgləfit/ rhetoric, politics, lingering, yellowish, novelist, descriptive, anglophil (for -phile, we have $/-\mathrm{fac}$, - $\mathrm{fr} 1 /$ /).

Instead, the following are half-stressed (if preceded by an unstressed syllable), but unstressed (if preceded by a stressed syllable): /-hod, -izəm, -act, -acz, -fip, -jvuł/ -hood, -ism, -ite, -ize (-ise), -ship, -ule: /'wumən[]hod/ womanhood ( $\neq$ /'tfacł(d)hvd/ childhood), |'tعıə[]].ızəm/ terrorism ( $=$ /'budızəm, 'buu-/ Buddhism), /'tıotski[]]act/ Trotskyite ( $\neq \mid$ 'sılfact/ sulfite), /'kıiṭ[1] sacz/ criticize (but /bæptacz/ baptize, in addi-
 []kjvuł/ molecule ( $=$ /'globjvuł/ 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:

'ḑast 'bort ə'nj̣uu 'drkjnẹ.i.. I 've just bought a new dictionary.
 glrf 'wet?/ Do you speak English well?
 /jukən'hæv 'st.robec̣iz; כִִִִblvubẹ.iz./ 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: /Its'koułd ta'd $\varepsilon$. d'snn(t)-


fig 2.7. American intonation.

fig 2.8. British intonation.


## Other accents

2.4.o. 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 $/ \mathfrak{Z}^{\prime}, a^{\prime} ; \mathrm{D}^{\top}, \partial^{\prime} ; \partial^{r}, \mp /$ to their most
 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.

 /1D>st/ lost, ['f $\left.\sigma^{\top} \mathrm{T}\right]^{i}$ (see below for $[\mp]$, which is a semi-lateral contoid, with no real

 /hərii/ hurry. fig 2.9-10 give the vocalic articulations of the «international» English accent.
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 ( $[\mathrm{x}$.$] is a$

 are preferable (as many native speakers do themselves, all over the world).
fig 2.9 shows that the «international» phonemes $/ \Lambda, \mathrm{D}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{u} /$ are $[\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{d}, \sigma, \mathrm{u}]$ :
fig 2.9. International monophthongs.

fig 2.10. International diphthongs.




For /ə!






2.4.1.4. As to diphthongs, it is sufficient to notice: /ri, vu, vv/ [ii, uu, $\sigma 0$ ] (notice that [ii, uu] are diphthongs, although very narrow): ['†hivi] ${ }^{i}\left[{ }^{1} \dagger \mathrm{hri}\right]^{a / b} /$ 'tri/ tea,
 $\left[\mathrm{n}^{\circ} \mathrm{o}\right]^{b} / \mathrm{n} \supset \boldsymbol{v} / \mathrm{no}$. Besides, for $/ \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, \supset \varepsilon /$, a second element like $[\mathrm{Ex}]$ is enough (cf fig 2.10, to avoid introducing/learning another vocoid; so much so that a pronunciation with $[\mathrm{Er}]$ is much better than «foreign»*[ai, $\lrcorner \mathrm{i}]$, and it is near the native



Neither the $[\mathrm{u}]$ taxophone of $/ \partial /$ near velars, nor other taxophones of $/ \mathrm{I}, \varepsilon, \ngtr$, $v ; \Lambda, \mathrm{i}, v u ; \varepsilon ı, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, \supset \varepsilon /+/ \mathfrak{l}, \mathfrak{l} /$ are necessary, but their use makes one's pronunciation more «authentic», although this «international» model is already definitely more realistic than those offered in so many textbooks, even by English-speaking phoneticians (where, among other thing, «/is, u:/> are still indicated). Thus, taxophones
 nunciation from simple «international» (for foreigners) into «native international» pronunciation. Instead, the use of [i:, u:] clearly indicates either a non «native-like» pronunciation, or one which is regional or socially inappropriate.

For $/ \mathcal{\ell}, \underset{\downarrow}{\ell}$ ，it is better to use［ $\mathfrak{\ddagger}, \underset{\dagger}{\dagger}]$（semilateral，fig 1．15．1），which，articulatorily， are decidedly simpler than $[\nmid, \downarrow]$（in case，even velar can be used－velar semilater－ al［ $\uparrow, ~ \dagger]$－which，auditorily，are decidedly better than $[1,1]$ ）．

As for consonants，suffice to say that［？］is acceptable for $/ \mathrm{t} /(\$$ 2．2．2．4 $)$ and that ［1］may be good for $/ t /$ ，mainly after vowels，while，$[t]$ is more recommendable，af－
 ti］／＇twenṭi／twenty．

Thus，for $r$ ，we have：$/ \mathrm{I} /[\mathrm{I}], / \underset{\mathrm{I}}{\mathrm{I}} /[\mathrm{x}]$ ．Besides，／ḥw／simply corresponds to／w／：
 ［＇nju‘u］${ }^{i} /$＇njuvu／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 pre－ intoneme could be half－high，$\left[^{-}\right]$，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 bвс 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 suffi－ ciently 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 inap－ propriate．

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，easi－ ly 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 inap－ propriate．
fig 2．11．International intonation．

／？［［ $\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot]$


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, $/ \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{v}, \varepsilon /$ are $[\rho, \mathrm{z}, \varepsilon$ ]: ['h $\mathrm{h} \dagger$ ] m.a ['ht $\dagger$ ]a/'hit/ hit,




 singing.
 tion; $\mid \Lambda /$ is fronter and higher, $[\mathrm{s}]$ (and in $/ \Lambda \ell /$ it is rounded, [oł]): ['hst] ${ }^{m \cdot a}$ ['h $\left.\Lambda \dagger\right]^{a}$ /hat/ hut, ['hoł:] m.a [hstr] a /hnt/ hull. There are some further slight modifications which however do not change the phonetic symbols.

Let us rather talk about $\mid \mathfrak{æ}^{\top} /$, which is diphthongized, [æa]: ['phæast] ${ }^{m \cdot a}$ ['phæ( $\left.\left.{ }^{( }\right) \mathrm{st}\right]^{a} /$ 'pæ'st/ past, as well as /æN/ [ $\tilde{\mathrm{E}} \tilde{9} \mathrm{~N}$ ] (which is considerably raised and

 ['Өæŋkj $\mu,-\mathrm{j} \Lambda]^{a} /{ }^{\prime} Ө æ \eta \mathrm{kj} \mu,-\mathrm{j} \partial /$ thank you.

Some phonemes neutralize, which leads to the merging into ['mẽ¥i] for /'meri, 'mعวִıi, 'mæıi/ merry, Mary, marry. In addition, / $\mathrm{v} /$ merges into / $\mathrm{v} /$ or $/ \mathrm{o}: /$, gener-
 ['soij] ${ }^{a} /$ 'sbry/ song.

We also find the neutralization of $/ \mathrm{a}: /$ and $/ \mathrm{p} /$ into $[\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{s})$ ], including / $\mathrm{a}: \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{a} /$, with an oscillating phonetic length: [ $\left.a^{\prime}, a^{\prime}, a\right]$. Generally, in monosyllables (or in final-stressed words), we have [a:], when absolutely final or followed by voiced $C$ :
 /'bob, 'nod; 'spaz, bıa:, 'fax!, 'kaụd/ Bob, nod, spa, bra, far, card. However, we have [a], when followed by voiceless C: ['sfap, haf, 'Jak]m.a ['sfap, haf, 'Jak]a/'stop, hot, $\mathfrak{j o k} /$ stop, hot, shock.

In bisyllables (or penultimate-stressed words) we find [ $\mathrm{a}^{\circ}$ ] in intonemes, but [a]

 'hoțə! , 'moli, 'popi, 'dogmo/ farther, father, bother, hotter, Molly, cotton, poppy,



On the contrary, in plurisyllables (or in prepenultimate-stressed words) we have [a]: ['dakjə̃mə̃n†, 'phału†эks, 'dagmə̃†эst, 'khaædэgũn] ${ }^{m . a}$ ['dakjəmənt, 'phalətıks, 'dagməŋıst; khaııqıgun] ${ }^{a} /$ dokjəəmənt, 'polıtıks, 'dogmətıst; 'kax̣dıgən/ document, politics, dogmatist, cardigan.

As can be seen from fig 2.12, the articulation of [ m :] and [a:] is mainly distin-
guished by labialization (which is slight since the two vocoids are low). Thus many speakers can unify them (but, productively \%r perceptively, things are rather complex and oscillating) by also obtaining ['sa`¥i, 'sã:y] ${ }^{\text {m.a }}$ (['sa.ii] ${ }^{a}$ /'so.ıi/ sorry, ['ss:y] ${ }^{a}$ $/$ 'sbry/ song), all the more so because, for / $\mathrm{x} /$, some 〈intermediate > articulations be-
 and ['sor, 'sora] ${ }^{\text {m.a } / \text { /so:/ saw. }}$

Besides, we have $/ \partial /[\varepsilon]^{m \cdot a}(</ \Lambda />)$, 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



fig 2.12. Mediatic American monophthongs.

2.4.2.3. fig 2.13 gives the diphthongs. Let us observe the differences for /ii, aع,


 /'nj̣vu/ new, ['fju•oł]m.a ['fju'ul]a /'fjvuł/ 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 $(+/ 1 /)$, which however can present oscillations depending on words or speakers. In extreme cases, which are not at all rare indeed, we can find: ['fry] m.a both for ['fuł:] /'fił/ fill and ['firıt, 'firt] /'firit/ feel; ['we'ł] m.a both for ['weł:] /'weł/ well and ['wert, 'wett]a /'weił/ wale; ['vałt] m.a both for ['væ'ł]a /'væł/ Val and ['varoł, 'vaołta /'vaəọł/ vowel; also ['forł]m.a both for ['foł:]a /'fuł/ full and ['fu'vł, 'fuvł]a




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 «obligatory> for all speakers $\%$ w words) and that our transcriptions are «normalized〉, let us say that for $/ l(\mathrm{j}) \mathrm{Vl} /$ we have $[\ell(\mathrm{j}) \mathrm{V} 7]$ : $\left[\psi_{\mathrm{m}} \mathrm{f} f\right]$ m.a
 ['nãvł̣ust] ${ }^{\text {m.a }}$ ['navləst]a /'novlist/ novelist.

Besides, /x/ has a uvularized velar rounded articulation, which is darker (or
 /'winə!/ winner. Please note that generally $[\mp]$ exerts on / / / the same retracting and


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 $/(\mathrm{V}) \mathrm{V} /+/ \mathrm{mp}^{H}, n \mathrm{t}^{H}, \eta \mathrm{k}^{H} /$, we very frequently have $[(\tilde{V}) \tilde{V}]+[\mathrm{mp}, \operatorname{m} 2 \mathrm{p}]$ [nt, nPt, n?] [nk, n2 n$]$ (which are too often described simply as «[ṼC]> à la françai-



$/ t /$ behaves as in neutral American pronunciation, but often this use spreads to



The same goes for $/ \mathrm{j} / \rightarrow[\emptyset]$, as seen in new; and it is also possible to have $/ \mathrm{hw} /$ :
fig 2.15. Mediatic American intonation.

［＇wẽn：，＇h－，hw－］m．a［＇wen：；＇h－；hw－］${ }^{a} / \mathrm{hw}$ ．h／when．
There is a tendency to slightly shorten stressed final vowels and diphthongs， which we will only mark here，because they oscillate（by indicating／oi， $\mathrm{a}: /$ as dou－ blings，［VV］${ }^{m . a}$ ，for［V•V］${ }^{a}$ ）：［＇sti］／＇sii／see，［＇†h廿p］／＇tvu／two，［＇dei］／＇dei／day，［＇goo］ ／＇gəv／go，［＇hıs］／hac／high，［＇ñ̃̃̃］／＇nao／now，［＇bos］／＇boc／boy，［＇spaa］／＇spa：／spa， ［＇soon］／＇so：／saw（also［＇soa，＇saa］）．

## «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／＇miłtn＇krinz／，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 ex－ tent－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 compar－ ison with traditional «RP〉（«Received Pronunciation»），which used to be the sym－ bol of the prestigious and expensive－and definitely private－＜Public Schools»， such as Eton，Harrow，and Winchester．«RP〉－／＇ax！＇pri／－is also known as «bbc En－ glish＞，because it was used by the ввс right from the beginning（1927［and televi－ sion，1932］）．But today it can be mainly heard only on international transmissions of the «ввс World Service» radio broadcastings and the «ввс 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＇concep－ tion 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 〈public» people are concerned -as politicians are- the same pronunciation can be defined as «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 $2.16, \mid x, \mathrm{p}, \ldots /$ are higher, $[\varepsilon, \sim, o o]$. The last one is doubled (since it moves upwards slightly), or diphthongized (downwards) when lexeme final, or followed by the $/ \mathrm{z}^{\# \prime}, \mathrm{~d}^{\#} \mid\left[\operatorname{oo\sigma }(\mathrm{d} / \mathrm{z})^{\#}\right]$ grammemes. Also $/ \varepsilon /$ is higher, though remaining within its own box, $\left[\mathrm{E}_{1}\right]$ (to be better distinguished from $/ \mathbb{x} /[\varepsilon]$ ):

 /llazz| laws, ['pho'od] $]^{\text {m.b }}$ ['pho:d] $]^{b} /$ 'psudd/ pored. In the vocogram, the diphthongs due to the vocalization of / $\mathcal{f} /$ are marked in grey: / $\mathrm{I} \neq \varepsilon \not, x \nmid, \wedge \nmid, ~ v \nmid /$. Note the different



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








 that even / $\varepsilon \nsupseteq .1, \varepsilon ə \pm /$ are more often long monophthongs than narrow diphthongs:



Generally, in this accent, for $/ \mathrm{VV} \not /$ sequences we have [ VV , VVal$]$ : ['ssia] ${ }^{\text {m. }}$. .

fig 2.17. Mediatic British $/ V_{2} /$ diphthongs.








2.4.3.4. fig 2.18 shows that there is a more retracted first element for /ii, rit, $\mathrm{a} \varepsilon /$,
 first element is lower and backer for $/ \varepsilon \tau, \supset v /$ (this last one is unrounded too, when

 ement is fronter for /av, vu/, [æo, ъu] (besides, /vul/ is [ $\mathrm{ou}(\hat{\mathrm{q}})]$ ): ['tshæron] ${ }^{\text {m. } b}$




For the diphthongs with front second elements, there are some remarkable triphthongs which derive from the vocalization of $/ \mathrm{t} /$ (and realized with or with-




In (n)either the American-like pronunciation prevails: ['(n)эrða; -as-]m.b ['(n)a9дг; -ii $]$ b. Generally, /i/ is realized as if it were /ri/ (and in the prefix /Cr-/ as well):


 /1عpặd/ leopard.

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 (〔broader», 〈[ $\downarrow\rceil$ ), and the least marked ones (more

 Those who are really interested in them will quite easily manage to draw useful comparisons, even without specific vocograms (however they can be found in English Pronunciationf).
fig 2.18. Mediatic British diphthongs.

fig 2．19．Mediatic British neutralizations．


2．4．3．5．Even for 〈mediatic〉 British English，neutralizations are frequent be－ fore $/ \mathcal{1}$（ although less frequent than in Cockney，the typical and popular－and less educated－dialect and accent of the East End of London）．In fact，cffig 2．19，we of－
 ［＇（h）aro（f）$]^{m . b}$ both for［＇harl］$/$／hæi／Hal and［＇hert］${ }^{b} / \mathrm{herl} /$ hail，and both for

 ［＇foł：］${ }^{b}$／＇foł／full and［＇fu＇vł］${ }^{b}$／＇fvuł／fool（the last one is possible for［＇forv（ $\left.\mathfrak{f}\right)$ ］m．b ［＇fort］b／＇forl／fall too）．（We will deal with［ $\hat{\chi}]$ shortly．）

2．4．3．6．For the consonants，the strong preglottalization of $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{t} /$ must not be forgotten as it practically occurs in all the cases indicated in $\$ 2.2 .6 .1-2 \& \mathbb{}$ 2．2．7．1；in addition，it is important to mention the massive substitution of $/ \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{with}$ ［ R ］，in all the cases indicated in $\$ 2.2 .5 .2$ ；whereas we can say that，generally，［ t ］





 ／＇ta．！̣t／tart，［＇țhestsa，－stsa］m．b［＇†hesfe］b／＇testə！／tester．

The preglottalization of／p， $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$（and of $/ \mathrm{f} /$／as in neutral British English）also occurs between $V$ ，both within words and in sentences：［＇pherpa］${ }^{m . b^{\prime}}$［＇phepe］$b$

 possible variant $/ \mathrm{s} /[\mathrm{s}]$（by further assimilating to the following contoid，which is



 ＇thwenti］／＇pıIṭi，＇twenṭi／pretty，twenty．Even［Иアn］（in addition to［Иアtsən，－n］）：
 ton，Elton，Burton．
 $\mathrm{l}_{\mathrm{n}}$／rolling；this example also shows the oscillation for／ov／before／IV／，under the in－
 occurs: ['phsola] m. ${ }^{\text {['phsole] }}$ / /'poulo! / polar. It is possible to have / $\mathrm{yk} / \mathrm{in}$ : ['sam-


From the examples, one can notice that the most frequent realization of $/ x /$ is not postalveolar rounded ([-] ], as in neutral pronunciation), but (postalveolarized) prevelar rounded ([I], 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, [ $\hat{\imath}$ ], velarized labiodental, [ $\vartheta$ ],





 və!̣'həạd/ I overheard.
2.4.3.7. Our examples have already shown that one of the most evident characteristics, which is socially stigmatized, is the «zero» realization of $/ \mathrm{h} /(\rightarrow[\emptyset])$ : ['(h)a•s] ${ }^{m . b}$ ['ha`s] ${ }^{b} / \mathrm{ha} \mathrm{\varepsilon} /$ high. Consequently, even hypercorrections are frequent, as happens with the name of the letter $h$ (not without a certain «internal» logic):
 quent: ['tshao( $\mathfrak{f}) \mathrm{hım}]^{m . b}$ ['†helım] ${ }^{b} /$ 'tclim/ tell him; equally for the reduced form

 si'عrəə̣n, 'dłæksə̣n/ pronunciation, Jackson.

The sequences / $\mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{dj}, \mathrm{nj} /$ have the peculiarity of typically corresponding to $/ \mathrm{t} \mathrm{f}$,

 Occasionally, $/ \theta$, ð/ can become /f/ and / $/ \mathrm{d}$, 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
 -va] ${ }^{m . b}$ ['meðе $]^{b} / \mathrm{m} \wedge$ дə! $/$ mother.
2.4.3.8. There is nothing to say about $/ 1 /$, while for $/ 1 /$ there is a typical «vocalization» of [ $\ddagger, \nmid$ ] which become [ 0 ] (fig 2.19), after $V$ or $C$, as many examples have already shown (particularly those of the neutralization before $/ \mathcal{1} /$ ). The lateralized velar rounded approximant $[\hat{\jmath}]$ (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 $[ \rceil]$, without lip-rounding, as a kind of halfway compromise.

Here are some examples, to complete the survey: [ $\left.11 \imath \$ \$ 0(\mathfrak{q})]^{m . b}[1 \mathrm{l} \uparrow \ddagger]^{b} / 1 \mathrm{lt}\right\} /$ lit-



 normal kind of prevocalic $l([1])$, and the intense one, again prevocalic: ['novlists, $-\mathrm{sts}]^{m . b}[\text { 'novllist] }]^{b} /$ 'novllist/ novelist.
2.4.3.9. In cases like the following, we often find secondary stresses: ['qikjanE-
 ıi, 'doد.!̣młtaxi/ dictionary, cemetery, dormitory.

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,
 'uglle 'wełf:, ¿d孔-]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 (ınormalized)) 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 be 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



 'лðさ...|







## Neutral British pronunciation



 ðənði'eðе...|







## 〈International» English pronunciation



 ðənði'едәг:.||







## «Mediatic» American pronunciation






 'wõŋઃ•'ge'v 'sp ðiə'†h




## «Mediatic» British pronunciation



〒stdзd "sts.ıəŋgз ðənði'aða..||







## Appendix: further accents

2.6.o. 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 $/ \mathrm{s}$,
 there are peculiar diphthongs with narrow taxophones of $/ \varepsilon ı, \tau v /[\mathrm{II}, \mathrm{ov}]$, and of those of /aع, as/followed by a voiceless $C$ within the word, [e!, $\wedge \mu$ ]: ['ne!t, ' $\Lambda \mu \dagger$ ]


Current and mediatic variants

/'nact, 'ast/ night, out. There are neutral and non-neutral taxophones for many vowels and diphthongs $+/ 1 /$. The neutral ones which change phones are: $/ æ \nmid \Lambda \nmid$, uł;
 tion to a possible insertion of [u] before [ 1 ]. As far as phoneme distribution is concerned, certain words are pronounced with «British» vowel elements, others with «American» 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 /jvu/ for /vu/ (noon, too, do...), due to the fact that, for $/ \mathrm{j} v u /$, careful speakers prefer $/ \mathrm{jvu} /$, after $/ \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} /$. In addition, we find the nasalization of $/ \mathrm{VN}^{\#}, \mathrm{VN}^{\#} /\left[\tilde{\mathrm{V}} \mathrm{N}^{\#}, \tilde{\mathrm{~V}} \mathrm{~N}^{\#}\right]$, even in $/ \mathrm{V}^{\#} \mathrm{~N} /$ (above all for $/ æ /$ ); lastly, for /l/, we have [ lV ], 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 $/ \mathrm{I} /$, we regularly have $/ \partial /$, 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, $\varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, \supset \varepsilon, \mathrm{a}$, $\nu v, ~ v u /$, as can be seen from the respective vocograms (in addition to [ $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{e}]$ for $/ \mathrm{I}$, $\varepsilon /$, since, only in affected pronunciations, can we find $\left[\mathrm{E}_{\perp}\right]$ for $/ \varepsilon /$ ). The diapho-
neme /ִ/ follows British use (although some young Australians, especially females, who live abroad, present a fluctuating and non-neutral use of $[\tau])$. Let us notice (and very well too) the various taxophones $+/ 1 /$.

We systematically find </oulV/> (whereas in Cockney and in mediatic British English minimal pairs occur such as $\langle/ \Lambda \mho \mathrm{lV} /\rangle \neq\langle/ \mathrm{\jmath} \mathrm{lV} /\rangle$, as polar). Occasionally, we can have «/כrə! $/$, , for / for the /ii, $\varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, ~\lrcorner \varepsilon /$ diphthongs, we have [VVł, VVł]; besides, /(V)Vəł/ [(V)Vurt, (V) $\mathrm{V} \ddagger]$, without vocalizations (with $[\nmid, \nmid]$, after phones with labial component).

The diaphoneme /t / has [1] , as in American English. For /C1 ${ }^{\#}$, Cə $\mathrm{l}^{\#} /$, neutral pronunciation has [C1 ${ }_{1}^{\#}$, $\mathrm{Cul}^{\#}$ ]; thus, it has [lVł], without vocalizations (which are present, though, in broad pronunciations). It is possible to hear a non-neutral pronunciation with $/ l /[1]$, for $l+-y$, $-i e$, -ing, -er... (grammemes [or even pseudo-grammemes] added to $/ 1^{\#} /$ ).

Broad accent/«Broad Australian E.>


Affected accent/<Modified Australian E.)


## New Zealand English pronunciation

2.6.3. In addition to the neutral accent, with three vocograms (the first three), we present the mediatic accent (whose centering diphthongs [fourth and fifth vocograms] correspond to the neutral ones) and the broad accent (whose monophthongs [sixth and seventh vocograms] correspond to the mediatic ones, whereas the centering diphthongs are peculiar, including the unification of /عə! , $\varepsilon .1 /$ with



 for /oب̣/ (both </or/>, and «/or/>). The triphthongs are not attenuated into diph-
 Zealand, $\left|\mathfrak{x}^{\prime}, \mathrm{a}\right|=\left|\mathrm{a}:\left|,\left|\mathrm{v}^{\mathrm{r}}, \rho^{\prime}\right|=|\mathrm{v}|,|\mathrm{I}|=\left|\partial, \mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{I}}\right|\right.\right.$ (ie $\left./ \mathrm{I}\right|$ is only an intentional choice);


The most typical characteristic consists in $[9, \mathrm{e}]$ for $/ \mathrm{r}, \varepsilon /$, in neutral pronunciation (but [ $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{l}]$, in the other accents), in addition to the pronunciation of the diphthongs /ri, $\varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon, ~\ulcorner\varepsilon, \mathrm{a}, ~ \supset v, v \mathrm{u} /$ (which is similar to the Australian, mediatic British, and Cockney accents), as can be seen from the respective vocograms. Besides,
 kinds).


Mediatic-accent variants


Broad-accent variants


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

Neutral /I/ is $[\tau]$ (while non-neutral accents can even have $[\mp]$ ); as in British En-

 $\left.\int \dagger_{f} f_{f}\right]$ ). In non-neutral pronunciation, often $/ \mathrm{tj}, \mathrm{dj} / \rightarrow\left[\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}_{3}\right]$.

The neutral accent can have /hw/ [h], still rather extensively used, even in current pronunciation; besides, it has [lVł]; whereas, non-neutral pronunciation has [ fV 1$]$ and also $\left[\mathrm{YV}_{\mathrm{f}^{\#}}, \mathrm{HV}_{\mathrm{f}^{\#}}, \mathrm{HVa}^{\#}\right]$. Except in neutral pronunciation, for the diphthongs /ii, $\varepsilon \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{a} \varepsilon,\lrcorner \varepsilon /$, we find /VV1, $\mathrm{VV} /$ /; unless they are vocalized as $[\mathrm{VVo}]$. For
 Cỗ", Co ${ }^{\#}$; Co $\left.{ }^{\#}\right]$ : milk /'mıłk/ ['mıłk; 'məok; 'mułk; 'muok].

We systematically find </oulV/> (whereas in Cockney and in mediatic British English there are minimal pairs with $\langle/ \Lambda \tau \mathrm{lV} /\rangle \neq\langle/ \mathrm{J} / \mathrm{V} /\rangle$, as in polar). The reader is invited to carefully observe the numerous taxophones $+/ \ell /$, 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




 /as, $\mathrm{a}: / \rightarrow / \mathrm{a}: /$. In addition, non-neutral pronunciation can have, for own, 〈/วvən/» and the diphthonging of $/ \varepsilon, æ /$, particularly frequent for $/ \mathrm{VN}(\mathrm{C}) /$. Currently, women is pronounced like its singular form.
$/ \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t} /$ (and /p, k, tf/) behave as in American English (without glottalization; but, between V, they can behave as in British English, with continuous -non-occlusiverealizations of /p, t, k/). Neutral pronunciation regularly has linking/גִ/, but avoids linking when no etymological /ג/ / 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: /brin/. In cases such as affect, effect and allusion, illusion, above all in
 Frequently [ $3<$ ] 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 ввс up to one or two generations
 guished first elements, [A9, aо, כэ] (and diametrically opposed to the mediatic realizations, [aง, æo, oง]). It has no glottalization of /p, t, k, $\mathrm{f} /$ (not even [ PC ], nor [C̉], with the only possible occurrence of [?] for /t/, before sonants: ['skptlənd, 'skoplənd] Scotland). Let us notice carefully the taxophones of the short vowels and diphthongs with front first elements before $/ 1 /$.

In addition, it has $/ \mathrm{x}^{\dagger+} \mathrm{V} /$ only when it is etymological and spelt as $r$ (in which case, it rather has [\#PV], except in informal or colloquial speech, at times). Besides, «/tj, $\mathrm{dj}, \mathrm{sj}, \mathrm{zj}, \theta \mathrm{j} />$ are highly frequent, as in ['khwestjən, -stfən; 'sjvupı, 'svu-], question, super (with $\left[\int 3, \int j 3 j\right]$ only in colloquial or informal pronunciation, for /kwestfən,



It invariably presents [-ıๆ] /-my/; it has [h, Ø] for $/{ }^{\#}{ }_{o} \mathrm{~h} /$ hotel, and [Ø] in reduced forms with \#h and in -ham\#; /hw/ [w], ['wen:] when; in addition, unstressed my is
$/_{0} \mathrm{mas},{ }_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{mI},{ }_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{m} \partial /$; besides, $\left.\right|_{\mathrm{o}} \varepsilon \mathrm{I},{ }_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{ov} /$ are [ $\left.\mathrm{E}, \mathrm{o}\right]$ before [ $\left.{ }^{[ }\right]$: vacation, november; $/ \mathrm{ov} /$ is [ 0 ] in compounds when it is at the end of the first lexeme (even if separated): win-

 'meว̣土i/ car, more, Mary.

Triphthong attenuation is very frequent (but less than in affected pronuncia-
 /'facəı!, aعın'dzocıt/ 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.


/ov(t)/ [oo, ouł]

/ao/ [ao]




/vuә! / ([ous, oun|] \&) [v:3, v:A|]


|эєə! / ([ээз, ээл|] \&) [эз, э^|]

( \& /a:ə!̣/ [a:з, a:^|])

## 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 $/ \mathrm{I}, v /$, ie $[\mathrm{I}, v]$ (instead of $[\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{o}]$ ); but they are more centralized
 and [๑] for $/ \mathrm{o}^{+\#} \mid /$, as well: ['mas.ŋ९] Mary.

When the phoneme / $/$ / is fully unstressed, it is [ 9 ], as $/ \mathrm{i}^{\#} /$ too (instead of [i]),
 $/ \mathrm{I} /$ is [ $\mathrm{\rho}$ ], as many $/ \partial /$ are, as well.

Besides, $/ \varepsilon, æ /$ are closer $[\mathrm{e}, \varepsilon]$; when $/ \mathrm{r}, \varepsilon, \mathfrak{x} /$ are final, in stressed checked syllables ending in voiced $C$ before a pause, they diphthongize as [ I , ea, $\varepsilon a$ ]: [bıэgْ, 'weab, 'bead] big , web, bad .
/діч, әı; $\Lambda ; \mathrm{a}: /$ are backer, $[\mathrm{si}, \Lambda, \alpha:]$ (and the last one occurs more frequently than in neutral pronunciation); for $\left.a r, ~</ \alpha_{\Lambda} /\right\rangle\left[\alpha_{\Lambda}^{\prime}\right]$ is possible. The diphthongs are considerably narrow and have particular timbres, manly /ii, vu/ [ii, uu] and /as,
 els and for diphthongs with front first elements, there are taxophones requiring different symbols.


It has no glottalization of / $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{t} /$ (ie neither [ PC C , nor [C]]; with the only possible occurrence of [ r ] for $/ \mathrm{t} /$, before sonants: [skbtlənd, 'skoplənd] Scotland); «/t j , $\mathrm{dj}, \mathrm{sj}, \mathrm{zj}, \theta \mathrm{j} />$ are fairly frequent, as in [khwestjən, -stjən; 'sjuup $\wedge$, 'suu-], question, super (with [ $\int_{3}, \mathrm{~S}_{\mathrm{j}}^{\mathrm{j}} \mathrm{]}$ ] only in colloquial or informal pronunciation, for /kwestfon,
 some words, today, but off maintains / $\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{/}$

$\left.{ }^{\prime} \mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{Y}} \mathrm{V}\right]$ in some frequent words: very, terrible, sorry, tomorrow); non-written and non-etymological $/ \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{H}} \mathrm{V} /$ is frequent. Often, the «aspiration $>$ of $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{t} /$ is very weak (contrary to Cockney usage). In addition, it has [ø] for $/{ }^{\#}{ }_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{h} /$ hotel; / $/ \mathrm{hw} /[\mathrm{w}]$, ['wean] when; unstressed $m y$ is $/ \mathrm{mI},{ }_{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{ma} / ; \mid-\mathrm{ov} /$ 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
 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)

2.6.6. Most typically, it is the speech of the working-class of the East End of London, which includes the harbor. The main vocalic characteristics reside in its diphthongs, which we present in the second vocogram, while in the third vocogram we add both the less broad variants ( ${ }^{\circ}$, seven) and the broadest ones ( ${ }^{*}$, two [with grey edges]). Frequently, speakers can fluctuate between these three types:
 is generally 〈described» as 〈[æ̌, a: $\rangle$, is the most narrow diphthong of all), $/ \rho \varepsilon /$ [ou,


For the monophthongs, the most evident characteristics -in addition to some timbres- are contextual diphthongizations. In fact, in the most typical and broad accent, $/ \varepsilon, x, \mathrm{p} /$ occurring in stressed monosyllables in (bi)checked syllables -ie with $/ \mathrm{C}^{\#}, \mathrm{CC}^{\#} /$ - are pronounced $[\mathrm{Et}, \varepsilon э, \tau \sigma]$. For the first two phonemes, this fact is particularly clear with $/ \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{nd}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d} ; \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{ks}, \mathrm{g} /$ (although $/ \mathrm{t} /=[\mathrm{r}]$ ) and with other voiced C (but also with voiceless ones), as in: ['dzধ9dz] /'dæd/ dad (for ['dærd).

Something similar happens to $/ \mathrm{s}(\mathrm{I}) /$, which most typically is [ov] (although in a less broad pronunciation it is [o:]], as in [lown, 'wouza, 'stsoufer] /llan, 'wortạ,
 the less broad one, in all positions, we always find [ o , ov], respectively; instead, in the most typical and broadest, we find [ova], when in word-final position before pauses.

However, in final position, within sentences, or with the grammemes $/ \mathrm{z}^{\#}, \mathrm{~d}^{\#} /$, we have [ovz]: ['pphoua] paw, pore, pour, poor (for ['pho:] /'pэ:, 'pout/, and ['pho:, $-๑^{\circ \mathrm{e}]}$ /'puət, $-\mathrm{ox} /$ for the last one [following the most international phonemic order]); ['pphousz] paws, pores, pours, poor's (for ['pho:z] /'po:z, 'pa:yz/, and ['pho:z, -๑эзz] /'puәąz, -эız/).
$\mid \mathrm{s}: /$ occurs more frequently (and the same is true of traditional and affected pronunciations) than in the neutral accent, especially for / $\mathrm{b} /:$ : ['ouf, kxhlouf, kxh..ous]


 (and often those which are preceded by nasals, too) are nasalized (as is the diph-



| /(j)zu(t)/ |
| :---: |
| $[\mathrm{j})$ วu, (j)ゅロo |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mid \rho \varepsilon(\mathrm{f}) / \\ & {[\mathrm{or}, \mathrm{ogo}]} \end{aligned}$ |
| /ou/ [ro] |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mid \mathrm{ac}(\mathrm{f}) / \\ & {[\mathrm{DE}, \mathrm{D} 3 \mathrm{O}]} \end{aligned}$ |



/аэəı! / [عз, દА|]


$[\mathrm{D} 3, \mathrm{DA} \mid] \&$ [ $\mathrm{Da3}, \mathrm{Dat} \mid]$


/(j)ชәə! / [j)очз, -ou", -ova|, - out $\left._{\mathrm{t}} \mathrm{V}\right]^{*}=/(\mathrm{j})$ دب: $/$
/агә!!/ [A:]* \& [Ab3, ABA|]*
 |аєə.! [ $\mathrm{b} 3, \mathrm{DA} \mid]^{*}$


[(j)оз, (j) o.\#, (j) oal,

thong/ao/, quite often independently from context). For the grammeme /in/ we



 enth vocograms show the broadest variants, whereas the eighth to the tenth vocograms give the least broad variants.





We will now consider, in the last vocogram, the many (and typical) neutralizations of $/ \mathrm{V}(\mathrm{V}) /+/ \mathcal{1} /$, which is vocalized into [ o ] (in broader pronunciations, we find [ $\cup$ ], while in less broad ones, [ou], which we do not mark): /rł, rəł, rił, riə $1 /$
 cent, the diphthong may coincide with /ovlV/ [rolV], when it is lexeme-internal),
 [rolV], exactly as in mediatic pronunciation), /(j) wł, -vəł, -vuł, -vuəł, --xł/ [(j)ou] (for /(j)wł, -wəł, -vuł, -vuəł/, we also find a less broad realization, $[(\mathrm{j}) \text { vu }]^{\circ}$ ).
 [o] (and [u] ${ }^{*},[\mathrm{ov}]^{\circ}$ ); $-e l$, -al and ' $l l$, after vowels, can be slightly lengthened [ $\mathrm{o}^{\circ}, 0 \mathrm{u}^{\circ}$ ]



In the first two vocograms, we have marked in grey also five $V$ and five $V V$, which before $/ \mathbb{1}$ / may not undergo the typical neutralization shown in the last vocogram.


As far as $C$ are concerned, the most typical characteristic refers to $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{t} /$, which are typically preglottalized, $[\mathrm{PC}]$, even [ PC C , in all cases where in the British accent synglottalization is possible ( $f \$ 2.2 .6 .1-2, \$ 2.2 .7 .1$ ), or where in mediatic British English preglottalization occurs ( $f$ $\$$ 2.4.3.6). Even for the phonetic realizations we find some differences. In fact, in the most typical and broadest pronunciations, $/ \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{k} /$ are realized as the corresponding stopstrictives: [ $\mathrm{pp}, \mathrm{ts}, \mathrm{kx}$ ], even «aspirated» (in the normal contexts expected for neutral pronunciation, too): [pph, tsh, kxh] (which can give the impression of stronger «aspiration»). However, the most typical and broad element is the substitution of / $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t} /$ with $[\mathrm{P}]$ in all the cases seen in $\$$ 2.2.5.2, but with further typifying contexts (ie except before a tautosyllabic stressed nucleus, or after pauses, or after $/ \mathrm{s} /$, ['tsh, |tsh, 'sts, sts]]).


 /'pauatnəب!/ partner, ['se






In less broad pronunciations, an incomplete, attenuated stop is possible: [ $[$ ], which is less «invasive); the vocoid preceding [ r ] can even be laryngealized, whereas [ r$]$ can become «zero», especially before another vocoid (adding, however, the creaky phonation type), [VPV $\rightarrow \mathrm{V} \mathrm{V} \rightarrow \mathrm{V}, \mathrm{V} \rightarrow \mathrm{V} \mathrm{V}]:$ [əlıo 'bı ə əbąa $]$. Generally, forms
 even if the latter is actually pronounced in this way; as a matter of fact, in addition to the creaky phonation type, $/ t /$ is often lengthened (at least in an intoneme).

Before $V$ (even if derived from / $\notin /$, and even between words), also a less broad variant, [ I ], is possible (or even [ Pts ] in «elegant» speech, which we do not indicate). It is also possible for [ n ] 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, 'wouta, 'stiõn, 'bdiร̃m, lıno], ['pqhãร̃nาa, -na;
 и ' A Ppp].

Other consonants can become [ r$]$, especially /p, k/: ['stsopm] /'stopiy/ stopping,
 ous example, we have seen that typically /d/ becomes stopstrictive, [dz]; besides, commonly, $/ \mathrm{Vd} /$ is realized as [Vr], when it is word-final and followed by C or V ,
 bread and butter, ['gor 'bo's] /'gud 'bos/ good boy, [ pa 'dquirn(Pts)] /ac'drdnt/ I didn't.

 tions, $/ \theta, \partial /$ become $/ \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v} /$; however, there are many intermediate nuances, including the realizations of normal pronunciation: $[\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v} ; \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{v} ; \mathfrak{\vartheta}, \delta ; \theta, \partial ; \theta, \nearrow]$. More often, /"ð/ can be realized as [ $\emptyset, ~ \rho, ~ d, ~ d]$ : [ıs'\&xs tz'mõãn, $\rho ı s-$, dıs-, dıs-] /ðıs'haวs iz'maen/ 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: [hoụ $\mathrm{Y}(\mathrm{ts})]$ /'itit eat. For /nj̣, ț̣, dj̣/, the typical Cockney pronunciation has no $/ \mathrm{j} /$, but, in less broad pronunciations, mediatic-like types are possible,

 /'djuvuk/duke.

Triphthong attenuation is extremely frequent, even between words, also for
 its intonation patterns correspond to the neutral ones. For (n)either we generally find / i /.

