

* **linguistics** → is the scientific study of human language.

→ If I'm sick for what reason, I can't go to any doctors and saying I'm sick because they are doctors for skin, doctors for blood, doctor for heart, doctor for eyes → let's suppose that language is like human body so we have arms, legs, eyes → the basic parts of any language there are different parts.

* The Basic parts of language:

1) **Phonetics + Phonology**

sounds

when we talk about linguistics, we talk about all languages on the world, so all languages in the world have sounds → It's impossible to find the language without sounds.

2) **Morphology** → morpheme: units of language.

* Example: dis ag re ment s → How many units do I have a disagreements? 4 units.

3) **Lexicon** → vocabulary (words)

All language in the world must have words.

↳ It's possible to find the language without word.

so these words are usually put together in a certain way in syntax.

[5] syntax → the organization of words in the sentence.

* Example: boy the clever. X
↳ The clever boy. ✓

Because we know in syntax in free language in the world must have syntax.

→ In the English language we must have a noun, subject in the beginning, for example:
I teach english

* syntax is the structure of phrases and sentences.

[8] semantics → meaning on the word level or on the phrase level.

the meaning of linguistics is also expanded why?
because when say linguistics we expect answers for any things relates to language.

↳ what part of speech is (in)? preposition
what part of speech is (boy)? noun
what part of speech is (slowly)? adverb.

* languages are human's position, only human beings have languages, but this usually produce language.

→ The meaning of linguistics expanded and we have no feels in linguistics.

Example: Computational linguistics.

computer + linguistics

→ People started asking do animals have a language?
So they started thinking, Animal communications
and human communication.

People started to ask why for example why
do children learn the first language easily? but
we spend years learning the second language
and we still make mistakes.

* First language acquisition.

Second language acquisition.

↳ How you has learners learn language.

* Neuro linguistics language → the new system
in the brain that is responsible for language.
(language and the brain).

→ Pragmatics

and something else very important Part of linguistics
is word formation → How we form new words
in languages.

For example: use the word google, now people
use the word google all the time.

Calls of language (The sounds of language →
Phonetics and Phonology).

→ Phonetics: The study of sounds (How to
read and write sounds).

* Example: School → How many letters are there in
school? 6 letters

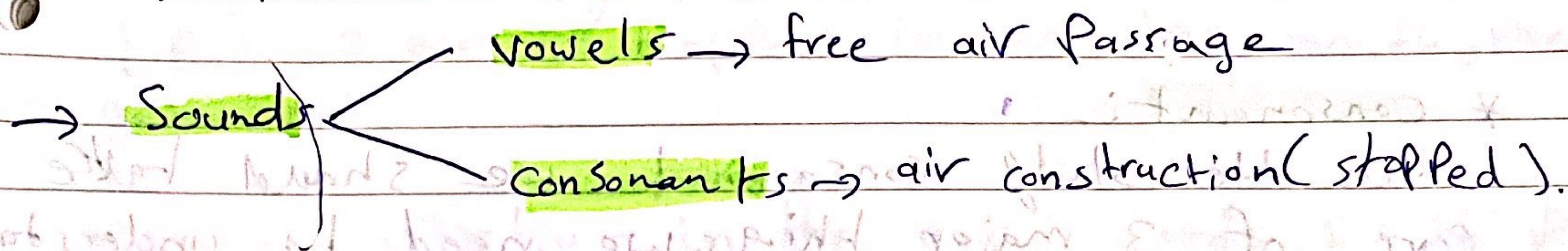
How many sounds in school?

[skul] → 4 sounds.

* which part is responsible for producing sounds?
→ the oral practice (lips, teeth, tongue ---)

Chapter 1 : Phonetics

* **Phonetics** : The study of speech sounds and their physiological production and acoustic qualities. it deals with configurations of the vocal tract used to produce speech sounds (**articulatory phonetics**), the acoustic properties of speech sounds (**acoustic phonetics**) and the manner of combining sounds so as to make syllables, words, sentences.



* **major differences** between vowels and consonants :-

1. In production of consonants there is usually a some kind of **air construction (blockage)**.

Example : [m] → There is blockage.
but if I say [o] → There is no construction.

→ we have 3 major kinds of phonetics :-

1. **articulatory phonetics** (How to produce sounds)

articulate means → speak, and there are certain words we suppose to know.

2. **acoustic phonetics** → physical properties of speech as sound waves, for example: The world is bad → 3 sounds = 3 waves.

3. **auditory phonetics** → hearing (How we hear).

→ The vocal cords take two positions: -
they either open or close, when they **open** (apart) → they produce what is known as **voiceless** sounds, but they are **close** (adjusted) → they produce **voiced** sounds.

* **voiceless** sounds like [f, s]
voiced sounds like [v, z]

* **Consonant**:

when we study consonants we should take care of 3 major things, we need to understand if the sound is voiceless or voiced:

- 1- state of the vocal folds.
- 2- places of articulation (where the sound is produced)
- 3- manners of articulation (the way).

* **Place of articulation**:

1- **Bilabials** → (Bi = two) **labials** = **upper and lower lips**, the sounds we produce with two lips like [p, b, m, w]

→ [p] which is **voiceless**

[b] which is **voiced**.

The two lips in production of [p, b, m] come together

→ In production of [m, w] we have a **air constriction** (the air is completely **trapped**).

[p, b]: oral sounds

[m, w]: nasal sounds.

→ The velum moves up and down as it moves up and down it moves with the uvula.
In the production of [m] does the production in [b, p]

→ In production in [p, b] the two lips come together and the same time the air is escape from nasal cavity, but no air comes from nasal cavity so the soft palate is goes up.
[p] → air is trapped inside the mouth, then goes out

* Various vibration in the vocal cords, is it p or B? If we have vibration → [B] because [B] is voiced.

[N] → Does air escape for any place?
No, the air escape from the nose

[w] → the sound is up.

2- labiodentals: upper teeth and the lower lip.

[F] which is voiceless.

[v] which is voiced.

↳ The soft palate is up.

* Note: Every time we close the nostrils and the sound is not affected then it is oral sounds → so the velum is up.

3. **Dentals**: tongue tip behind the upper front teeth.

→ we have two dental sounds

th ← **thin** (voiceless) θ

then (voiced) ð

[θ, ð]

4. **Alveolars**: The front part of the tongue.

[t, d, l, s, z, n, r]

t: in production of (t) → Does air escape for any place? NO, so there is complete closure in the oral cavity and nasal cavity like sounds [p, b]

→ The tip of the tongue is only **alveolar ridge** and the same time the tongue **side** are in contact in the upper teeth.

* in production in [t, d] → **The velum is up**, because if the velum is down the air would escape from the nose.

[t]: voiceless

[d]: voiced (vibration)

[l] → the difference between [l] and [t, d]

the sides are not closed → in production of [l] the tongue sides are **down**.

note: Because **air escape from two sides**, in the English language we call it **(the lateral sound)**
[l] → is the lateral sound (it is the only lateral sound in English, why is the lateral sound?)

[L]: which is voiced, the velum is up.

[N]: The tip of the tongue is only alveolar ridge and the tongue sides are in to touch with the teeth, in the production of (N) the Velum is down so the air escapes from the nose (nasal cavity).

→ [t, d, N, L]: The tip of the tongue is on the alveolar ridge and there are differences

[N]: voiced.

[s, z]: we haven't a complete closure

Because the air escapes and pushed out

[z], [s]: in the production of (s) there is a narrow passage, the soft Palate should be up.

[s]: voiceless

[z]: voiced.

[r] → in American English is usually rounded (like read, ride...)

we are in the same area (the Alveolar ridge), the tongue turns up and down.

[r]: voiced → the soft Palate should be up.

S-Palatals: The Palatal sounds should be produced in Palatal area (hard Palate), the Palatal sounds are:

ʃ ʒ tʃ dʒ j

① ∫ → Examples: machine → [məʃɪn]
she → ʃi

→ shoes, ocean.

∫ → sh. (voiceless)

② ʒ → G, Examples: major, decision
decision → [dɪsɪʒən]

note: ʒ: this sound does not occur at the beginning of any English word so for example it is not George, this sound occurs at the middle and the end but never at the beginning.

→ How these sounds are produced?

These sounds are Palatal Sounds, so the front of the tongue goes up very close to the hard Palate and this is a narrow passage. The air escapes from this very narrow passage so we have distortion (oral vowels).

* What is the difference between ∫ and ʒ?

∫ → is voiceless
ʒ → is voiced.

→ should the velars (the soft Palate) UP or down?

The soft palate is UP because on oral sound

③ tʃ → Examples: Chair, church, Change, Child, choice

* tʃ is only on upper half

→ we have two tongue movements, (or two tongue gestures), the first movement is for the (t) and the second movement is for the (ʃ) → but we see (one sound) and it is a voiceless sound

* what happens in production of tʃ?

First sound is (t) → the tongue is on the alveolar ridge → then the tongue goes back and produces ʃ. Takes a movement from t then moves to ʃ

④ dʒ → Examples: Judge, age, wages, joke

* what is the difference between tʃ and dʒ?
dʒ → voiced but tʃ → voiceless

* The velum should be UP (oral sounds)

⑤ j → A → Examples: east → yeast, ear → year

o → you → different sounds

s → yes

They all produce in this way, but the difference is in production of [A]

* How to produce [A] ?

it is a palatal sound still, but the difference in production of (A) → the space is break (there is a free passage) and still in palatal area.

6-velars: the back of the tongue is in touch with the velum (soft palate).

[k, g, ŋ]

ŋ → n + g → learning studying.

note: ŋ → at the end of the words

k: is voiceless

g: is voiced

→ what is the difference between k, g as one part and ŋ on other part?

Answer: we have vibration and friction.

How is ŋ produced?

→ when the velum is down.

* The soft palate moves and as it moves it takes the uvula up and down with it.

→ The difference between n, ŋ is:

n: it is an alveolar sound (The tip of the tongue is only in alveolar ridge)

ŋ: the back of the tongue

7. **Glottal**: The glottis is the space between the vocal folds/cords in the larynx, and the glottal sound in English is [h].

There is a friction between the glottals and the air that comes out from the lungs.

[h] is voiceless.

* **manner of articulation** (How we produce sounds):

1. **stop sounds**: in production of the stop sounds we have a complete air constriction (blockage).

↳ The stop sounds are: [p, b, t, d, k, g, ʔ] and we also called them (plosives) because when we produced them the air rushes out like a plosion.

2. **Fricatives**: fricative sounds where there is a narrow passage from which air escapes.

↳ The fricative sounds are: [f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, h]

3. **Affricates**: occur at the beginning

of the words cheap and jeep.

The affricate sounds are: [tʃ, dʒ]

↳ How many gestures are there in introduction of sh and g? 2 movements

4. **Nasal**: most sounds produced orally with the velum raised, preventing airflow from entering the nasal cavity.

The nasal sounds are: [m, n, ŋ]

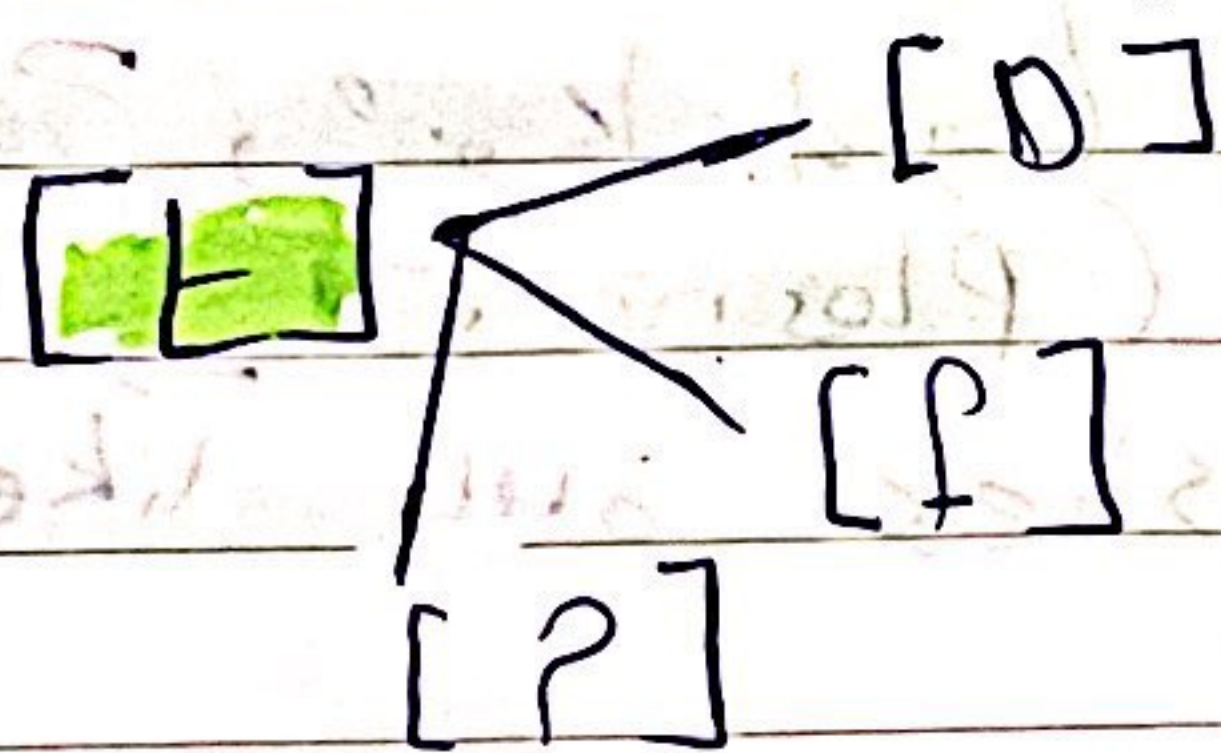
5. Liquids: [l, r] → they are both voiced.
l → lateral sound (lateral = side).

6. Glides: [w, j] → they are both voiced
* Glides + liquid → Approximant

7. Glottal: [h, ʔ]

8. Fricatives: [d, t]

* In the English language the [t] sound can be produced in different ways.



Examples: that → [ʔæt], [dæt], [ðæt]

[ʔæt] → these sounds are representation of what other sounds of [t].

→ So these 3 sounds d, f, ʔ represent the [t] sound.
if I want to write the word (rat), which r should I use?

[r] → liquid because it is original.

* Describe the sounds:

1. [p]: voiceless, bilabial, stop.

2. [g]: voiced, velar, stop.

3- [θ] : voiceless, dental, fricative.

4- [tʃ] : voiceless, Affricate, Palatal.

5- [n] : voiced, alveolar, nasal

6- [l] : voiced, alveolar, liquid (alveolar liquid)

7- [r] : voiced, alveolar, liquid.

8- [w] : voiced, bilabials, Glide.

9- [D] : voiced, alveolar, stop, Flap.

10- [d] : voiced, alveolar, stop.

11- [p] : voiceless, Glottal, stop.

* Vowels :

When we study vowels, we take into consideration 3 points:

1. tongue height (How height the tongue is)

2. tongue position (what position is the tongue in)

3. lips shape

fronte ———> back.
 centre

→ we have two types of vowels:

1. monophthongs : mono → one

↳ we have one tongue height, one tongue position, one lips shape.

2. Diphthongs : Di → two

↳ two tongue height, two tongue position, two shape.

* monophthongs :

1. /i/ → examples : seat, dead, beat, eat, we

seat : [sit]

she : [ʃi]

2- /ɪ/ → examples: sit, bin, did
did: [dɪd]

3- /ɛ/ → examples: Set, dead, Ben, said, bed
dead: [dɛd] said: [sɛd]

4- /æ/ → examples: sat, dad, ban, fat, hat
dad: [dæd] rat: [ræt]

5- /o:/ → Examples: father, heart, Part

6- /ɔ/ → Examples: door, four, born, caught
caught: [kɔt] four: [fɔr]

7- /ʊ/ → put, should, foot
should: [ʃʊd] could: [kʊd]

8- /u/ → Examples: do, fruit, move, you, food.

fruit: [fruɪt] move: [muv]

you: [ju]

9. /t/ → Examples: Cut, blood, but, tongue.

cut: [knt] tongue: [tʌ]

10 /ə/ → about, above, over (very short vowel)
very short vowels, and we call it schwa.

oven: $\boxed{3 \text{ van}}$

y in the english language always every time you see:

er } → at the ends of words.
or
ar

Teacher: [tit for tat]

sailor [se Ildr]

rektangular: [rektsejguld]

That: $[2 \ 2 \ 1]$

* note: $n+g < 5$ ← end suffix

→ which sound we use: -

1 finger: I

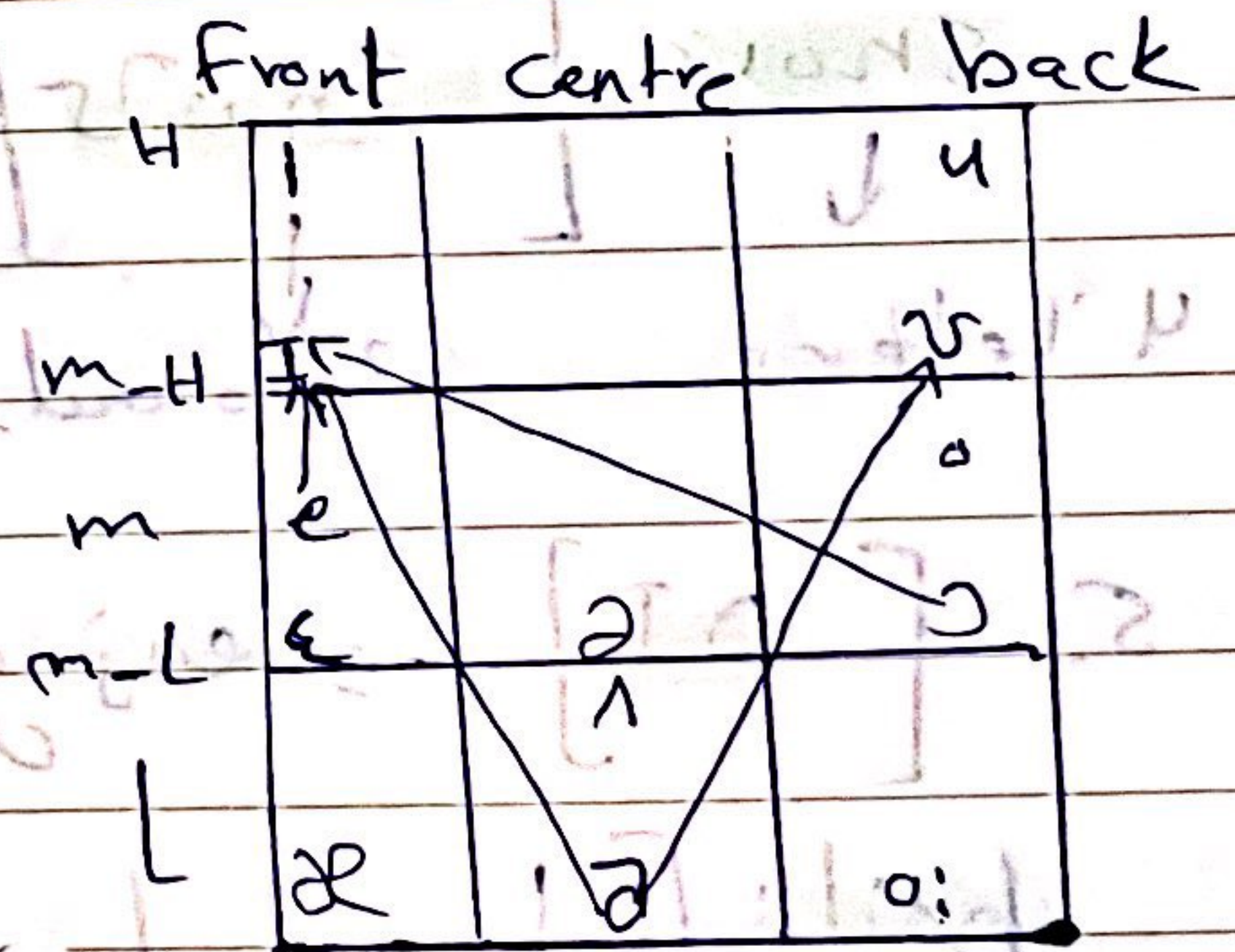
2-teeth: i

3 skin: I

4-key: i

5- Speak: i

6- leg: 2



* **Diphthongs** :-

1- **[ɔɪ]** → Examples: buy, try, high, fight, write
fight: **[fɔɪt]**

2- **[aʊ]** → now, out, how, route.

how: **[haʊ]** outside: **[aʊtsaɪd]**

3- **[eɪ]** → day, say, late

day: **[deɪ]** late: **[leɪt]**

4- **[oʊ]** → snow, stone, go, Code

snow: **[snoʊ]**
↓ ↓
4 letters 3 sounds

5- **[ɔɪ]** → enjoy, oil, boil, noise.

boil: **[boɪl]** noise: **[nɔɪz]**

* subtle individual variation:-

↳ this section is about variation (different accents)

English has different accents like class → us → k'læs
→ uk → k'lɑ:

* Study questions : 37

Q1 what is the difference between acoustic phonetics and articulatory phonetics?

articulatory Phonetics: How sound is produced.

acoustic phonetics: physical properties of speech as sound waves.

② which end with voiced sounds (+v) and which words end with voiceless sounds (-v) ?

1-bang: [bæŋ] → voiced

2. Crash: [kræʃ] → voiceless.

3-ding: [dɪŋ] → voiced.

4_Fizz : [Fɪz] → voiced.

s- rap: [ræp] → voiceless

6. smack: [smæʔk] → voiceless

7_splat : [splat] \rightarrow voices,

8- thud : [θʌd] → voiced

9- wham : [wɒm] → Voiced

[3] Try to Pronounce the initial sounds of the following words and identify the place of articulation:-

1- Calf : [kɒf] → velar [k]

2- Chin : [tʃɪn] → Palatales [tʃ]

3- foot : [fʊt] → labiodental [f]

4- groin : [grɔɪn] → velar [g]

5- hand : [hænd] → glottal [h]

6- knee : [ni] → Alveolar [n]

7- mouth : [maʊθ] → bilabials [m]

8- Pelvis : [pɛlvɪs] → bilabials [p]

9- Shoulder : [ʃɔʊldər] → Palates [ʃ]

10- Stomach : [stʌmək] → Alveolar [s]

11- thigh : [θaɪ] → dental [θ]

12- toe : [toʊ] → alveolar [t]

④ identify the manner of articulation of initial sounds

1. Cheery: [tʃiri] → Affricate

2. Crazy: [kreɪzi] → stop

3. dizzy: [dɪzi] → stop

4. funny: [fʌni] → fricative

5. Joly: [dʒɔli] → Affricate

6. loony: [lu:ni] → liquid

7. merry: [mɛri] → Nasal

8. silly: [sɪli] → fricative

9. wimpy: [wɪmpɪ] → glide

⑤ which written english words are usually pronounced

1. [baɪk] : bike

2. [bɔt] : bought

3. [endʒɔi] : enjoy

4. [feɪs] : face

5. [haʊl] : hawl.

6. [hoʊs pɪŋ] : hoping

7. [hu] : who

8. [klaʊk] : cloak

9. [maɪn] : main

10. [kju] : queue or Queue →

11. [tʃi:p] : cheap.

12. [θə] : the

6 using symbols introduced in this chapter, write basic phonetic transcription of the most common pronunciation! —

1. catch : [kætʃ]

2. doubt : [daʊt]

3. gem : [dʒɛm]

4. measure : [mɛʒər]

5. noise : [nɔɪz]

6. phone : [fəʊn]

7- shy : [ʃɔɪ]

8- these: [ði:z]

9- thought : [θɔt]

10- tough: [tʌf]

11- would: [wʊd]

12- wring: [rɪŋ]

Examples:

1- sun, son : [sʌn]

2- bought: [bɔt]

3- boat: [bəʊt]

4- Cold : [kɔld]

5- called: [kɔld]

6- caught: [kɔt]

Chapter 2: Phonology

* **Phonology**: The study of **sound patterns**. It is the study of the **organization of sound** in language.

↳ Some sounds in different languages of the world can have **different patterns (forms)**.

↳ Phonology in general looks into **variation (differences in speech)** and some sounds in the different language in the world may have a **different representations (forms)**.

Example: The sound **[t]** can be **[t]**, **[d]**, **[ʈ]**, **[ʈʰ]**.

* In the English language when we have a **voiceless stop sounds** → **[p]**, **[k]**, **[t]** → when they **come** at the **beginning** of the word and there is a **vowel** after them, like: Pen, tan, cake.

Pen: [pen], tan: [tæn], cake: [keɪk]

↳ we usually add **aspiration** which is a **small puff of air** like the **[h]**, only in this **three sounds**.

* We call this small symbol → **diacritic symbol**.

so we use diacritic symbols which indicates aspiration in the English language sometimes when **[t]** comes at the **beginning** of the word and it is followed by vowel the **[t]** has **aspirated** like cake, two, city.

two: [tu̥] , city: [sɪdɪ̥] or [sɪtɪ̥]

that: [ðæt̪] or [ðæt̪ʰ], kitten: [kɪtən̪] or [kɪpən̪]

↳ the **[t]** sound has **different patterns/sound**.

but these different sound all means **[t]**.

Phonology: it is the mental knowledge of sounds.
↳ mental knowledge means: if we hear somebody saying I live in the city → my mind takes me to [t] (in mind).

* The study of organization of sounds in language: all languages have sounds, but we are not free to put these sounds together.

↳ Example: romoing → [romɔɪŋ] → this word is not English. (this is a diphthong).

note: [ɪɔ] → this sound does not occur at the beginning of any English word.

in English language it is impossible to find any diphthongs before [ŋ]

2. **Phoneme**: is a sound, but this sound creates a difference in meaning when changed, so Phoneme is (distinguishing) sound or distinctive.

Example: rat [ræt] if I change the k to c → Cat [kæt]

↳ Does the word rat mean Cat? No, so we change the sound the meaning changes → this phoneme is (distinguishing sound).

How many phonemes do we have in rat: 3 sounds because everyone of them is a phoneme.

Example: rang: [ræŋ], root: [ru:t]

↳ so we change [æ] to [u] → when we change the sound, the meaning changes (phoneme)

3. **allophone**: is a different pronunciations for the same phoneme.

Example: [t], can be aspirated [d], [ʔ], [ɾ].

So if we change [t] to [d] like city → [ɹɪti], [ɹɪdi]

or that → [ðæt], [ðæd] → the meaning does not

change, so the allophone is not distinguish.

↳ why does not change? we go to mental knowledge
my mind tells me in english language the [t]

Can be d, ɾ, ʔ.

(allophones are sounds that are not distinguishing.

phone: is a **unanalyzed** sound. (this sound can

be a phoneme and can be an allophone

↳ if we hear the sound [d], this sound can be
an actual sound like dead [dɛd] or can be an
[d] in the word [ɹɪdi].

we describe phoneme, for example: [t] → voiceless,

alveolar, stop → we can describe this sound in

(**Binary features**) → [t]: - voice/voiced, alveolar, stop.

↓
+ so if I say + bilabial (incorrect) because

is not bilabial, it is alveolar, or if I change stop

to + fricative → (incorrect) but - fricative is correct
(stop).

Example 2: [i] → + front, - high (incorrect).

[i]: + front, + high (correct).

X. Phonemes in relation to allophones:

1. **aspiration** [ʰ] → we call aspiration as a symbol diacritics

2. **dental articulation**: [n̪].

↳ Example: ten [t̪ɛn] → **alveolar** sound:

tenth: [t̪ɛnθ]

↳ **dental**

leni: [t^hɛn] }
tenth: [tɛnθ] } → what is the relationship between t^hɛn(n)?

They are **allophone** (different pronunciations for the same sound)

what should we have for the [t] because it is followed by vowel → we have **aspiration**.

→ **allophone**.

Example: **well**: [wɛl] → Alveolar.

width: [wɛlθ] → dental articulation.

should we have aspiration for [w]? No, because it is **not a stop sound**. (Only p, t, k).

wide: [waɪd] → alveolar.

width: [waɪdθ] → dental articulation.

↳ what is the relationship between [waɪd]?

Allophone.

3 **vowel nasalization**: [̃]

↳ Examples: **van**: [vɑ̃n]

room: [rū̃m]

ring: [rɪ̃ŋ]

in this examples we have nasal sounds [n], [m], [ŋ]

↳ what come precede them? **vowels**.

note: all vowels are oral, but when we have a **vowel precede the nasal sound** → the vowel becomes **nasalized**.

van: [vɑ̃n]

t: [dɛt] } They are (**allophone**)

room: [rʊm]
low: [lə] } allophone.

* when we talk about dental articulation sometimes we have dental articulation not necessarily in the same word, for example: in the: [ɪnðə]

4. minimal pairs: two words that are identical in everything but they differ in one sound.

↳ Example: two, tree → when we change the [w] the meaning changes.

Pray, bray → minimal pair.

minimal set: more than two words that are identical in everything but different in one sound.

like for example: rat, hat, cat, set, bat, fat.

5. Phonotactics: is permitted/accepted/allowed organization of sounds in any language.

↳ for example: [ʒ] does not occur at the beginning

[h]: never occur at the end

Example: frɪg → not an English word.

* Phonotactics is a field in linguistics that looks into how we organized sounds.

↳ what sound acceptable but not is English word.
f + s: fsar.

Example: in English if we have any word that has three consonants at the beginning of any english word → these three consonants have to be (s, p, t, k) or approximants (l, r, w, j)

→ splash, spray, strong, street, strong, strange — if we find the word for Example:

blash → is not acceptable because the first is not [s]

smash → is not acceptable because the second one should be a voiceless stop.

* **Phonotactics**: what is acceptable^①, what is not^② acceptable in the organisation of putting the sound together.

Syllables: must contain a vowel or vowel like sound, including diphthongs / either word or part of word.

Example: Cat: 1 syllable.

Cheap: 1 syllable.

Table: 2 syllables.

Computer: 3 syllables.

Come: 1 syllable.

→ syllables are usually provided into 3 parts

1. syllable.

2. onset (beginning).

3. rhyme.

if we have the word Cat/cheap.

cat: [kæt] 1 syllable. open syllable.
table: [teɪbəl] 2 syllables → (does not have coda).
important: [ɪmˈpɔːtnt] 3 syllables → the first syllable is not have onset, the second syllable has rhyme
brands: [brændz] 1 syllable,
Note: If we have 1 vowel this means we have only one syllable.

eye: [aɪ]. 1 syllable.

↳ A syllable usually consist of 3 parts but it does not mean that we should have a 3 parts all the time. Sometimes we have them, sometimes we don't have onset, sometimes we don't have a coda, but we must have nucleus. (vowels).

* For example: In: [ɪn] → don't have onset
to: [təʊ] → don't have a coda. (aspiration)

* Two kinds of syllables:

1. open syllable: doesn't have coda, Example: tea: [tiː]

to: [təʊ] → End with vowels

2. closed syllable: any syllables has coda, Example:

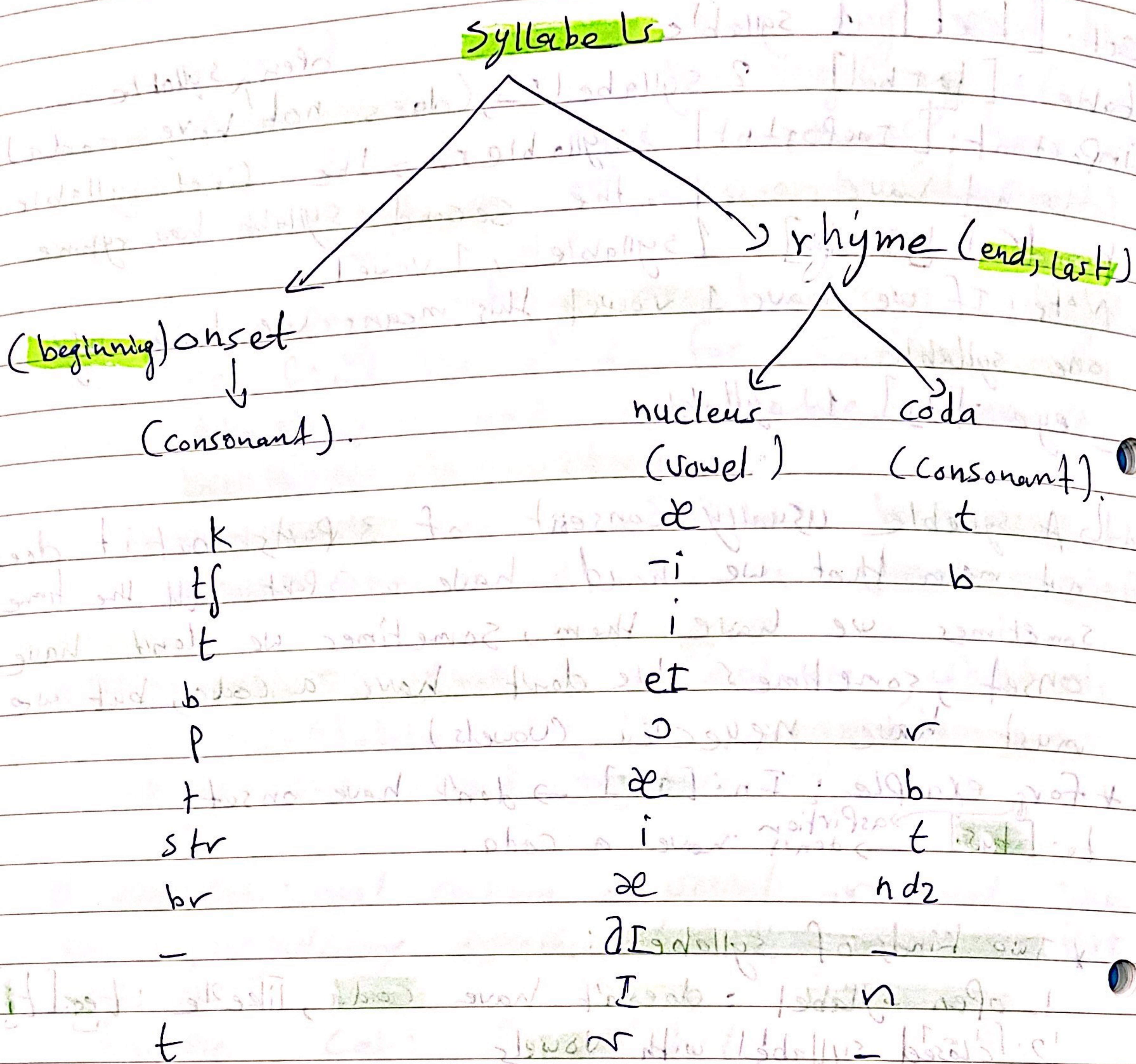
cat: [kæt] → end with consonant.

table: [teɪbəl] → closed syllable

important: [ɪmˈpɔːtnt] → closed

Note: we can delete the onset and coda, but nucleus must never be deleted.

↳ The nucleus and coda are called (rhyme).



*Consonant Clusters:

cluster: include consonant and vowels.

clusters: [kɪnstɔrz] → How many syllables? 2 syllables
 Articulation: 6 syllables.

[kɪnstɔrz] → Are the 2 syllables in clusters closed or open, closed syllable.

why is the d become t? affected by d
How does affected? we articulate 2 different
sounds in one way.

[d]: voiced
[t]: voiceless

→ the [t] affected [d] so [d] is voiced becomes
[t] voiceless, so both of them become voiceless

Example: I have to go.

[hæv t̥gə]
 ↓ ↓
 voiced voiceless

[hæf t̥gə]

so the [t] affects the v and the v becomes
voiceless.

[t̪n] → place of articulation is (alveolar.)
[t̪n̥] → place of articulation is (dental.)

→ so both of them become dental, we have
different sounds that become similar → they
have the same thing (coarticulation).

Example: I can go

[aɪ kæn goʊ] → [aɪ k̪æŋ goʊ]
 ↓ ↓
 alveolar stop (velar)

The [g] affects the [n] and the [n] becomes [ŋ]

Can: [kæn]

↳ what happens to the vowel if it is followed by a nasal sound?

it becomes a nasalized vowel (vowel nasalization)

[u]: is a rounded vowel.

[t]: is not rounded.

Coarticulation effects have 2 kinds:-

1. Assimilation: melting (becoming one) → two different things become together and then we have one thing.

2. Elision: deletion → in the English language

sometimes as we speak we delete sounds.

↳ Example ①: you and I

[jənd]
[æn]

Example ②: twenty → [twɛn ti] or [twɛn i] delete t
→ this deletion called coarticulation.

Example ③: friendship is [frɛnʃɪp] → delete d (consonant)
must be: [mʌs bi] or [mʌst bi]

family: [fæmli] → delete a (vowel).

Rule: in the English language we often delete [t, d] when they are between 2 consonants like friendship, first floor, already.

→ so in elision we delete consonant and vowel.

* Normal Speech: -

Normal speech is any kind of speech which usually has assimilation and elision so it is very normal to hear people deleting sounds and assimilating sounds.

* Study Questions: -

1- what is the difference between a Phoneme and an allophone?

Phoneme: it is a sound that creates a difference in meaning when change (distinguishing sound) like kill, cool.

allophone: is a different pronunciation for the same phoneme.

2- what is an aspirated sound and which of the following words would normally be pronounced with one: kill, pool, skill, spool, stop, top?

^hkill, ^hpool, ^htop

3- which of the following words would be treated as minimal pairs?

ban, fat, pit, bell, take, heat, meal, more, pat, tap, pen, chain, vote, bet, far, bun, goat, heel, sane, tale, vet.

Answer: fat, Pat.

note, goat.

heat, meal.

vet, bet.

bet, vet.

chain, sane

ban, fat

bun, ban.

cape, tale.

4- what is meant by the phonotactics of a language

Phonotactics: the allowed organization of sounds.

5- what is the difference between an open and closed syllable?

open syllable: does not have the coda at the end

closed syllable: does have the coda at the end

and the coda is a consonant like: -up

6- which segment in the pronunciation of the following words are most likely to be affected by elision?

1- government 2- Postman 3- Pumpkin 4- sandwich

- victory.

answer: government → the [n] is deleted.

pumpkin: Pumkin → the [p] is deleted.

sandwich: Sanwish → the [d] is deleted.

victory: victry → the vowel is deleted.