



**MODULE**

# **ENGLISH PHONOLOGY**

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**NURUL HUDA UNIVERSITY**  
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# Preface

First of all, the writer wants to express his thanks to Allah SWT, because of His bless and grace, the book of phonology can be finished on time.

We endeavor to prepare the book as much as possible and are supported by the assistance of various parties, so as to facilitate the preparation. For that we do not forget to thank all parties and sources who have helped us in completing this book. However, apart from all of that, we are fully aware that there are still shortcomings, both in terms of language preparation and other aspects.

Therefore, we gladly open the door wide for readers who want to give suggestions or criticism to improve this book. Finally, the authors really hope that the benefits of this book can be taken and we wish to inspire readers to raise other relevant issues in subsequent books.

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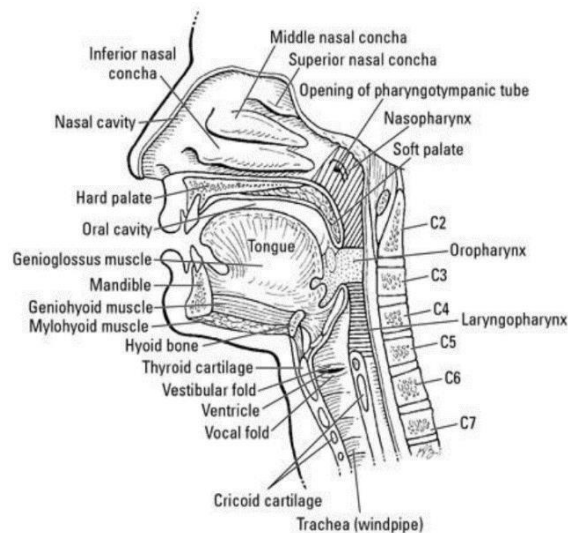
# CHAPTER 1

## ORGAN OF SPEECH & AIRSTREAM MECHANISM

### ➤ Organ Of Speech

Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies the sound patterns of languages. It focuses on the systematic organization of sounds, also known as phonemes, within a particular language or languages. Phonology examines how sounds function within a language's phonological system, including their distribution, patterns, and rules. It investigates various aspects such as phonemes, phonological features, phonotactics, phonological processes, and the interaction between sounds in different linguistic contexts. Phonology is an important field of study for understanding the structure and organization of languages and how they are used in communication.

Teachers of articulation must have a COMPLETE understanding of the anatomy and function of the organs involved in vocal utterance. There are men who adeptly use crowbars without having the foggiest concept of the rules of the lever, thus it is true that instructors without that expertise occasionally succeed in teaching deaf-mutes to speak. The teacher of articulation, however, must be able to carry out his duties intelligently, therefore he must be well-versed on the anatomy and physiology of the organs he is tasked with instilling in his student.



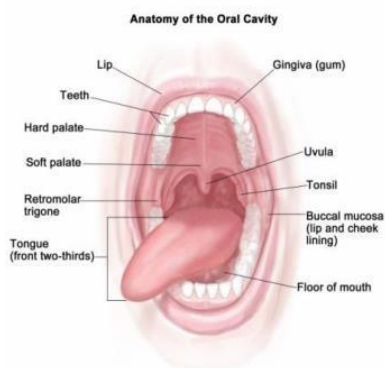
It is a unique reality that writers on deaf-mute education have regrettably overlooked the topic at hand while giving attention to issues of lesser relevance. As a result, the student teacher is required to cite texts on voice physiology and anatomical literature. The former go into greater detail than is required for our needs, whilst the latter typically contain insufficient information. Therefore, gathering the information that is valuable to and interesting to us takes a lot of time and effort. The following synopsis may be helpful as not every teacher has the time or resources available to conduct such detailed research.

One method of communication that makes use of the human voice organ is speaking. Speaking is the systematic production of sounds using both sensory and motor components. Hearing, sight, and touch are examples of sensory elements that help us grasp what we hear and feel. The motor component controls the larynx, the articulation devices, and the larynx, which is in charge of producing sound (Damayanti.M, 2007). The respiratory, phonation, resonance, and articulation processes that involve the respiratory organs (nose, larynx, trachea, and lungs), vocal organs (ring cartilage, cartilage shields, both goblet, vocal cords, trachea), and articulation organs (lips, tongue, maxilla, mandible, soft palate, hard palate, teeth, pharynx, oral cavity) are what cause speech to be elicited. Speech provided by Kathiresan.C.

Actually there are some of the organs of speech that we will explain those are :

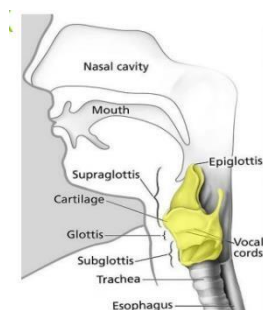
## 1. Dental Cavity

The lips define the mouth cavity from the front, posteriorly by the palatoglossus muscle's arch-shaped entrance. Laterally by the teeth and related bone structure in the jaws, inferiorly by the tongue, superiorly by the roof of the mouth. An important factor in establishing the phonetic characteristics of speech sounds is the oral cavity. The location and shape of the tongue, as well as the movement of the lips, jaw, and soft palate, determine the shape and volume of the oral cavity.



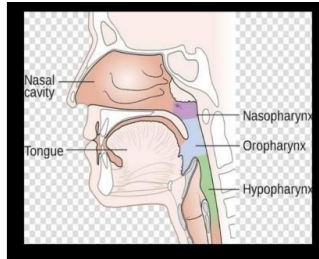
## 2. Larynx

It's about 11 cm in length and 2.5 cm in diameter. It has a skeletal frame made up of a series of cartilages, and the windpipe, or Trachea, attaches to the lungs. It is more protruded in case of males and is felt as the Adam's Apple. In order to help produce speech and valving actions of the larynx, cartilages inside the larynx move with regard to each other in a way that facilitates their function.



### 3. Pharynx

It's about 11 cm in length and 2.5 cm in diameter. It has a skeletal frame made up of a series of cartilages, and the trachea, or windpipe, attaches to the lungs. More protruded in case of males and is felt as the 'Adam's Apple'. In order to help produce speech and valving actions of the larynx, cartilages inside the larynx move with regard to each other in a way that facilitates their function.



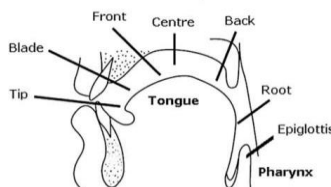
### 4. Soft Palate/ Velum

The soft palate or velum is the continuation of the palate behind the bony structure of the hard palate. It consists of a flexible sheet of muscular tissue covered with mucous membrane and ends in the uvula, a small tip of muscle and flexible tissue. The Velum can be raised and lowered, making it easier to create a variety of sounds. When the soft palate is lifted and contacts the back wall of the pharynx (called soft palate closure), the passage of air into the nasal cavity is blocked and only oral sounds such as /p/, /k/ are produced. /f/. /t/etc All English sounds are oral sounds except for nasal sounds. The oral cavity is closed when the velum descends, Air from the lungs escapes into the nasal cavity, producing nasal sounds such as "m"/. /N/. o In normal breathing, the soft palate is lowered, but enough to keep both the oral and nasal cavities open. Air therefore flows through both the oral and nasal cavities. Sounds produced at this soft palate position are called nasal sounds.



### 5. Tongue

Located in the oral cavity, the tongue consists mostly of muscle, is lined on the outside by mucous membranes, and is divided longitudinally by fibrous septa. It is anchored to the anterior hyoid bone by some of the lateral muscles. Of all the language organs in the oral cavity, the tongue has the greatest influence on changes in the shape and volume of the oral cavity. For the purposes of phonetic description, the tongue is usually divided into four regions or parts: tip, blade, anterior, posterior, and root. The tip of the tongue is the outermost point of the tongue, and the tongue is just behind it.



When the tongue is at rest, the front part of the tongue faces the hard palate. When the tongue is at rest, the back of the tongue faces the soft palate. The root of the tongue faces the posterior pharyngeal wall.

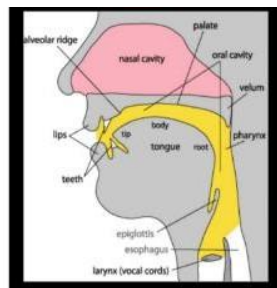
## 6. Lips

The upper and lower lips are two fleshy folds, richly muscled. It is made up of skin on the outside and mucous membrane on the inside. Thanks to the muscles, the lips are endowed with considerable plasticity and mobility and thus contribute greatly to many of the possible configurations of the vocal tract in vocal articulation.

Speech: The lips are the front edge of the oral cavity and the front edge of the entire vocal tract. Lips can assume a variety of positions, such as raised or lowered, rounded, or protruding, and the corners of the mouth may move vertically or laterally. For example, the consonants /p/ and /b/ hold the lips closed. For the vowel /i:/, the lips are in an open position. The vowel /u/ has rounded, protruding lips. For the vowel /a/ the lips remain in a neutral position. Etc.

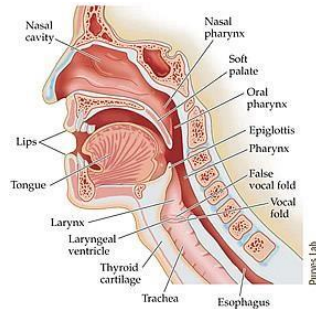
## 7. Nasal Cavity

The nasopharynx opens into the nasal cavity, which is about 10 cm long from the pharynx to the nostrils. The nasal cavity has no muscular structure. Therefore, it is external factors such as mucus content and tissue swelling that affect the size and shape of the nasal cavity. These involuntary changes in nasal volume and shape affect the resonant properties of the nasal cavity and its contribution to acoustic and perceptual properties. speech. Spontaneous changes in the nasal cavity can occur because muscle tension affects the nature of the connection between the nasopharynx and the oropharyngeal portion of the vocal tract.



## ➤ Airstream Mechanism

Airflow mechanism refers to the process by which the vocal tract creates airflow. No sound is produced without an airflow mechanism. This is because this mechanism is essential for the initiation of sound generation, the first part of the sound generation process.



The sequence of positions (paths) that the articulator follows during movement reveals a great deal about its planning and control processes. This article presents data demonstrating the path of tongue movement during the production of velar and alveolar consonants. Soft palate consonants, in particular, are known to exhibit anterior tongue movements during the closure phase, resulting in elliptical trajectories in symmetric VCV sequences [Houde, 1968; Perkel, 1969. Kent and Moll, 1972] In other words, the path taken by the tongue meatpoint to move from C to V2.

It doesn't just trace the path taken to go from V to C. In this respect, language movements seem to contrast with the pathways observed in limb movements. For example, in tasks involving movement from a starting position to a target and back to the starting position (i.e., production-like tasks), we observe that hand paths in grasping and pointing movements are generally fairly straight. target consonant between two identical vowels)

## CHAPTER 2

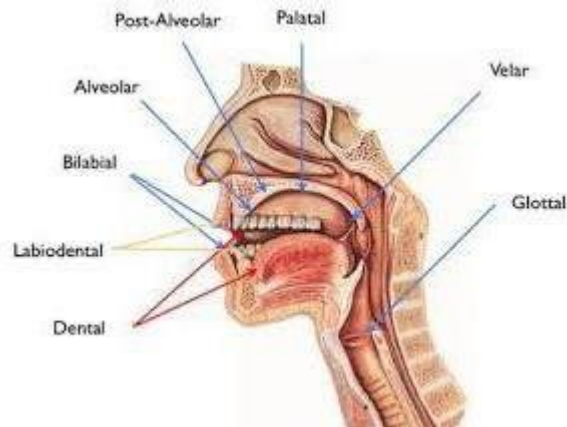
### DESCRIBING CONSONANTS

What is consonants?

(*Phonetic Articulation Describing Consonant*, n.d.) Consonants are the letters that stand in for certain speech sounds, particularly those made with the tongue, lips, or throat that prevent air from leaving the mouth. Except for the vowels (a, e, i, o, and u), the majority of the letters in the English alphabet are consonants.

Articulatory phonetics:

#### 1. PLACE OF ARTICULATION (POA)

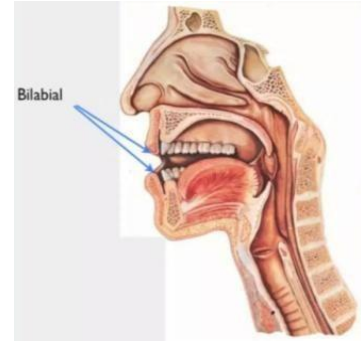


In articulatory phonetics, the point as well as the place of consonant articulation is the obstruction of the point of contact between the articulatory cues in the vocal tract, the active articulators usually occur in several parts of the tongue and the passive articulators. the location is in several parts of the roof of the mouth. (*Place of Articulation: Definition, Chart & Example*, 2023)

(*Phonetics Course : What Is Linguistics, What Is Phonetics, Why Do We Need It, What Are the Phonetics Branches, IPA, Consonans, and Vowls*, 2018) The narrowing of the vocal tract occurs determined from the place or point of articulation (POA) of the consonant, through front to back.

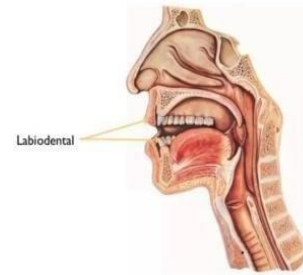
## A. BILABIAL

In bilabial consonants, the upper and lower lips touch each other, here are the places where the bilabials (p), [b], and [m] stop. the picture beside is the position of the vocal tract [p] or typical. ([m] then it can be similar but with the position of the velum down so that air comes out through the nasal passages). the sound [w] uses two vowel channels that are pronounced together. including **rounding of the lips**, can be interpreted(*Phonetics Course : What Is Linguistics, What Is Phonetics, Why Do We Need It, What Are the Phonetics Branches, IPA, Consonans, and Vowls*, 2018)ed as a bilabial approach.



## B. LABIODENTAL

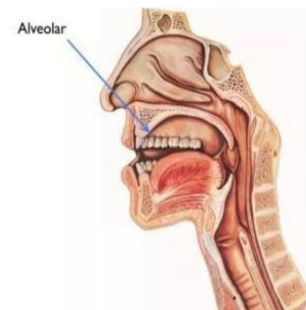
In the labiodental system, lips touching or approaching upper teeth. The labiodental fricatives are [f and v] the figure beside is an example of a vocal tract in a typical [f or v].



## C. (INTER)DENTAL

On the teeth, touching the upper teeth or approaching the base or between the tongue. Tooth friction [θ] and [ð]. Basically there are several other ways to form these sounds. the top of the back teeth can be in touch by the base of the tongue, with how not to press hard so that it flows completely blocked air.

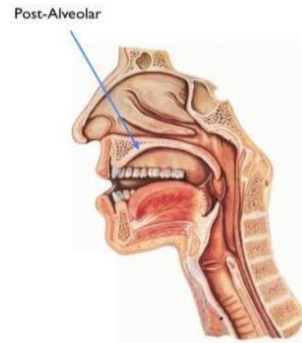
The bottom of the upper teeth can be touched between the tongue, using the base of the tongue protruding around the teeth - leaving enough space



for the air flow to be pushed out quickly. It appears in American English with interdental fricatives like these [θ] and [ð]

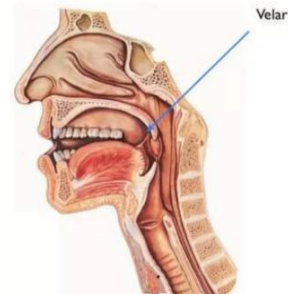
#### D. ALVEOLAR

In the alveolar arrangement, the base of the tongue (*or what is called between the tongue*) approaches and even touches the alveolar palate. The palate is just behind the upper teeth. [t], [d], [n] are fully formed blocking the airways in place this articulation. fricatives [f] and [z] are at this place of articulation as are approximations [ɹ] and lateral approximations [l].



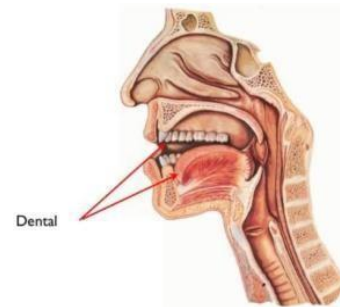
#### E. POST ALVEOLAR

In the postalveolar arrangement, the reduced air circulation is positioned just behind the alveolar palate. reduction of air circulation can be done using the base or sidelines of the tongue. fricatives [ʃ] and [ʒ] are presented in this POA, as are the corresponding africates [tʃ] and [dʒ]. the figure below is the position of the vocal tract during the initial mid (*half- stop*), or fricatives [tʃ] and [dʒ].



#### F. VELAR

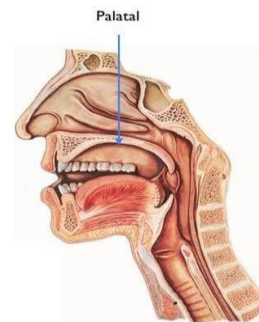
In a velar arrangement, the soft palate is touched or approached by the base of the tongue, or the velum, [k], [g], [ŋ], is terminated at the POA. The figure beside is a typical [k] or [g] velum part of the tongue which varies in regarding where it should be depending on the surrounding vowels. The voiceless fricative created in velar POA is the



sound [x] at the end of a German name, Bach or a Scottish word loch. as we already know, the two narrowings that make up the [w] one of them is the bilabial approach. the other one is the velar approach of the soft palate near the tongue.

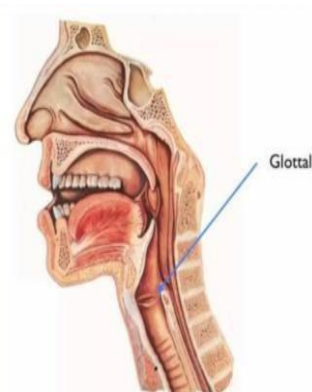
### G. PALATAL

In the palatal arrangement, the hard palate is approached and touched by the tongue. [j] palatal approach hard palate near the (*dorsum*), creating turbulence in the airflow close enough.



### H. GLOTTAL

Glottis is the open part of the vocal cords. in [h]. It is only minimal to create turbulence in the airflow flowing to the vocal cords. therefore, [h] is usually classified as a global fricative. glottal terminated [ʔ] is the type of sound in the structure that is used in most spoken languages, by blocking the airflow in the vocal tract or more precisely the glottis produces many types of structures. glottal stops for example using hyphens in uh-oh is the opinion of most English speakers. the glottal stop functions as an allophone /t/ between the vowel and the syllable 'n, as well as the buttom and mountain except when speaking slowly.



Places of Articulation							
Bilabial	Labio-Dentals	Dental	Alveolar	Post-Alveolar	Velar	Palatal	Glottal
/p/	/f/	/θ/	/d/	/ʃ/	/ŋ/		/h/
/b/	/v/	/ð/	/l/	/tʃ/	/k/	/j/	/ʔ/
/m/			/s/	/dʒ/	/g/		
			/t/	/ʒ/	/w/		
			/n/	/z/			
			/z/				

## 2. Manner Of Articulation

### **i. Stop**

(*English Consonant*, n.d.) The mouth's ability to breathe is completely stopped by consonants. The consonants /d/, /t/, and /n/ are formed when the tongue tip touches the alveolar ridge and blocks the airflow there. This means that throughout the time of the pause in /d/ and /t/, there is practically no airflow. Even when there is no airflow by the lips as /n/, there is still the passage of air through the nose. We distinguish between.

### **ii. Nasal**

The vocal cavity is completely closed off in one area, but air still escapes through the nose. According to the location of the obstruction, there are three nasal consonants in English: bilabial /m/ (mother), alveolar /n/ (nose), and velar /ŋ/ (sing), which is a little trickier to pronounce correctly.

### **iii. Fricatives**

Tongue tip contacts alveolar ridge during the stop /t/, which stops the airflow. The tongue tip in [s] comes close to but doesn't quite contact the alveolar ridge. The gap is still large enough for air to flow through, but it is so small that the exiting air becomes turbulent, giving the sound of the /s/ its hissing quality. The articulators engaged in the constriction method come together in a fricative

consonant to create a turbulent airstream. English has the following fricatives: /f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, and /ʒ/.

### **iv. Affricates**

Affricates are single sounds made up of both stop and fricative parts. The airflow is first stopped in English /tʃ/ by a stop that is quite similar to /t/. But the tongue slowly draws away from the stop rather than instantly articulating the next sound, which results in a brief window of time where the constriction is just small enough to generate a turbulent airstream. The duration of turbulent airstream that follows the stop portion in /tʃ/ is identical to that of the fricative /ʃ/. Similar to /tʃ/, the voiced affricate /dʒ/ is used in English.

### **v. Approximant**

As sound sets out the body, approximate consonant sounds are produced by pulling two articulators nearly in contact but without touching. A smooth, vowel-like sound is the end product. In English, there are three approximate phonemes.

/w/: went once, quite.

/r/: road

/j/: few, yawn, fuel

## vi. Lateral

By blocking in the centre and letting air past the sides of the tongue, lateral approximant consonant sounds occur. There is only one lateral approximate phoneme in English pronunciation:

Standard pronunciation also includes /l/, a relatively frequent allophone variation of the letter /l/. Although the tongue also cultivated in the back of the mouth, it is formed in the same manner at the front.

## b. Voicing

(*Sastra*, n.d.) It is possible to apply precisely the proper amount of pressure to the vocal folds such that the air going through them from the lungs causes them to vibrate against one another. Vocalizing describes this procedure. When vocal folds vibrate, noises are produced that have a voice. Noises made without vocal fold vibration are voiceless.

	Voiceless sounds		Voiced sounds	
1.	/p/	pat	/b/	bat
2.	/f/	few	/v/	view
3.	/t/	tear	/d/	dear
4.	/s/	Sue	/z/	zoo
5.	/tʃ/	choke	/dʒ/	joke
6.	/k/	cap	/g/	gap
7.	/θ/	think	/ð/	this

# CHAPTER 3

## DESCRIBING VOWEL AND DIPHTHONG ARTICULATION

### A. Definition of vowels

Given the many different ways to pronounce vowels, they are among the most challenging words in the English language. When air moves continuously and smoothly through the pharynx, larynx, and oral cavity, speech sounds are created. The airflow comes out of their mouth, so their member is not blocked. Different vowel sounds can be produced by rearranging and altering the shape of the articulators in the throat and mouth regions. Each vowel's sound is influenced by its placement in the syllable and the letters that come before or after it. The limit of vowel articulation is determined by the vowel gap, f the tongue is higher than the palate, the vowel space dictates the vowels' articulation limit. (Demirezen, 2020)

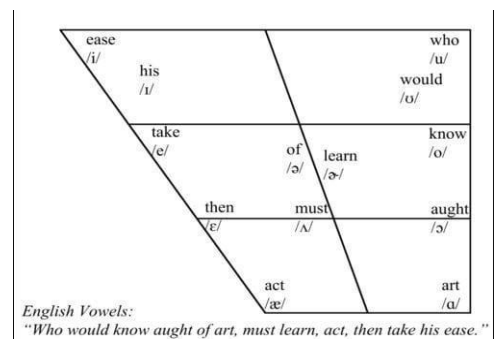
There is a range of possible vowel lengths. Discuss the English vowels represented by the letters a, i, e, u, and o. A single vowel lengthens to become a long vowel when it is uttered. In phonology, vowel length refers to how long a vowel is perceived to be. Some dictionaries refer to diacritics as macrons ( ¯ ), which are used to denote long vowels. The phonemic vowel chart for the English language is shown below. It lists the position, point, and manner of articulation for each of the 12 vowel phonemes: In NAE, the long vowel sounds are /I/, /i:/, /æ/, /ɑ:/, /ʊ/, /u:/, /ə/, /e/, /ʌ/, /ɜ:/, /ɔ:/ and /

(Yoshida, 2014) mention that if we describe the vowels of english, vowels can be classified 3 part.

There are Tongue position, Lip position, and Lax and Tense Vowels.

### 1. Tongue position

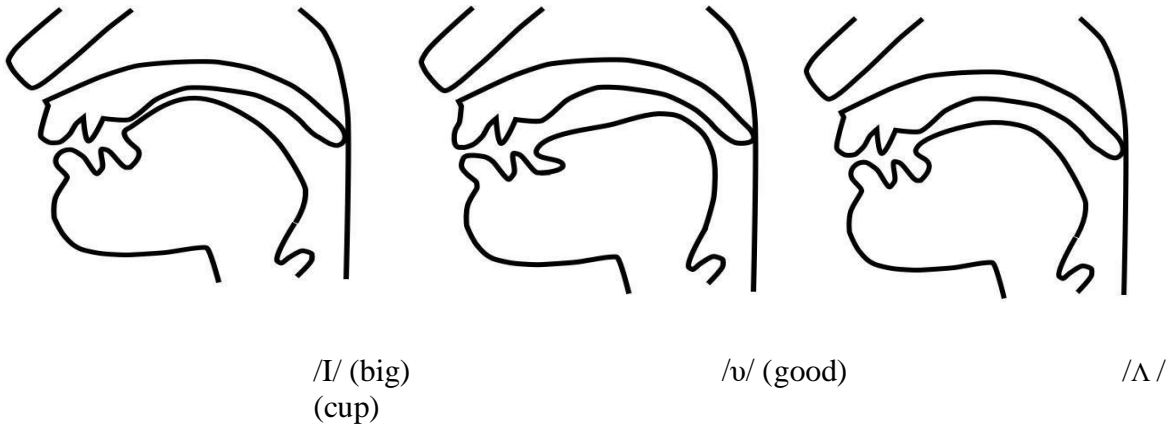
Each vowels sound is largely influenced by how we move and shape our tongues. Even a slight shift in the location of your tongue during vowel articulation can have a significant impact on how the vowel sounds. We



initially list the height of the tongue while designing vowels: high, medium, or low. In other words, is the jaw lowered more, or is the tongue raised above the mouth? The placement is then designated as front, center, or back. Below is a description of how to position your tongue for vowels:

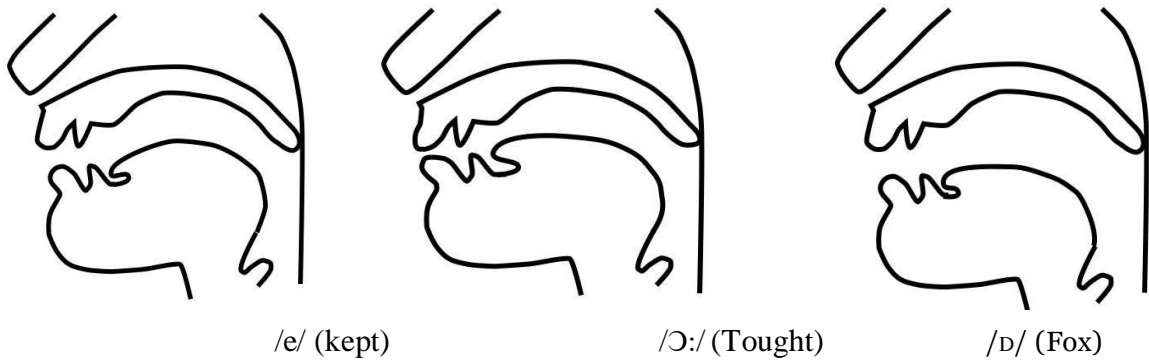
a. High

High vowels are articulated with the tongue high in the mouth, but not so high until touch the palate. Example :



b. Low

Low vowels are those that are generated with the tongue at a level that is lower than mid vowels and toward the bottom of the oral cavity. E.g :



c. Front

The production of front vowels involves moving the tongue tip from the higher incisors, or the front cutting teeth, to the lower ones. It is pronounced: [i:], [i], [e], [æ]

d. Central

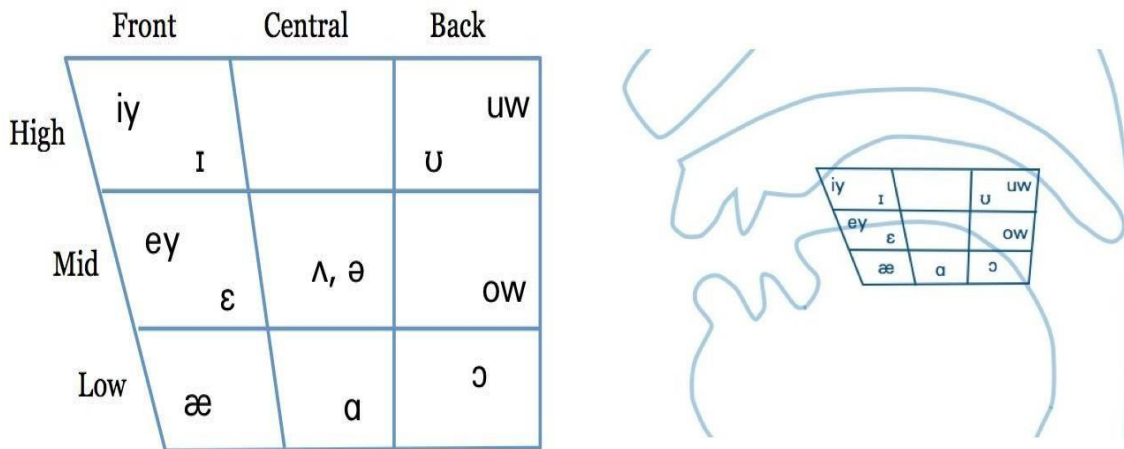
When the tongue is in the oral cavity in a neutral posture, the Central vowel is produced. Try to pronounce : [ə], [ɜ:]

e. Back

When the back of the tongue is moved up or down in the velar region, back vowels are produced. Ex : [ʌ], [ɑ:], [ɔ:], [u:]

A chart known as a vowel quadrant can be used to illustrate where different vowels are located in a

language. A different vertical and horizontal position of the tongue is represented in each of the nine portions of this diagram. Two variations of the vowel quarter are depicted in the pictures below. The latter illustrates how specific regions of the vowel quadrant link to specific regions of the voice, while the former merely displays the vowel quadrant.



(Illustrate Placement Tongue Position)

## 2. Lip rounding/lip position

The shape of the lips, whether they are very rounded, slightly rounded, relaxed, or stretched out a little, influences vowel sounds as well.

### a. Unrounded

- Open

Open vowels are produced by placing the tongue low and the mandible depressed. Like a pronounce : [ɑ:], [æ], [ɒ]

- Open-mid

The tongue is placed halfway between the palatal region and the floor of the mouth while producing open-mid vowels, which involve a somewhat depressed position of the mandible.. Ex : [e], [ʌ], [ɔ:], [ɜ:]

- Mid

A mid vowel is produced by placing the mandible in the middle and the tongue in the middle of the palatal region and the floor of the mouth..

Ex : [ə]

b. Rounded

- Close, Close vowels are produced by holding the tongue high and closing the jaw. The alveolar ridge is where the tongue is actually resting. as if to pronounce: [i:], [ɪ], [u:]
- Close-mid, Close-mid vowels are produced by closing the jaw and placing the tongue halfway between the palatal region and the floor of the mouth. Try to pronounce : [ʊ]

### 3. Lax and Tense vowel

Traditionally, we have thought of this as the difference in tension or contraction of the muscles of the tongue or lips when making sounds, but again, this is an oversimplification. Sometimes there isn't much difference in the natural loudness of tense and relaxed vowels. (Ladefoged, 2006)

The placement of vowels in words is another distinction between tense and relaxed vowels. Both closed syllable those that finish in a consonant, like meeting or purpose and open syllables those that do not have a consonant following a vowel. Closed syllables can have relaxed vowels, whereas stressed open syllables cannot. Frequently finish in a tense vowel. But we never come across a word with a loosened vowel at the end.









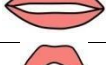
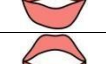


(Durand, 2005) There are characteristics that can be used to distinguish between lax vowels and tense vowels, namely their duration or the length and shortness of how to read a phonemes. If lax vowel is more relaxed tongue and lips (Lax vowels can be short vowel) Such as : [ɪ], [ʊ], [e], [ə], [ʌ], [ɒ], [æ]. And when tense vowel is more tightness in tongue and lips (Tense vowels can be long vowels) Such as : [i:], [u:], [ɜ:], [ɔ:], [ɑ:].

#### Example of Lax Vowels and Tense Vowels :

Lax Vowel	Tense Vowel
-----------	-------------

Phonem	Example	Phonem	Example
[ɪ]	Will, Hit, Sick, Fish, Give	[i:]	Event, Easy, Cheat, Bee
[ʊ]	Foot, Good, Push, Book	[u:]	Group, Food, Move, Soon
[e]	Dress, Pen, Met, Red, Leg	[ɜ:]	Burn, Bird, First, Learn
[ə]	Ago, Along, Allow, Away	[ɔ:]	Author, Autumn, Oral
[ʌ]	Does, Cut, Leg, Luck, Bug	[ɑ:]	Hard, Last, Car, Shark
[ɒ]	Job, Wash, Not, Stop, Hot		
[æ]	Bad, Back, Champ, Family		

### The English vowels lip placements

NO	Phonem	Lip position	Tongue position	Lax/tense vowels	Pictures
1	/ɑ:/	Open	Back/low	Tense	
2	/æ/	Open	Front/low	Lax	
3	/ɒ/	Open	Back/low	Lax	
4	/e/	Open-Mid	Front/low	Lax	
5	/ʌ/	Open-Mid	Back/low	Lax	
6	/ɔ:/	Open-Mid	Back/low	Tense	
7	/ɜ:/	Open-Mid	Central/high	Tense	
8	/ə/	Mid	Central/high	Lax	
9	/i:/	Close	Front/high	Tense	
10	/ɪ/	Close	Front/high	Lax	
11	/u:/	Close	Back/high	Tense	
12	/ʊ/	Close-Mid	Back/high	Lax	

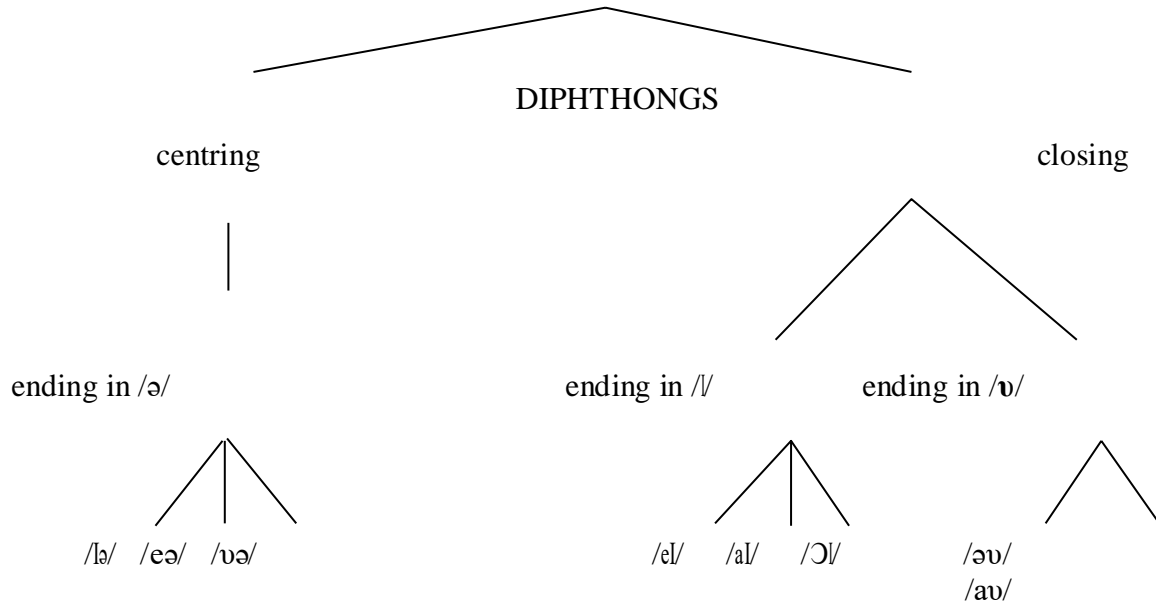
### B. Definition of Diphthongs

A Diphthongs are vowels that shift during speech as opposed to long vowels. One vowel appears at the beginning and another at the conclusion. Diphthongs are represented by two different symbols in the International Phonetics Alphabet, but monophthongs, the short form of diphthongs, are represented by just one symbol.

'Two voices' or 'two sounds' is what the word diphthong actually means. (Demirezen, 2020) A diphthong is made up of two vowels that are completely distinct from one another and occur in the same syllable. The vowel sound of each diphthong is made up of two different kinds of vowel sounds that occur in syllables.

Diphthongs should be centered. Because the tongue moves in the direction of the central vowel, the second vowel is more central than the first vowels. the like: /ɪə/, /eə/, /ʊə/. Diphthongs be close. Because the tongue moves from the place of the open vowel to the closer vowel, the diphthong sounds like the second vowel is closer than the first vowel. the like : /eɪ/, /aɪ/, /ɔɪ/, /aʊ/, /əʊ/. Diphthongs are two vowel sounds that involve a transition or glide from one vowel to another. Diphthongs resemble long vowels in length. The initial component of most diphthongs is stronger and longer than the second component. The word "gliding vowel" is another name for the diphthong since it describes the act of switching from one vowel sound to another. A diphthong is often referred to as a moving vowel, a complicated vowel, and a compound vowel. (Nordquist, 2019) The way that diphthongs have changed into regional accents and dialects from their original languages is one of the most fascinating aspects of how they connect to spoken language.

## English Dipthongs Chart



### THE PRONUNCIATION OF DIPHTHONGS



/aɪ/ (Idea)



/aʊ/ (Cloud)



/eɪ/ (Male)



/ɔɪ/ (Choice)



/əʊ/ (Ghost)

### EXAMPLE OF DIPHTHONGS

<b>Centering Diphthongs</b>		<b>Closing Diphthongs</b>	
<b>Phonem</b>	<b>Example</b>	<b>Phonem</b>	<b>Example</b>
<i>/eə/</i>	Heir, Fair, Share, Aware	<i>/aɪ/</i>	Five, Eye, Ice, Price
<i>/ɪə/</i>	Near, Clear, Theory, Ear	<i>/eɪ/</i>	Break, Male, Date, Face
<i>/ʊə/</i>	Sure, Cure, Hour, Tour	<i>/ɔɪ/</i>	Voice, Coin. Joint, Toy
		<i>/əʊ/</i>	Goat, Focus, Road, Globe
		<i>/aʊ/</i>	About, Proud, Mouth, Found







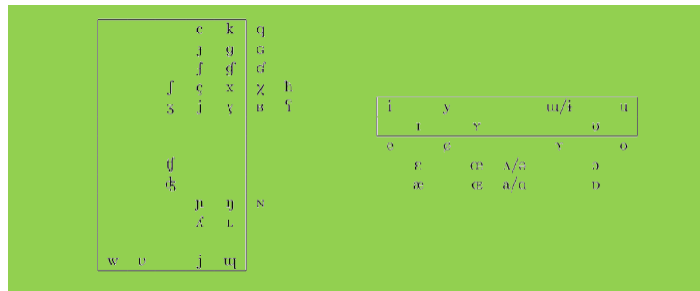








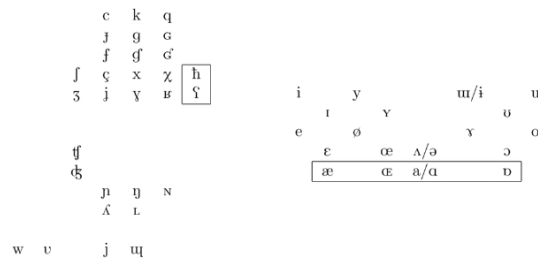




One of the (height) characteristics is the ability to specify the height of the tongue in the mouth, where [+high] indicates that the tongue should be elevated and [-high] indicates that the tongue should not be raised. Some consonants, such as palatal, alveo-palatal, velar, and sliding consonants, as well as near vowels, are [+high], while [+dorsal] sounds are [-high].

Remember that a sound cannot be both [+high] and [+low], but only [-high] and [-low].

### 8. [Low] / [Lo]



The difference between "high" and "low" is not very significant, in the science of phonology this "low" pronunciation is a relatively low tongue in the mouth. In English some vowels are classified as "low", for example: the /a/ sound in a vocabulary such as "cat".

### 9. [Back] / [Bk]



lowering the larynx to provide breath quality to the vowel.(Wikipedia 2022)

Stopping sounds in [b], [d], [g] can involve tongue advancement which will occasionally become sound changes related to stop sounds and front vowels.

## E. Laryngeal features

Laryngeal Features "Laryngeal" are features that relate to how the laryngeal is used during vocalization.

The "Laryngeal" larynx is divided into several forms, namely:

- 1) Voiced
- 2) Aspirated
- 3) Vibrating (Glottal)

### 1. [Voiced] / [Voi]

Voiced		Voiceless	
p	b	t	k
d	g	f	x
s	z	ʃ	ʒ
ʃ	ʒ	h	ʔ
ʔ			
m	n	ŋ	
h			

Voiced are consonants that are voiced, and the letters are : B, D, G, J, L, M, N, Ng, R, Sz, Th, V, W, Y, and Z. But it is also important to note that, if there are only single letters, namely Ng, Sz, and Th, then these three letters are the common sounds that can be produced by combining or combining two consonants ph.(Wikipedia 2023) Phones with [+aspiration] have a greater outward airflow. By default, all voiceless fricatives (including the voiced glottal fricative) are [+aspirated], while all other sounds are [-aspirated].

Letters are not aspirated. Letters are graphic marks that are used in text. When we speak about aspiration, we speak about sounds. In English, voiceless stops /p/, /k/ and /t/ are aspirated before a vowel, particularly in a stressed syllable. However, aspiration doesn't usually take place in consonant clusters. Therefore, speak doesn't have aspiration while peak does.



## CHAPTER 5

### MINIMAL PAIRS AND DISTINCTIVE

#### A. Minimal Pairs

Minimal Pairs is two word wits almost the same pronunciation and one sound that make it different, but it has very different meanings.

The phonetic difference between the two words in the minimum pair is seen from a segment of sound that serves as a difference point between the two words. The difference in one sound greatly influences the contrast in meaning in a word. (Barlow, J. A., & Gierut, 2022)

**Look this example!**

➤ Sip / Sip / = Zip / zip /

From the sample above, we can see that the two word are almost identical in their pronociation and it has very different meanings. From phonemes [sip] consist to /s/, /i/, /p/, and from phonemes [zip] consist to /z/, /i/, /p/. If you seen, that the spealing of both word is almost identical, just different in spealing /s/ and /z/. To understand much more, next we will discuss **Distinctive feature**.

#### B. Distinctive Feature

A distinctive feature are a way that calculates where location a sound can change. They determine the contrasts which may exist between speech sound, account for the ways in which these sound may change, or alternate, and def he the sets of sound from minimal pairs. (Wiese, 2012)

The thing to consider when identifying a sound in a destictive feature is :

**Consonan :**

1. Define voice and voiceless
2. Define place articulation
3. Define manner articulation

## Vowel :

### 1. Vowel articulation

#### Review Material!

- A voice consonant is the sound of a phonemes with a vibration in the wind, eg ( /b/, /d/, /j/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /r/, /ʒ / . /ð/, /v/, /w/, /y/, /z/, dʒ )
- A voiceless consonants is the sound of a phonemes with a nothing vibration in the wind, eg (/tʃ/, /f/, /k/, /p/, /s/, /ʃ/, /θ/, /t/
- Place and manner articulation:

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC) © 2005 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill				ʀ					ʁ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

- Vowel articulation (open, open-mid, mid, close, close-mid, front, central, back, high, low, lax, and tense).

For example

#### Consonan:

Pat [pæt] = Bat [bæt]

They have almost the same pronunciation. Which differs from the two phonemes are /p/ and /b/. How to discern the pronunciation of those two word is from the first stage is voice and voiceless. Phonemes /p/ belongs to voiceless because it doesn't have vibration, for the phonemes /b/ belongs to voice because it have a vibration. So we'll write it like the below :

Pat [pæt]	=	Bat [bæt]
+ Voiceless		- Voiceless
-Voice		+ Voice

The next, it enters the second stage in which place articulation point of the two phonemes /p/ and /b/.

Phonemes /p/ and /b/ belong same in the place articulation of **bilabial**. So we'll write it like the below :

Pat [pæt]	=	Bat [bæt]
+ Voiceless		- Voiceless
-Voice		+ Voice
+ Bilabial		+ Bilabial

And the last stage in which manner articulation from phonemes /p/ and /b/. phonemes /p/ and /b/ belong same in the manner articulation of **stop**. So we'll write it like the below :

Pat [pæt]	=	Bat [bæt]
+ Voiceless		- Voiceless
-Voice		+ Voice
+ Bilabial		+ Bilabial
+ Stop		+ Stop

So that's the difference pronunciation between Pat [pæt] = Bat [bæt] is from **Voice and Voiceless**. How pronunciation for Pat [pæt] nothing vibration because it includes voiceless. Similary for word Bat [bæt] belongs to voice because it have a vibration.

**Vowel :**

For phonemes of vowel we must remember about vowel articulation. The distribution of phonemes vowel was placed according to place according to vowel articulation.

(Wiese, 2012)

Bin [bin] = Bean [bi:n]

The differences of these two phonemes are in /i/ and /i:/. If you remember again, phoneme /i/ on vowel articulation consist to close, front, high, and tense. For the phonemes /i:/ consist to close, front, high, and lax.

**Look this chart!**

No	Symbol	Vowels Articulation			
1.	ɑ:	Open	Back	Low	Tense
2.	æ	Open	Front	Low	Lax
3.	ɒ	Open	Back	Low	Lax
4.	e	Open-Mid	Front	Low	Lax
5.	ʌ	Open-Mid	Back	Low	Lax
6.	ɔ:	Open-Mid	Back	Low	Tense
7.	ɜ:	Open-Mid	Central	High	Tense
8.	ə	Mid	Central	Low	Lax
9.	i:	Close	Front	High	Tense
10.	ɪ	Close	Front	High	Lax
11.	u:	Close	Back	High	Tense
12.	ʊ	Close-Mid	Back	High	Lax

From the chart above, it's clear that phonemes /i/ and /i:/ make a difference at tense and lax. So we'll

write it like the below :

Bin [bin]	=	Bean [bi:n]
+ Close		+ Close
+ Front		+ Front
+ High		+ High
+ Lax		- Lax
-Tense		+ Tense

So that's the difference pronunciation between Bin [bin] = Bean [bi:n] is from **Lax and Tense**. How pronunciation for Bin [bin] said in a very short tone. Similary for word Bean [bi:n] said in a very long tone.

## CHAPTER 6

### PHONEMES, PHONE AND ALLOPHONE

Phonemes is the smallest sound unit in a language that is capable of conveying a distinction in meaning. Phonemes are abstrak mental, representation it is already staded in our vein but we don't pronounce it yet (Port, 2007). **Phonemes are written between slashes (/),** eg (/a/, /e/ , /i:/, /b/, /p/, and so on. Different language have differences phonemes.

The characteristic of phonemes:

1. Articulated differently
2. It occur in the same environment
3. The change effect the meaning
4. Use slash (/) as a symbol

Let us consider several example:

Keep – Deep = /k/ - /d/

The word -keep| are contain of three phonemes. They are : /ki:p/ = /k/, /i:/, /p/, the word -keep| has a meaning which is to have or continue to have in our possession. When we change the /k/ phonemes to /d/ phonemes, it would make the word change for -keep| to -deep| and it's carrying difference meaning.

#### **B. Phone**

In every life we hear many of sound. Phone are the realization sound of phonemes. When you pronounce a phonemes, it become a phone. Phone differences from phonem because it is not specific in languages and does not have significant impact in sense of the word (Linguistic, n.d.). **Phone are represented with brackets ([]).** So essentially phone is any voice we hear.

For example :

[k], [b], [u], [d], [e], [i:]

The word — cat — = [kæt]

### C. Allophone

Allophone is an allos Greek term meaning 'other' and phone meaning 'voice.' Understanding of allophones is the variation of a phoneme that arises because of a particular situation, a single phone that may be represented or illustrated, or one that forms several sounds. A variation of a language or a type of phonem that changes its voice based on how a word is spelled or according to its position in the word. It doesn't change the meaning, but when you recite a word with a different allophone or a mixed allophone, it doesn't affect the change of a sense, but it looks a bit strange what you memorize.

Like when there is a phoneme /s/ where the sentences can be read at the end /z, iz, or s/ how pronunciation

becomes these very forms called allophones.

#### Example :

Phoneme /k/

If, in the beginning, the sentence is read /**kh**/ where in the inscription there is an explosion. In beginning /**kh**/ = **kite**

In middle /k/ = **sky**

In ending /k/ = **speak**



### Kinds of Allophone

- a. Free variation
- b. Complementary distribution

- a. Free variation

It is part of a certain allophone whose transmission overlaps and produces almost the same sounds but makes a difference. It doesn't change the meaning. This phenomenon usually occurs when there is a dialogue or conversation. We can't allow people to have the same pronunciation as us, hence this so-called free variation. (Nordquist, 2020)

#### For example:

 Pasta	[pha:sta] or ['phæstə]
 Economic	[,i:kə'na:mik] or [,ɛkə'na:mik]

→ **Either** [ˌiːðəl] or [ˈaɪðəl]

b. Complementary distribution

The allophone is part of the allophone, but it can appear due to certain conditions or under certain conditions. We will never find two or more sounds in the same environment in an allophone.

Two sounds can be called a complementary distribution if the sound /Y/ does not appear in any of the phonetic parts where the sound /X/ occurs. For example, in English, the distribution of the dental and alveolar nasal [ŋ] and [n] is such that they never appear in the same environment. They are **mutually exclusive**. So this is an example of a complementary distribution where the two sounds do not appear in the same environment.

There are examples do not represent a complementary distributionallophones of the same phoneme.

~[h]-[ŋ] [h] is found only as an  
onset and never as a coda. [ŋ]  
occurs only as a coda and never  
as an onset.

The contexts of the two sounds are mutually exclusive and can be labeled complementary, but we do not

treat them as allophones of the sounds as the same phoneme.

Example:

tap [thæp]	word-initially
tep [stɛp]	followed by a vowel
	#_æ
bat [ bæt] [bæt`]	preceded by `S` S_ε
	word finally æ #

## CHAPTER 7

### PHONOTACTICAL RULES

#### What exactly is phonotactic?

Phonotactics is the study of phoneme combinations in a certain language. It is a branch of phonology. The smallest unit of sound that can communicate meaning is called a phoneme. This is described as phonotactic.

Over time, a language's phonotactic variation and alteration may take place. Examples include Daniel Schreier's observation that "Old English phonotactics admitted a variety of consonantal sequences that are no longer found in contemporary varieties".

#### A. Understanding Phonotactic Constraints

In a language, the formation of syllables is governed by a set of restrictions and rules called phonotactic constraints. As linguist Elizabeth Zsiga put it, languages -do not permit random sequences of sounds; rather, the sound sequences a language allows are a systematic and predictable part of its structure.¶

A set of restrictions and guidelines known as phonotactic constraints govern how syllables are formed in a language. Languages, in the words of linguist Elizabeth Zsiga, -do not permit random sequences of sounds; rather, the sound sequences a language allows are a systematic and predictable part of its structure.¶ Phonotactic constraints are restrictions on the kinds of sounds that are allowed to appear next to each other or in particular positions in the word, according to Zsiga (McMahon, 2002).

Phonotactics is a term believed to have been developed in 1954 by American linguist Robert P. Stockwell, who used it in an unpublished lecture given at the Linguistic Institute in Georgetown. It is formed from the Greek terms for -sound¶ and -arrange.¶ It is asserted by Archibald A. Hill.

#### B. Phonological Sequential Constraints

You are aware of a variety of completely unwritten conventions specific to your

language and accent, regardless of the language you speak. Many of these rules concern grammatical constructions, which need for certain word placement in your sentences in order for them to make sense. Others deal with word pronunciation, such as when to voice and when to leave out sounds when pronouncing specific words. In phonology, *-sequential restrictions* refers specifically to the sound groups that can be combined to form words.

Learning about how sounds occur together and establishing word boundaries both benefit from developing phonotactic sensitivity. According to Kyra Karmiloff and Annette Karmiloff-Smith's 2001 book *Pathways to Language*, published by Harvard University Press,

Think about if you were given the English letters /b/, /l/, /i/, and /k/. These four sounds—/blk/, /klb/,

/blk/, and /klb/—can be joined in a variety of ways to create English words. Only *-bilkl* is a real word, but because we're talking about word creation from the perspective of phonetics, it doesn't important that they all sound real. Your mental phonetic constraint is what persuades your brain that English doesn't have sounds like /kbl/ and /lbk/. Words in English cannot start with the /kb/ or /lb/ sound, according to phonology. Your brain recognizes that a stop consonant cannot be followed by another stop in a word. When starting words or syllables in English, you are only allowed to use three-sound consonant clusters:

First Sound    Second Sound    Third Sound

s	p	l
t	r	
k	w	
	j	

Cluster    Example Word    Transcription

Spl	Split	/splɪt/
Spr	Spring	/sprɪŋ/
Spw	*	
Spy	Spew	/spju/

Stl	*	
Str	Strength	/streŋkθ/
Stw	*	
Sty	*	
Sk1	Sclaff	/sklæf/
Skr	Screed	/skrid/
Skw	Square	/skwɛr/
Sky	Skua	/'skjuə/

*\*These clusters are an exception to the rule, and they are not allowed in English starting forms.*

Take the sound cluster /kspl/ for example. It is obviously not a permitted cluster to begin a word with, but it is perfectly acceptable to have it within other words, as in the word –explicit/ (/ksplst/). Larger clusters are allowed in multisyllabic words because of the syllable boundaries: /k \$ spl \$ st/. As shown in our chart above, the /kspl/ is broken up into a syllable-final /k/ and a syllable-initial /spl/.

We know that –condstluct/ /kandstlkt/ is not a valid word in English since it either includes a /stl/ or /tl/ syllable-initial sound cluster. This is similar to how syllable boundaries make –explicit/ an acceptable /kspl/ cluster. These sequential restrictions are frequently used in English advertising to produce new, meaningless words in the language. Consider the words Bic, Xerox, and Spam, which were not part of the English language when they were first used but sound like true English words because they adhere to the rules for English words. Because it violates our cluster rules, we are unlikely to ever see a company with the name Zhpleet (pronounced –plit/) launch. See lexical gap for further details on this idea. The words "ship" and ||ift|| both begin with the vowel sound //. Information on IPA transcription can be found in International Phonetic Alphabet. The words "ship" and ||ift|| both begin with the vowel sound //. Information on IPA transcription can be found in International Phonetic Alphabet.

### C. Syllables and Their Parts

Words' fundamental building pieces are syllables. Humans seem to require

syllables in order to segment their speech and give it a musical rhythm of strong and weak beats. Syllables are not necessary for language to have meaning; rather, they are only there to make it easier for the brain to process speech. Every word has at least one syllable.

Most English speakers don't have any issue separating words into their separate syllables. Even if a word may be divided differently depending on who you ask, a division is always straightforward and imaginable. The individual syllables of the words listed below have been separated (a period is used to denote the end:

1. Comfortable : com.for.table
2. Handsome : hand.some

Syllables can be broken down into components because they have an internal structure. The components are the onset and rhyme, and the nucleus and coda are contained within the rhyme. The smallest syllable imaginable contains just a nucleus; not all syllables contain all parts. There may or may not be an onset and a coda for a syllable.

Onset describes the initial or pre-nucleus sounds of the syllable. These are consonants in English alone. The vowels [r], [l], [m], and [n] are the syllable's most frequent nuclei, however the consonants [r], [l], [m], [n], and the velar nasal (the ng sound) can also function in this capacity. In the following sentence, the first word is bolded, while the other words are underlined.

1. **Slow**
2. Fast
3. Big

If a word contains more than one syllable, each syllable will have the usual syllable parts:

1.       Hand.some
2.       De.li.cious
3.       Ex.pen.sive

The remainder of the syllable following the initial consonant (the words above that are underlined are examples of rime). The rime can also be broken down into: Coda + nucleus equals rime.

The nucleus, as the name implies, is the central or primary part of a syllable. Only in the presence of a nucleus can a syllable exist. Syllable nuclei are often loud, very -sonorant or resonant noises that have a specific pitch level. In languages like English and the majority of others, vowels make up the majority of the syllable nuclei. The English liquids [l r], nasals [m n], and the often spelt -ngl velar nasal can also act as syllable nuclei in specific situations.

The phrases "read," |flop,| -strap,| and -window| were each broken down into their individual syllables as follows, using IPA symbols to represent the sounds in each syllable:

Big	: one syllable	
Onset	: [ b ]	
Rhyme	: [ ɪ g ]	(within the rhyme) Nucleus : [ ɪ ]
Coda	: [ g ]	
Slow	: one syllable	
Onset	: [ s l ]	
Rhyme	: [ ə ʊ ]	(within the rhyme) Nucleus : [ ə ]
(This syllable has no coda)		

For syllable structure visualization, linguists frequently utilize tree diagrams. With IPA symbols instead of English spelling, the word -big| would look somewhat like this. Syllable (S), onset (O), rhyme ®, nucleus (N), and coda © are the letters that make up a syllable. The typeface used to display this page on your computer may be different, thus the tree may not appear to be aligned properly on your screen. The

Onset node, which separates into the Rhyme and Onset nodes because it has the consonants [f] and [l] in two different locations, is the uppermost syllable node. This syllable has a coda and a nucleus, which causes the Rhyme node to branch.

### 1. Liquids and Nasals As Syllable Nuclei

It is possible for the English liquids (r l) and nasals (m n) to act as the syllable nuclei in certain situations. The final syllables of -mother| and -actor| have vowels in the spelling, but there is no vowel in the pronunciation of -bird,| -word,| -her,| -fur,| the first syllables of -perceive| and -surname,| and the final syllables of -mother|. In the final syllable of a Word, the nasals [m n] and [l] become the syllable nuclei when they follow an alveolar consonant. When a word is employed in a non-formal, informal manner as opposed to a formal one, this happens. Word pronunciations informally and professionally are contrasted.

When one of these sounds is a syllable nucleus, this is shown in transcription by putting a very short vertical line under the IPA symbol

[ r l m n ].  
 . . . .

(If the vertical lines don't line up under the symbols on your screen, it is due to webpage transfer complications.)

### 2. The word -bird| has the syllabic [r] as its nucleus:

Let's try to define the terminologies used in these regulations as most people are unfamiliar with them. A syllable is made up of three distinct components: the onset, the nucleus, and the coda. The rhyme is the combination of the nucleus and the coda. It's vital to remember that only the nucleus of a syllable is necessary; an onset or a coda are not required.

Let's use a straightforward one-syllable term to define each of the three components. All three components of the word -bag| are present: the onset, the nucleus, and the coda.

- a. The onset of a syllable is its initial consonant. That sounds like a /b/.
- b. The syllable's vowel sound serves as the nucleus. That is the short a sound, /æ/.

- c. It may also only consist of one consonant, like the /m/ in the word -rhythm.
- d. The coda is the syllable's final consonant. That sounds like a /g/.

There are also complex onsets and codas, though the former are typically restricted to two or three sounds; the word -twelfths is an example of the latter; see if you can identify each part of the syllable.

If both the onset and the coda are omitted, then you have a vowel-only syllable—for instance, the word -a.

There are also complex onsets and codas, though the former are typically restricted to two or three sounds. The word -twelfths is an example of this; see if you can find each part of the syllable.

We can now begin going over the guidelines:

1. A nucleus exists in every syllable. This necessitates, as I previously mentioned, that each syllable make a vowel sound or a consonant sound.
2. No geminates, 2. English does not distinguish between different consonant lengths, although other languages, including Latin, do. A geminate is essentially a consonant that has been lengthened.
3. No onset of //. The letter -ng is typically used to symbolize the // sound, which may be heard at the conclusion of words like -song. According to this rule, that sound cannot occur at the commencement, or start, of a syllable. This is also the reason why it's so difficult for English speakers to pronounce my last name, Ngai.
4. No /h/ in syllable coda. You can't have the /h/ sound at the end of a syllable. Put simply, don't exhale at the end of syllables.

We must now describe the various categories of consonant sounds.

1. Plosive Consonant
  - a. Produced by a -explosion of air that occurs when pressure builds and is abruptly released.
  - b. Voiceless tones: /p/, /t/, and /k/
  - c. Voiced sounds include /b/, /d/, and /g/.

2. Air is forced through a small tube to produce the fricative consonant
  - a. Unvoiced noises include: /f/, /θ/ (like in think), /s/, and /ʃ/ (like in share).
  - b. Voiced sounds, including /v/, /z/, and /ʒ/ (such as in vision),
3. Nasal Consonant
  - a. Produced by a little airflow via the nose. Voiced sounds (such as those used in songs): /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/
4. Approximant Consonant
  - a. Similar to vowel sounds.
  - b. Voiced sounds: /w/, /r/, /j/, /l/
5. Glottal consonant
  - a. Generated in the throat.
  - b. Unvoiced sound: /h/
6. Affricate consonant
  - a. A combination of a plosive followed by a fricative.
  - b. Unvoiced sound: /tʃ/ (such as in chair)
  - c. Voiced sound: /dʒ/ (such as in judge)

Plosives, fricatives, and affricates are collectively referred to as obstruents. Conversely, nasals and approximants fall under the category of sonorants.

Let's continue with the rules.

### 1. No Affricates in Complex Onsets

You can't put affricates, typically -tʃ and -dʒ, into a complex onset, so they will always be by themselves in a syllable's onset.

### 2. An obstruent must be the first consonant in a complicated onset.

The first part of a complex onset must always be formed through the obstruction of air, whether it is a plosive, fricative, or affricate. This rule applies in words such as -pragmatic or -three.

### 3. A voiced obstruent cannot be the second consonant in a complicated onset.

The second consonant of a complex onset in a syllable cannot be the sounds /b/, /d/, /g/, /v/, /θ/, /z/,

//, or /d/. Congratulations, you've completed half of the rules and half of this response.

The definition of liquids and glides comes next. Simply explained, in English, liquids are the l and r sounds, like in -leanl or -red.l They can be positioned with the most flexibility within a word or syllable.

A glide is a vowel sound that is used in place of a consonant sound; it is also referred to as a semivowel. It is believed to be a subclass of approximants, albeit not everyone agrees on this. They contain the letters w and y, which are found in words like -wel and -yes.l

**4. The second consonant in a complex onset must be a liquid or a glide if the first consonant is not a /s/.**

When you are familiar with the definitions of the terminology employed, this rule should be very self-explanatory. This rule may be seen in phrases like -grandl or -plate,l while the word -spidel (which has a /s/ followed by a plosive) illustrates the exception with /s/.

This rule is fairly self-explanatory when you know the definitions of the terms used. This rule can be observed in words such as -**grand**l or -**plate**l and the exception with /s/ can be observed in the word -**spide**l (an /s/ followed by a plosive).

The Substring Principle, which states that every sequence included within a series of consonants must adhere to all applicable phonotactic rules

I... honestly don't know. I'm a high-schooler; give me a break.

**5. No Glides in Codas**

The w and y sounds can't go at the end, or coda, of a syllable.

**6. The Second Consonant of a Complex Coda Must Not Be ŋ/, /ʒ/, or /ð/**

Again, this should be fairly self-explanatory at this point.

**7. If a Complex Coda's First Consonant Is Voiced, Then So Is The Second**

The vocal chords are used to produce the voiced consonants. The second consonant in a compleonset can be voiced or unvoiced if the first consonant is unvoiced. It must be voiced if not. We're getting close. Just a simple explanation of what —place of articulationl refers to.

By blocking airflow to varying degrees and in diverse locations, consonants

are produced. We won't go through each of the 18 different designated points of articulation. I merely want to mention that an alveolar sound, like the /n/ sound, is produced by blocking airflow directly behind the upper teeth.

Homorganic refers to the production of two sounds from the same location by blocking airflow. For instance, even though one is nasal and the other is plosive, the sounds /m/ and /p/ would be considered homorganic since they both impede airflow at the lips.

**8. The following segment's non-alveolar nasals must be homorganic.**

Since the non-alveolar nasals in English are /m/ and /ŋ/, the next component must be homorganic.

**9. The voicing of two obstruents in the same coda must be shared.**

A syllable's coda has two obstruents, two of which must either have voices (voicing) or not (devoicing).

Like I stated, explaining the meaning of each of these principles to people takes a lot of time. Even though we are unable to clearly list them, we all instinctively understand these laws. Everything that doesn't adhere to these standards sounds distinctly non-English because that is how language functions.

# CHAPTER 8

## PROSODIC AND SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY

### A. Prosodic

#### a. Definition prosodic

In phonetics, prosody (or suprasegmental phonology) is the use of pitch, volume, tempo, and rhythm in speech to convey information about the structure and meaning of utterances. Alternatively, in the study of literature, prosody is the theory and principles of verse, especially as it relates to rhythm, accent and verse. In speech, unlike composition, there are no periods or capital letters, grammatical ways of emphasizing emphasis, as in writing. Instead, speakers use prosody to add inflection and depth to statements and arguments by varying stress, pitch, volume, and rhythm, which can then be translated into writing to achieve the same effect. Furthermore, prosody, unlike composition, does not rely on the sentence as a basic unit, but often uses fragments and spontaneous interruptions between the emphases of thoughts and ideas. This allows the language to be versatile depending on stress and intonation.

In linguistics, prosody is also known as suprasegmental prosody or phonology, which is about the way speech sounds are put together. This is why some people call prosody "musical" language. Prosodic features are a set of language features (also known as suprasegmental) that are used to convey meaning and emphasis in spoken language (Cho, 2016)

#### b. Prosodic features

Prosodic features are different types of categories (categories that distinguish one linguistic unit from other linguistic units) which include tone, stress, and emphasis:

##### 1) Tone

From the perspective of acoustic phonetics, all sound is air vibration, and the higher the frequency of the vibration (which is usually counted by

ticks), the higher the pitch. Headphones most easily pick up the notes of the tongue, which are formed when a narrow groove forms between the vocal cords, and the frequency of the air vibrations is determined by the vibrational frequency of the vocal cords. the term tone is tone. One variation of pitch that follows an entire sentence or part of a sentence is the intonation (intonation) or melody of a song. You can easily hear that we don't use the same tone when speaking; try saying a few phrases on the first notes of a guitar or piano and you'll quickly hear how strange they sound. So, almost every word in a sentence (and it's not uncommon for just one word) to be pronounced in a different tone. It creates a song in a sentence: intonation. To facilitate the analysis of intonation, phoneticians and phonologists use terms such as: sound "high" (high), "low" (low), "medium" (attack); or high and low separated only by numbers,

e.g. the numbers 1-4, as in music (but not the same as the spacing between notes in music). For

example, the sentence Did you eat? Intonation can be analyzed as follows:

In other words, intonation starts at 4, drops to 1 at the beginning of the word eat, and rises to 3 at the end of the sentence. Its exact height can only be determined in a phonetic laboratory. But even without laboratory equipment, we can obtain satisfactory analyzes, especially if we are musically gifted and our ear is "sensitive" to low sounds.(Iosad, 2016)

## 2) Stress and Stress

Stress (stress in English) and accent (accent) are very difficult to distinguish from one another. its attainment lies in its conditions, and it is also seen in the facts determined by those conditions. Or in other words, the difficulties are mostly terminological in nature ("terminology" = terminology) and for some difficulties are factual, that is, they involve facts. Phoneticians and phonologists have not solved the terminological problem. The English term emphasis is often used as the name of an accent, so emphasis and accent are the same thing. For example, the French rule that any last stressed syllable of a word can also be expressed with an accent accent. Or, for example, in English, there is a rule that the last syllable before the -ic or -ical ending must be stressed, or another word says that the syllable must be stressed. So, for

such symptoms, we decided to use the term accent instead of the term emphasis in Indonesian: the term "accent" replaces the term "stress". Don't confuse the meaning of the scientific term "accent" with the everyday meaning of "accent", where "accent" often means "accent" or the pronunciation according to a particular language or dialect. We use the term "pressure" in the natural sciences as "amplitude" (from the Latin word amplitude "width"). Amplitude is the "width" of the air vibrations. This is clearly different from the frequency stated in the passport. (14) above. The zero frequency height is proportional to the amplitude of each vibration. for example if you move your hand in front of your chest from right to left and back twice a second you can increase the "frequency" to "2" with an "amplitude" of ten centimeters or an amplitude of 30 centimeters. Actually the frequency up to 2 seconds is not audible. But you may hear a sound whose pitch matches the frequency you're generating. If so, what is the amplitude of the motion? The sound is louder when the amplitude is 30 inches, softer when only ten inches. So the amplitude is thirty inches, finer than if it were only ten inches. So this amplitude determines the loudness of the sound produced. It is independent of frequency.(Cho, 2016).

## **B. Suprasegmental**

### a. The suprasegmental definition

Is something that accompanies the phoneme which can be in the form of intonation, pitch, and sound vibrations that indicate certain emotions. Verhaar (2010) explained that these suprasegmental sounds include intonation, tone, accent and stress."Although the terms 'suprasegmental' and 'prosodic' largely coincide in their scope and reference, it is nevertheless sometimes useful, and desirable, to distinguish them. To begin with, the simple 'segmental' vs 'suprasegmental' dichotomy does justice to the richness of phonological structure 'above' the segment;... this structure is complex, involving many different dimensions, and prosodic features cannot simply be seen as features superimposed on the segment.More

importantly, a distinction can be made between 'suprasegmental' as a mode of description in one hand

and 'prosodic' as a kind of feature on the other we can use the term 'suprasegmental' to refer to a particular formalization in which phonological features can be analyzed in this way, whether prosodic or not."

The term 'prosodic, on the other hand, can be applied to certain features of speech regardless of how they are formalized; In principle, prosodic characteristics can be analyzed segmentally or suprasegmentally. To give a more concrete example, in some features of the theoretical framework such as nasality or sound can be treated suprasegmentally, as it has gone beyond the single segment boundary. However, in the usage adopted here, the feature is not prosodic, although it may be amenable to suprasegmental analysis."(Romportl & Matoušek, 2005)

"Suprasegmental information is marked in speech by variations in duration, tone, and amplitude (loudness). This kind of information helps listeners divide signals into words, and can even directly influence lexical retrieval."

"In English, lexical stress serves to distinguish words from each other another...for example,compare trusty and trustee. Not surprisingly, English speakers noticing stress patterns during lexical access.'

"Suprasegmental information can also be used to identify the location of word boundaries. In a language such as English or Dutch, monosyllable words differ markedly in duration from polysyllabic words. For example, [hæm] in ham has a longer duration than in hamsters. Investigation by Salverda, Dahan, and McQueen (2003) demonstrated that this duration information is actively used by listeners.

Suprasegmentals are elements that "accompany" and influence speech sounds, and are not true sounds. and it is because it is not a true sound that the suprasegmental element is named that way.

Suprasegmental elements are also called prosody. The easiest way to understand suprasegmental elements is through an acoustic phonetic approach.

There are two acoustic properties that affect the suprasegmental elements, namely frequency and amplitude.

These two elements are very influential in the suprasegmental element which is very related. Verhaar (2010) explained that these suprasegmental sounds include intonation, tone, accent and stress. In fact, the phonetic description of suprasegmental sounds is only the basis for the phonemic description. However, in many cases the phonetic and phonemic aspects are indistinguishable. Whereas Muslich (2010) explains that the sounds of language when spoken can be segmented, or separated, for example all sounds vocoid and kontoid. Sounds that can be segmented are called segmental sounds. (Iosad, 2016)

But, there are also sounds that cannot be segmented because of the presence of sound it always accompanies, overlies, or accompanies segmental sounds (both vocoid and kontoid). Because of its nature, the sound is called a suprasegmental sound, instead of being called nonsegmental sounds. By phonetists, these suprasegmental sounds are grouped into four types, namely those concerning the aspects of sound pitch (pitch), loudness and softness (pressure), length and shortness of sound (tempo), and silence .

- Suprasegmental

Vowels and consonants can be thought of as the segments of which speech is composed. Together they form the syllables, which go to make up utterances. Related to the syllables, there are other features known as suprasegmentals. In other words, suprasegmental features are the aspects of speech that involve more than single consonants or vowels.

These features are independent of the categories required for describing segmental features (vowels and consonants), which involve, for examples, air stream mechanism, states of the glottis, and so on. The components of suprasegmental features consist of: stress, pitch, intonation, tone, tempo, and cluster.

1. Stress

Stress is the rhythm of language. In pronunciation, stress can refer to a word, part of a word, or even a word in a group of words that gets the most

stress.

Stress is one of the suprasegmental features of speech. and This applies not only to individual vowels and consonants but to all syllables. At the word level, stressed syllables are pronounced using more energy than unstressed syllables.(*Beckman1993\_The Interplay between Prosodic Structure and Co-Articulation.Pdf*, n.d.)

## 2. Pitch

Based on the articulatory aspect, tone is influenced by the tension of the vocal cords. If the vocal cords are stretched, the pitch of the voice will increase.

Pitch refers more to the normal melodic height of a person's speech. It's like the high or low level of someone's speech.

Usually we use tones as part of our signaling system. Although we use many pitch levels in speaking, we only use four relative pitch levels as phonemes. that is :

1 >> low

2 >> normal

3 >> height

4 >> ekstra high

In other words, the normal pitch of speech regardless of actual pitch is called grade 2; and from here, we vary it up and down. The variations in tone that we make in speaking will affect the intonation of our pronunciation.

## 3. Intonation

Intonation shows how the 'music' of a language rises and falls in a speech. In other words, it can also be interpreted as fluctuations in a person's voice, which are characterized as a downward or upward movement of sound or sound in speech as a result of variations in pitch. So, sentence intonation is a pattern of changes in tone that occurs.

#### 4. Tone

Variations in tone that can affect the meaning of a tone. The meaning of a word depends on the tone.

Tone shown or heard in how something is said. It's more like a stance than it is a sound pattern. Emotions also have a lot of influence on a person's tone of voice. By using different tones, the words in a sentence can have different meanings.

#### 5. Tempo

Speech tempo is the relative speed or slowness of utterances as measured by the rate of change of syllables, number and pauses in a sentence.

In English, speakers try to make the amount of time to say something the same between stressed syllables. If there are three or four unstressed syllables among the stressed syllables, for example, the unstressed syllables will be pronounced more quickly, allowing the speaker to keep up the rhythm. For this reason, English is said to be a "language of stressed time".(Iosad, 2016)

#### 6. Clusters

Cluster is when two consonants from different places of articulation are then produced together in the same syllable.

Note: clusters are defined by sounds, not letters of words.

Clusters can appear in early, middle/medial, or late positions

words:

Initial clusters are usually formed by combining various consonants with phonemes /s/, /r/, or /l/.

Example:

sleep ['sli:p], green ['gri:n], blue ['blu:]

The medial/middle group usually appears at the beginning of the second or third syllable in polysyllabic words.(Cole & Shattuck-Hufnagel, 2011)

Example:

regret [ri'gret], apply [ə'plɑr], approve [e'pru:v]

The final cluster usually consists of various phonemes including /sk/, /mp/, /ns/, /st/, and /nk/. Example:

desk ['desk], camp ['kæmp], mince ['mins], fast ['fa:st], bank ['bæŋk]. pause).(Fuchs et al., 2016)

## **CHAPTER 9**

### **PHONOLOGICAL RULES**

#### **A. Definition Of Phonological Rules**

According to (Obied, 2015) Phonological rules are a step in linguistic communication, both in text and spoken form, and is a science that understands what phonological rules are and why they exist. Phonological rules are considered as the most important aspect of learning English. Besides that, phonological rules are a formal way of expressing systematic phonological and morphological processes or sound changes in a language. Phonological rules are used as notations to capture the operations and sound calculations of the human brain when understanding and producing spoken language.

To understand the rules of speech, we need to understand what phonemes are. Phonological rules are the rules that govern how the voice changes during spoken communication (whether written or spoken).

#### **B. The Idea Behind of Phonological Rules**

According to (Aissen, 1987) generative phonologists who study phonological rules extensively start from the fundamental assumption that each speaker has in his head a psychic filled with entries abstract in form phonological. The entries of these abstract stores are the imagine underlies and are used intake to speech array. This basic form then experiencing changes determined by the phonetic rule. The result of this process is the phonetic imagine of the pronunciation. In the phonological rules of the English language, there are many deletions, one of which is assimilation where the phoneme can change one or two features.

#### **C. Characteristic of Phonological Rules**

A linguist mentions a few characteristics of phonological rules, including the following:

1. Language specificity : in every language, of course, it has its own phonological rules that are not owned by other languages, even in dialects of other languages.

2. Productivity : phonological rules apply to every word, even new words. for example, when someone is asked to pronounce the plural form of "bag", then that person pronounces "s" as [z] not [s].
3. Untaught and unconscious : one applies this rule without being aware of it, then derives the rule without clear instruction.
4. Intuitive : The presence of phonological rules gives someone intuition about how words are properly formed and acceptable. if someone who has understood phonological rules, then hears a word that is not appropriate then that word will sound foreign to him.

Types of Phonological Rules

### 5. Methathesis

A form of change in pronunciation of a word (linguistic phenomena and transposition of sounds). this usually occurs in words or in syllables.

for example in the change of Old English and contemporary English

Old English	Contemporary English
Comfterble	Comfortable
Asterix	Asterisk
Reletor	Realtor

### 6. Co-Articulation

Is how the order of vowels and consonants is regulated by the brain which connects individual movements to become a unified whole. generally recognized as a situation where sound pronunciation is conceptually isolated. co-articulation has two types:

- 1) Anticipatory co-articulation, when sound characteristics are anticipated (assumed) during sound production.
- 2) Carryover/perseverative co-articulation, the visible effect of sound on the sound production(s) that follows.

In phonetic co-articulation refers to different phenomena, the assimilation of the place of articulation in one sound and the production of the articulated

consonants.

## 7. Assimilation

That is, where one word has its features changed, that word will change to be more similar to adjacent sounds. According to an excerpt from (Obied, 2015) Hyman (1952:221-3), assimilation focuses on adaptive modified fragments in adjacent chain fragments. Regarding the types of assimilation, a scientist named Hyman suggested that other scientists clarify assimilation more differently.

### ▪ Kinds of Assimilation

There are three kinds of assimilation, as follows :

- a. Speech context assimilation. The effects that particular fragment by choosing a specific type of that fragment.
- b. phonemic assimilation is commonly referred to as "neutralization". It is more systematic, there are free changes will not affect it. Produced by phonemic assimilation i.e. the neutralization of the two phonemes.

According to an excerpt from (Obied, 2015) Dirven (2004:119), lemo allamasa  
aes al massa emo

o loaoomlo rd eo aesaaso ass et os as astemmas ass mosasos a ias  
ems redssamaolo al as s looacsr l osol memo kemmen.

- c. Morphology or morphophoneme assimilation affects the whole morpheme. It usually determines allomorphs according to morpheme rules. Instead, it's phonetic.

## 8. Segment of Deleting Rule

Delete or remove one or more phonemes from a word either vowels, consonants or syllables. In another explanation, deletion is also known as elision. where elision itself is a combination of several phonemes. In the sense that the result of this elision process is articulation in one phoneme. As one example, that is, in the word "handbag" in American English the pronunciation [d] is omitted. According to an excerpt from (KE, 2016) Deletion, also called elision, is the merger of a phoneme with another (Lass, 1998).

## 9. Dissimilation

Two words that have similar pronunciations, so that pronunciation is done

that is able to distinguish the two words. This rule can be very easily understood when someone who is still learning English says two words with similar pronunciations, then it will seem difficult for him. For example in the words "annual" and "annular", the two words have similar pronunciations. So it will be difficult to tell the difference for people who don't understand this rule.

#### **D. The function of phonological rules**

Phonological rules have several functions, including:

1. Change the eigenvalues
2. Provide new features in English
3. Shorten the word
4. Give additional sentences, for example in the English plural form the basic word will be added with "s/es"
5. Rearrange a word
6. Phonological rules give changes to all words, not individually
7. Describe what happens to a sound in a word

#### **E. Conclusion**

Phonological rules are considered as the most important aspect of learning English. Besides that, phonological rules are a formal way of expressing systematic phonological and morphological processes or sound changes in a language. Phonological rules are used as notations to capture the operations and sound calculations of the human brain when understanding and producing spoken language. These rules are written in special symbols that encode how a phoneme or group of phonemes is modified in appearance in a particular locale. In essence, phonetic rules is the study of changes in a phoneme.

## CHAPTER 10 MORPHOPHONEMIC

### A. Definition Morphophonemic

Two of the key elements of a language system are word structure (morphology) and sound structure (phonology). But frequently, these systems interact and have intriguing effects on one another, giving rise to a phenomenon known as "morphophonemics." Sometimes, as a result of this interaction, a morpheme's pronunciation may shift slightly or entirely. These modifications may be frequent or sporadic and are often context-sensitive. Within "morphophonemics" (Khan, 2019). Morphophonemics is the investigation of the various components of phonology and morphology that affect the way morphemes are pronounced and conversely, the appearance of phonemes. Investigate the way that morphological and linguistic processes interact and the effect of these processes on one another. Typically, the morpheme boundaries are the locations of morphophonemic transience, which involves sounds that are connected to different phonemes. (Khan, 2019).

The use of infinitives in English is a very obvious example of morphophoneme. The indefinite article in English has two forms: a and an. The indefinite article appears as "a" (mango or cat) when the word occurs after an initial consonant, but as "an" (apple or idiot) if the consonant appears. (Khan, 2019).

The study of phonological variations within morphemes, which typically denote different grammatical functions, is known as morphophonemics. Examples of these variations include the vowel changes between "sleep" and "slept," "bind" and "bound," "vain" and "vanity," and the consonant alternations between "knife" and "knives," "loaf" and "loaves" (Khan, 2019).

- **Phoneme:** A Phoneme is the smallest component of speech that is capable of meaning and is distinguished by its sound. Typically, phonemes are located within slanted brackets. The English alphabet has 26 letters. However, 44 of the 26 letters represent phonemes. For example, the phoneme "\_k" can be found in words like "cut," "kite," "school," and "skin."

- **Phone:** A phone is a means of expressing oneself or the exterior form of phonology. Square brackets [ ] are typically employed to write phone numbers. In phrases like spat and spoon, the phoneme /p/ is demonstrated (pronounced) as [p], whereas words like pin, pick, and poll are [ph].
- **Morpheme:** A minimum, or singular, unit of description is called a morpheme. Because of their composition (free and bound), their content (zero and null), and their functions (derivational and inflexional), morphemes can be categorized into different classes.
- A morph is the external representation or shape of a morpheme in its phonological environment. For example, various linguistic settings have plural morphemes that are implemented as [s] (cats and bats), [z] (dogs and calls), and [ɹ] (judges and church).

Rules about morphophonemic constructs: A morphophonemic construction is confined to a specific environmental area and is written as a rule of phonology. Morphophonemic rules, unlike phonological rules, are dependent on the surrounding environment. The rule is said to be morphophonemic when additional details are needed to accurately describe the context of a linguistic rule.

## **B. Morphophonemic Rules**

When morphemes interact, their influence on one another's sound structure (as analyzed at a phonetic or phonemic level) is observed, and this results in different pronunciations for the same morpheme. For example, Cats, dogs, and horses in English are derived from the plural morpheme, which is "-s" or "-es." A purely linguistic analysis would probably assign these three ending types the linguistic representation. S, z, and tz.

(Definite, n.d.) A morphophonemic is considered to be one of the phonemic from {s,z,tz }, the different varieties of this morpheme are contingent on the last segment of the morpheme. The behavior of the English past tense ending "ed" is similar. Example: Bonned, bobbed, and added.

The Fact About the Last Unit:

1. The suffix /-d/, which is present in English, has the qualities listed below:
2. Pronounce it as "-ed", even if not as written.
3. I it attaches to (most) verbs.
4. I it's at the top of its game.

5. It's used to describing actions that took place in the past. -buzzl [b2z] -buzzedl [b2zd]

1.	“-sigh-” {saj}	“-sighed-” {sajd}
2.	“-grab-” {gôæb}	“-grabbed-” {gôæbd}
3.	“-call-” {kAl}	“-called-” {kAlɔd}
4.	“fan” [fæn]	“fanned” [fænd]
5.	“-save-” {sejv}	“-saved-” {sejvd}

*Note: Morphophonemic Rules*

As a result, it's obvious that the distribution of plural allomorphs in English is not random, but is instead contingent on the phonological environment at the appropriate boundary of the morpheme. Typically, the allomorph with the greatest amount of Wisemen is considered the most appropriate candidate for underneath representation. In this instance, /-z/ is eligible to become an allomorphic feature as it occurs after the majority of voiced consonants and after all vowels. From allomorph/-z/, other allomorphs/s/ and/əz/ have been derived. This entire procedure can be understood via (a set of) rules called morphophonemic rules. (Khan, 2019).

**You should**

Allomorphs are variants with a unique set of grammatical or lexical features. All allomorphs with the same set of characteristics form a morpheme. A morpheme is a

### C. PLURAL FORMATION

The plural of a word refers to more than one form of a person or thing. The noun

means judgment or mass, but the form is calculated by adding structure (neo-constructivist view). According to (Mathieu, 2013) the addition of plural forms has a very personal effect. After classifying the masses, the counting function is performed. Define and assign a number that determines how many people there are in a given context. In this sense, the complex number acts as a classifier and the two exist in complementary distributions.

There are three different pronunciations of the usual plural noun endings. It can also be divided into the following categories:

1. The plural -s ending is definitely /z/ after the articulation sound. That is, when the noun ending is pronounced—if you can enjoy the perception of your larynx vibrating at the end of the noun you're saying—it's /z/. Example: Parent, Mother, Son, Daughter, Room, Dog, School, Day, Year, Life.
2. The plural -s ending must be /s/ after an unspoken sound. This means that even if every noun ending is voiceless—when you don't like hearing your throat vibrate at noun endings—say a /s/ sound. Example: book, desk, cat, mug, group, student, boss, back view.
3. the plural ending -s is pronounced with an extra syllable - like "iz" - after several different noun endings, both articulated and unvoiced:

<b>1.</b>	After the -s“ sound :	Classes ,glasses, kisses,horses,places,sentences,faces,offices.
<b>2.</b>	After the "z" sound:	size, exercise, rose, noise, quiz
<b>3.</b>	After the "sh" sound:	pottery, bushes, wishes
<b>4.</b>	After the "ch" sound:	matches, sandwiches, clocks

## D. PRESENT PARTICIPLE

Regarding opinion (Meltzer-Asscher, 2010) how is the state of word segmentation now? Intuition is a

-verbal adjectival which is another name for the -neutral category it is associated with.

Now Present Participles imply proof that participles exist both in determinations like (1) where they denote an event, i.e. the same as a verb, and in sentences like (2) where they denote a separate property, e.g. Adjectives: (1), usually equated with -ing and following other verbs, indicate an ongoing activity. It is used to establish power continuity.

1. The Children **watching** Television
2. Jen saw John **teasing** the children.
3. The weather is **getting** colder and colder.

No	Verb 1	Verb 3/Present Participle
1.	Shock	Shocking
2.	Convince	Convincing
3.	Confuse	Confusing
4.	Frighten	Frightening
5.	Surprise	Surprising

*Note : present participle*

syntactic facts about the present participle, a brief note regarding its morphology is in order. As you know, in English, present participles are forms that end in -ing. In Hebrew, the present participle appears with a same morphological form to a verb a verb in using one of the five non-passive verbal templates in the present tense the present tense, in one of the five non-passive verbal templates from languages However it should be noted that regardless of their morphological identity in present tense verb forms, present participles as in ( are not inflected for tense, as in English. Contains a word to incorporate morphological operations along with syntactic and semantic processes like category change and change.

With its status as a verb which is always the verb –ing, maybe we will be confused, what is the difference between the present participle and the gerund in the previous verb material?

The function of the gerund is as a noun or a nounized verb, while the main function of the present participle can be either a verb or an adjective. To prove the function of a verb, the present participle generally appears after "to be", regardless of the tenses. Examples are "is talking", "is daydreaming", "was chatting", and others. Meanwhile, to prove the function of an adjective, the present participle generally appears without "to be", such as "the guy sitting", "the train approaching", and so on. There are several cases of the present participle as an adjective function that is placed before a noun, such as "sleeping bag", "drawing pen", and others.

An explanation of the present participle material for example the following sentences:

1. She is talking with her friends now.

Explanation: In this example sentence, "talking" (from the origin of verb 1 "talk") is done by "she" (he, subject) is a present participle that functions as a verb by having "to be" before it. "To be" itself is in the form of verb 1, namely "is"

2. The guy sitting at the backseat is my brother.

Explanation: This example sentence has the same noun as its subject, namely "the guy". Meanwhile, the present participle that functions as an adjective without "to be" is "sitting" (sit, from the origin of verb 1 "sit").

3. They have slept inside that large-sized sleeping bag.

Explanation: The presence of "sleeping" (sleep, from the origin of the verb 1 "sleep") in the example sentence with the subject "they" (they) illustrates the function of the present participle as an adjective that is placed before a noun. The noun in this example sentence is "bag".

## **E. PAST PARTICIPLE**

In standard Italian, the past participle deals with the internal arguments of subject positions (in the non- accusative, passive, and intermediate clauses), through reflexive constructions opinions (Scheer, 2019) by advancing the antecedents with meditation) and prepositions.

A past participle is a word that has the following three properties: Consists of a verb.

- Used as an adjective or to form a verb.
- May end with **-ed”,-d”,-t”,-en”,-or”,-n”**.

As a verb, the past participle always follows the form to have (have, have, or have). In this way, if the particle is placed before the verb, the tense can be used to denote the verb. Apart from that, some common verbs are usually used in everyday conversation.

Example 1:

Example 2:

NO	Verb1	Verb 2/ past participle
1.	Swallow	Swallowed
2.	Jump	Jumped
3.	Relax	Relaxed
4.	Depress	Depressed
5.	Charm	Charmed

NO	Verb 1	Verb 2 / Irregular verb
1.	Arise	Arisen
2.	catch	Caught
3.	Chosen	Chosen
4.	Know	Known

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