# **English Phonetics English Sonorants**

- we can divide English consonants into two subgroups, obstruents and sonorants
- obstruents are consonants that are formed by obstructing the airflow, causing increased air pressure in the vocal tract
- sonorants involve no turbulent airflow in the vocal tract
- the English sonorant consonants include the nasals, liquids, and • approximants

### **Nasal Stops**

- nasals involve a closure in the oral cavity •
- lowering of the velum to allow air to pass through the nasal cavity
- since they interrupt the flow of air in the oral cavity, they are often referred to as `nasal stops' •
- not considered plosives
- there are three main English nasal stops: the bilabial nasal [m], alveolar nasal [n], and velar nasal [n] •
- other nasal consonants may arise due to assimilation to • adjacent consonants
- the nasal in the words emphasis or invite is often closer to a • Frequency (Hz) labiodental nasal [m], since it anticipates the following labiodental fricative [f] or [v]

### **Acoustic Correlates of Nasals**

- nasals involve a heavy voicing bar demonstrating their • voicing
- in addition, they have formants like vowels, although they are somewhat lighter •
- the nasal is also less prominent on the waveform, although still more than an obstruent
- these properties appear in either onset or coda position
- the individual place of articulation of the nasal is indicated by the adjacent vowel formants •
- [m] shows a fairly level F1 with a downward sloping F2
- [n] shows a downward slope for both F1 and F2 •
- [n] shows an upward direction for F2 and a downward direction for F3 (=velar pinch)

## **Partial Devoicing**

- nasals may be devoiced when following [s] •
- this appears in the spectrogram as a reduction in the intensity of the ٠ formants for the nasal
- they are short and show only a faint trace of a voicing bar
- virtually no indication of higher formants
- this indicates that they are devoiced ٠

#### **Syllabic Nasals**

- nasals may also appear as the head of the syllable, like a vowel
- they show similar properties to vowels, including movement in their ٠ formants to reflect adjacent consonants
- note the downward trend of the F2 formant at the end of *rhythm*

ŋ
ł

tan

1.2 1.4 1.6 1.8

2

tang

2.2 2.4 2.6

tam

0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8

1

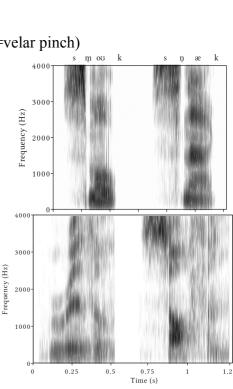
4000

3000

2000

1000

0



### Laterals

- Laterals are sonorant consonants that involve an airflow around one or both sides of the tongue
- in English, there are two main lateral consonants phonetically: one occurs in the onset of the syllable, [1]
- the other occurs in the end of the syllable, [1], sometimes referred to as `dark l' or `velarized l'
- /l/ is a difficult sound to make as attested by its relatively late acquisition by children, the average age for complete mastery being around 6 years of age

300

2000

100

4000

300

2000

1000

0

Frequency (Hz)

## **Acoustic Correlates of Laterals**

- The basic alveolar lateral approximant [1] has the average formant frequencies provided in the table taken from Dalston (1975)
- [1] has a formant frequency for F1 of around 350 Hz
- F2 is around 1100 Hz
- the effects of velarization are clear in the [1] in `tell'
- the transition from the vowel  $[\varepsilon]$  to [t] resembles that of a diphthong

# **Strong Velarization**

- in certain dialects, the velarized [1] can be realized as strong • velarization, i.e., [w]
- compare the last syllable in the spectrogram for *little* with the analysis of the word *two*
- the [1] appears to lose all of its lateral qualities and becomes a [w] in such dialects

## Devoicing

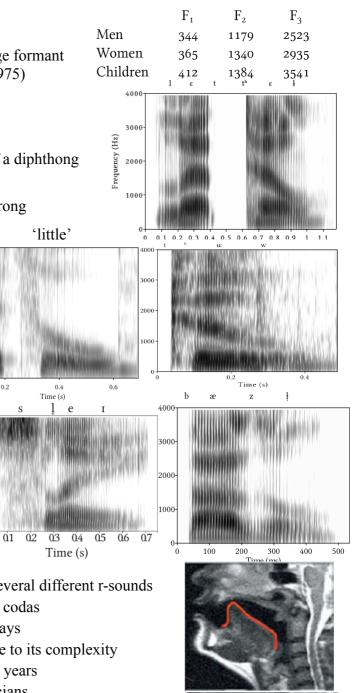
- the alveolar lateral approximant is subject to devoicing just like the nasals
- it appears as a short segment with less voicing

# **Syllabic Laterals**

- laterals may also appear as the syllabic head
- Frequency (Hz) they show similar properties to vowels, • including movement in their formants to reflect adjacent consonants
- note the downward trend of the F2 formant at the end of the word *basil*

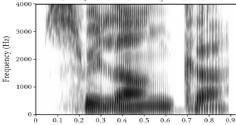
## Rhotics

- there is only one /r/ phoneme in English, but there are several different r-sounds •
- the first rhotic is the basic form, [1], found in onsets and codas •
- it is a rather complex sound, made in several possible ways
- it is one of the last sounds to be acquired by children due to its complexity
- the age of full acquisition is considered to be around six years
- the English /r/ has been studied by a number of phoneticians •
- Zhou et al (2007) examine the two principal means of producing the English [1]: with a retroflex or a bunched tongue position
- MRI scans of speakers producing the different r's can be used to study these



### **Acoustic Correlates of Rhotics**

- The basic alveolar rhotic approximant [1] has the average formant frequencies provided in Dalston (1975)
- Note in particular the rather low F3, as compared with that of the • alveolar lateral approximant
- the most obvious acoustic characteristic of this [1] is the very • low F2 and F3: F3 is around 1600 Hz
- the second English rhotic variant is a voiceless [J] (figure 1) this is found following voiceless aspirated plosives, such as in the words *tray* or *pry* the third variant is the alveolar flap [r], found in NA English when t/ar d/a as the second voiceless aspirated plosives. •
- when /t/ or /d/ occurs between a stressed vowel and a vowel
- English /r/ is also subject to devoicing when following [s]
- it is particularly rare for r/r to follow [s] or any other sound besides the plosives.
- nevertheless, it is clear from this spectrogram (from about 180-245ms) that the [1] is both short and has very weak voicing and formants



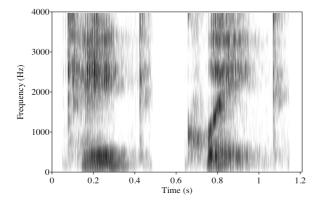
Frequency (Hz)

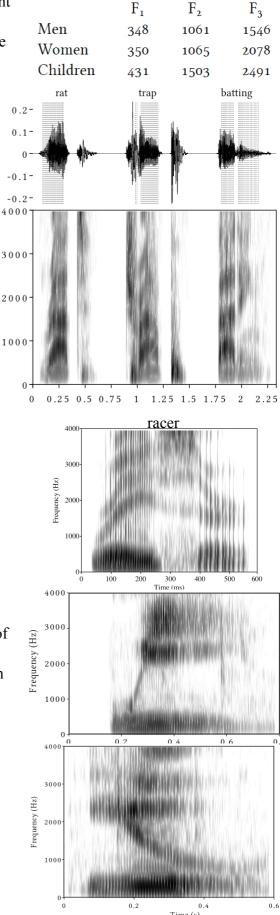
#### **Syllabic Rhotics**

- it is also possible to have syllabic rhotics in English
- for instance, the final [J] in *racer* or *laser* is syllabic
- one can see the formants at the end of the word
- F1 at 440 Hz and F2 at 1500Hz •

#### Semivowels

- [w] and [j] are semivowels, also known as 'glides'
- they are approximant consonants sharing many of the qualities of the vowels [u] and [i], respectively
- they may occur alone, as in the words we or you or together with certain consonants
- compare *cake* and *quake*: the latter has a [w] modifying the [k]:





• OR poor and pure, where [p] is supplemented by [j] in pure

• Semivowels are acquired early by children and typically pose no problems for second language learners, except perhaps in one special context

ooze

• semivowels may co-occur with their corresponding vowels in English, but not in Korean

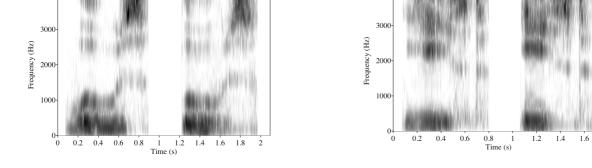
veast

4000

• compare English woos and ooze or yeast and east

woos

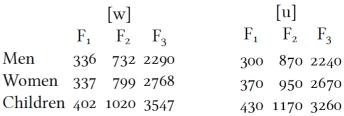
4000

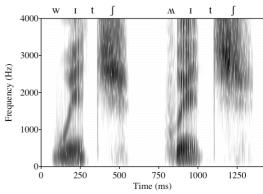


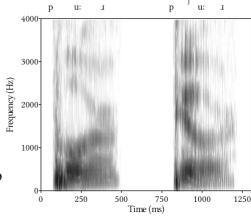
- this poses a distinct problem for Korean learners of English, since this contrast does not exist in Korean
- the voiceless labiovelar fricative [M] is not an approximant
- it share many features with [w] and is lexically contrastive for some speakers
- this sound, represented in the IPA by [M], is found in only a handful of forms, even in those dialects that have it
- it is not widely attested but does distinguish certain minimal pairs such as *witch* and *which* in those dialects that have it
- there is some disagreement about the status of [M], given that it appears to be more a fricative with rounding than a labiovelar approximant without voicing

## Acoustic Correlates of Semivowels

- the acoustic correlates of the semivowels share many properties with the corresponding vowels
- compare the average formants for [w], from Dalston (1975), and those for the English vowel [u] from Peterson and Barney (1952)
- the averages for [j] and [i] would be similar







east