Lecture Ten

1- We have been dealing, thus, with **phonetics**, **that is with the study of human speech sounds .**

2- **Phonology is to do with something more than properties of human speech sounds per se. phonology is the study of certain sorts of mental organization**. So, **phonology** is **essentially the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language**.

3- The range of places within a word which a given sound may occur in is called its **distribution**. In the English data we have looked at, the **distribution of unaspirated and aspirated stops is mutually exclusive**: where you get one kind of **stops**, you never get the other. This is called **complementary distribution**.

4- English native speakers know that the sequence of segments [bl^g], is an English sequence, whereas the sequence of segments [tl^g] is not, despite the fact that she or he may will never have heard either sequence in her or his life. Let us postulate that, in making such judgments, the native speaker of English gains access to a **kind of unconscious knowledge which constitutes 'the phonology of English .'**

5- The discipline of phonology, under this view, differs from that of phonetics, since it is the study, not of speech sounds per se, **but of mental abilities and largely unconscious mental states .**

6- The /p/ in pool, and the /t/ in top, and the /k/ in killing, **are aspirated.** While the /p/,/ t/, and k/ in spurt, stop and scold, **are unaspirated** .

Furthermore, the **aspirated and the unaspirtaed** /t/ are phonetically similar: both are **stops**, both are **voiceless**, both are **alveolar**. What we want to say is that, while they are phonetically distinct, they are phonologically equivalent. That is, the two types of stops correspond to, are interpreted as belonging to, say a single mental category. We will refer to such a category as a **phoneme** .

So whether the p is **aspirated** or **unaspirated**, it is **one phoneme** .

Thus, each one of these meaning-distinguishing sounds in a language is described as a phoneme. If we change a phoneme and we replace it in the same place, this leads to change the meaning. For example, car. If we replace the /r/ by /t/ we will have a new word, cat, which has a different meaning .

Lecture Eleven

1- **The relation between phonemes and their associated phonetic segments is one of realization**, so that the phoneme /p/, for instance, is **realized** as [p] **after a voiceless alveolar fricative** (example: spurt), and as aspirated [p] elsewhere (example: pool)

2- Realizations of a phoneme which are entirely predictable from the context are **called its allophones**. So we say that the aspirated /p/ and the unaspirtaed /p are **allophones of the /p/ phoneme**.

3- **In other languages, such as Korean, the distribution of aspirated and unaspirated voiceless stops is overlapping**: there is at least one place in which either type of sound may occur. This kind of distribution is referred to as **parallel distribution**.

4- **Pairs of words which differ with respect to only one sound are called minimal pairs**. So, sit and sat are **minimal par**. Minimal set **if there are more than two words**. So, sit, sat, set are minimal set.

5- **The distinction between aspirated and unaspirated voiceless stops is phonemic in Korean** and **allophonic in English**.

The phonemic principle:

1- **Two or more sounds are realizations of the same phoneme if**:

(a) **they are in complementary distribution**

and

(b) **they are phonetically similar**

2- two or more sounds are realizations of different phonemes if:

(a) they are in parallel (**overlapping**) distribution

and

(b) they serve to signal a **semantic contrast**.

Lecture Twelve

1-last time we talked about a phonological process **called assimilation**. When two sound segments occur in sequence some aspect of one segment is taken or copied by the other, the process is known as Assimilation. For example, as a result of this process the vowel /ee/ in the word seen, becomes **nasalized** as a result of its being followed by the nasal sound /n/ We have another process called elision.

the process of not pronouncing a sound segment that might be presented in the deliberately careful pronunciation of a word in isolation is described elision. For example, there is typically no [d] sound included in the everyday pronunciation of a word like *friendship* [frɛnʃɪp].

2-Morphemes are a kind of **mental representation** which have **three properties**: a **syntactic category**, a **meaning** and a **phonological form**. For example, a native speaker knows that a word like **cats** has two morphemes: a root morpheme and a plural morpheme (**which, in this case, is a suffix**).the **morpheme** takes the form of a triple: **a syntax**, a **semantics** and a **phonology**. **Syntax (it is a noun-cat)**, **semantics (it means cat)**, and **phonology, which takes the form /kæt/;** we will refer to this as the phonological form of the morpheme.

Just as phonemes are mental objects, so the phonological form of this morpheme is a mental object: /kæt/; is a mental representation in the mind of a speaker, whereas the sequence [kæt] is a **phonetic sequence.**

3-The **phonological form** of a morpheme may, clearly **consist of more than one phoneme.**

4-The phonological form of a morpheme is present in the speaker's mentally constituted grammar, and that this phonological form consists in either a single phonological segment or a sequence of such segments.

5-The phonological units or categories we have called phonemes are part of phonological knowledge.

Lecture Thirteen

English Syllable structure

The two main constituents within a syllable are the **onset** and the **rhyme**.

In the word bile, for instance, **the first segment**, /b/, constitutes **the onset** of the syllable and the **last two segments**, /ai/ and /l/, taken together, constitute **the rhyme**. **The onset** is defined **as any and all consonants occurring before the vowel**. **The rhyme** may be further subdivided into the constituents nucleus and coda . Thus, the word bile, the diphthong /ai/ constitutes the nucleus, and the consonant /l/ constitutes the coda.

A syllable such as this, which contains **one or more consonants in coda position, is called a closed syllable**, whereas syllable which does not contain any consonants in coda position is refered to as an **open syllable;** as in the word buy.

While a syllable must have a nucleus, it is possible to have a well-formed syllable which does not contain any element other than a nucleus.

The segment occupying the nucleus of the syllable **is normally a vowel**.

-an example of a word in English consisting of **only one syllable**, which in turn contains only a **nucleus**, is eye: /aI/.

-**but the nucleus** in English may be preceded or followed by other segments, as we have seen, and those segments are typically **consonants** .

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morphemes like bile, which contain **only one syllable**, are said to be **monosyllabic**. But in English, morphemes may contain **more than one syllable**: they may be **polysyllabic**. Examples are rider, beetle, amount, desire .

In English onsets may contain **two segments** (as in bring, trap, clip, etc.); we will refer to these as **branching onsets** .

-just as onset may be **branching**, so **codas** may **branch**, as in the word hunt .

-Thus, English syllable can be like: cvc (ham), v (I), cv (do), ccvc (green) vcc (eggs), vcc (and), vc (am)

These are examples of English consonant phonemes

1- /tʃ/ Chew, chit, rich

2- / ʤ/ Gin, ridge

3- /θ/ Thigh, thin,

4- /ð/, Then, that,

5- /ʃ/ Shy, ship, leash

6- /ʒ/ Measure

7- /j/ Year

8- /ŋ/. Sing, ring

The end

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Done by: trook8