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**Expression of English and Uzbek phonetic terms in
monolingual dictionaries**

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Introduction

After gaining the independence, the learning of English language became popular and useful in Uzbekistan. There are a lot of special schools in Uzbekistan, where English is taught from the first form. Of course, we can see that phonetics is also important in studying English.

Uzbekistan borders the countries of Middle East. It is rich in natural resources and has a good commercial potential which played great role in entering the international arena almost immediately after gaining independence. The early 1990s, led Uzbekistan increasingly to seek ties with other countries. After independence, Uzbekistan had been recognized by 120 countries and had opened thirty-nine foreign embassies.

Uzbekistan is a large scientific center in Central Asia. Almost 300 scientific institutions function in the country. The scientists of the republic carry out fundamental research in the important trends of modern science contributing greatly in such branches like microelectronics, astronomy, biophysics, genetics and geology. There is the National Program of training specialists and the Law on Education has laid the foundation for reformations of the educational system in Uzbekistan.

The changes taking place in education are done to evaluate the meaning and the structure of education. Science and technology development brings up the democracy of society and mass media which effects the development of the way of thinking and imagination of young generation. It is not a secret that children try to know more about the world and the events going on around the world. Now the new generation is curious about the changes in nowadays life and lifestyle. They are trying to be in the center of current events and want to be aware of everything. Today

our young people are studying various sciences. The main task of the modern education is to be respectful to the student's personality and to be able to satisfy their educational needs and demands. Our president I. A. Karimov says: "I am definitely sure that XXI century will be the spiritual, educational, scientific, and informational century. Education is essential for the masses." *1 To reach this aim we should get rid of means of old educational system and use new modern lesson styles and new methods of teaching.

The National Program of training specialists and the Law on Education have laid the foundation for reformations of the educational system in Uzbekistan. The National Program is oriented to the formation of a new generation of experts with high professional and general culture distinguished for their creative and social activity. The program, among other things, stipulates the formation of absolutely new structures - the academic lyceums and colleges. On February 24, 1998, the Cabinet of Ministers adopted a special decree on organizing lyceums, colleges and their management. The reason for the formation of them lies in the fact that students will acquire not only basic but also specialized knowledge on certain disciplines for further training in an institution of higher learning. Within 3 years boys and girls master 2-3 professions.

Nowadays students depending on the knowledge gained from the University trying to work and practice teaching English at schools, colleges and lyceums. By teaching and practicing at schools graduates strengthen their knowledge and skills. This at the same time brings to have steady and strong knowledge, develops and broadens their worldview, makes them more capable, develops their abilities and capability to learning foreign languages.

President I. Karimov in his book “Barkamol avlod orzusi” says: “We don’t need graduates, but we need educated and well-mannered people”. Educated, intelligent, diplomatic people are the face of the nation. They are the models of people living in the country. The young generation must be knowledgeable of all spheres of life. Learning literature of foreign countries helps our people to broaden their world out look, to get a better knowledge of the culture and tradition of other nations. This knowledge will contribute in strengthening friendly bonds between our country and countries. taking into consideration this fact we tried to do our research in learning Uzbek and English phonetic terms.

This scientific work sets out to show similarity and differences of English and Uzbek phonetic terms. The work considers phonetic branches of linguistics. It devoted to the analyses of phonetic terms in two non-related languages:

- 1) English phonetic terms and their meanings in the explanatory dictionaries;
- 2) Uzbek phonetic terms and their meanings in the explanatory dictionaries.
- 3) English and Uzbek phonetic terms and their differentiation and similarities in two non-related languages.

The present research is aimed at investigating similarity and differences of the English and Uzbek phonetic terms and their formation in explanatory dictionaries. The major research focus in the field of English and Uzbek phonetic terms and their similarity and differences.

The textbooks on theoretical phonetics and explanatory dictionaries provide only scanty information about phonetic terms. However, the phonetic terms of English and Uzbek is liable to present us with a whole bundle of problems.

The object of investigation is the English and Uzbek languages phonetic terms and their explanations in explanatory dictionaries.

The subject of research is the English and Uzbek languages phonetic terms, paradigmatic correlation and syntagmatic peculiarities of phonetic terms, their similarity and differences.

Method of investigation. Such methods of investigation, as comparative-typological, semantic, distributional and the elements of the quantitative analysis are used in this dissertation work.

The level of studidness Many scientists worked on this theme. For example Abdulazizov studied only consonant sounds. He examined all features of consonant sounds. Many researches are done on this theme but they are done on one phonetic term and we studied all the terms in comparative way. In this research terms are worked out in both language dictionaries.

The novelty of the work. As we mentioned above the phonetic terms are studied by many scientists. They studied one phonetic term and its features. But we gathered all phonetic terms and compared them in Uzbek and English languages.

The tasks of this scientific work are:

- to determine the English and Uzbek phonetic terms and its formal characteristics;
- to carry out the analysis of English and Uzbek phonetic terms;
- to analyze the main English and Uzbek phonetic terms;
- to compare English and Uzbek phonetic terms;
- to explore English and Uzbek phonetic terms;
- to examine the use of English and Uzbek phonetic terms and to determine their semantic preferences.

According to the spheres of concern the work falls into an Introduction, three chapters, conclusions and the list of references which together with the appendix comprises 90 pages.

Chapter I devoted to the phonetics as a branch of linguistics, its aspects, types, methods and history of phonetics

Chapter II is concerned with the historical development of English and Uzbek phonetics.

Chapter III devoted to using of phonetic terms in English and Uzbek explanatory dictionaries. Using of phonetic terms in English explanatory dictionaries. Using of phonetic terms in Uzbek explanatory dictionaries. Similarities and differences of phonetic terms in English and Uzbek explanatory dictionaries.

Most of the examples presented in this scientific work are taken from modern English-English, Uzbek-Uzbek explanatory dictionaries.

Chapter I. Phonetics as a branch of linguistics

I.1. Aspects, types and methods of phonetics

This chapter is dedicated to the theme “Phonetics as a branch of linguistic”. The study of phonetics and phonetics as a branch of linguistic has always been one of the most interesting, disputable and important problems of theoretical phonetics of modern English. Phonetics is a field in linguistics that specializes in studying single sounds within language. Phonetics concerns itself with how the sounds are produced, how they sound to other listeners and how the brain perceives the sounds. Like all linguistic fields, phonetics studies all languages.

The main aim of this chapter is to give information about phonetics and its contribution in linguistic.

The main aim of our present research puts forward the following tasks to fulfill:

- Articulatory phonetics is the study of how speech is made with the mouth, tongue and lungs.
- Acoustic phonetics is the study of how speech sounds acoustically, such as speech frequency and harmonics.
- Auditory phonetics is the study of how speech is perceived by the brain.

The main material of given research work is taken from different books on theoretical and practical phonetics especially English Phonetics[5,34; 48,23; 36,67; 56,45].

The theoretical value of the present research work is that the theoretical part of the work can be used in delivering lectures on the Theoretical Phonetics of Modern English.

The practical value of the present research work is that the practical results gained by investigating the giving problem may be used as examples or mini-tests in seminars and practical lessons of English Phonetics.

Structurally the present research work consists of four parts - Introduction, Main part, Conclusion and Bibliography.

Language as “the most important means of human intercourse” exists in the material form of speech sounds. It cannot exist without being spoken. Oral speech is primary process of communication by means of language. Written speech is secondary; it presents what exists in oral speech [7, 23].

Linguistic signals first said to be composed of some units, which are divided into significant and non - significant ones. The relationship between all the units or elements of a language includes different notions starting from sounds, morphemes, words, word combinations and ending up with phrases.

The scientific study of a language involves an explanation of a mass of notions in terms of a rigorously organized and highly patterned system - the link between the units.

The whole system of relation of linguistic units forms a system of a language. The character of a system, or the way this system works explain the structure of a language.

All languages differ in systems and structures.

Phonetics is concerned with the human noises by which the thought is actualized or given audible shade: the nature of these noises, their combinations, and their functions in relation to the meaning.

Phonetics studies the sound system of the language, that is segmental phonemes, word stress, syllabic structure and intonation.

It is primarily concerned with expression level. However, phonetics is obliged to take the content into consideration too, because at any stage of the analysis, a considerable part of the phonetician's concern is with the effect

which the expression unit he is examining and its different characteristics have on meaning.

Only meaningful sound sequences are regarded as speech, and the science of phonetics, in principle at least, is concerned only with such sounds produced by a human vocal apparatus or may be learners of organized information of language.

Consequently, phonetics is important in the study of language. An understanding it is a prerequisite to any adequate understanding of the structure of working of language. No kind of linguistic study can be made with but consonant consideration of the material on the expression level.

It follows from this, that phonetics a basis brunch or fundamental brunch of linguistics, that is why phonetics claims to be of equal importance with grammar and lexicology. Phonetics has two main divisions: phonology, the Study of sound patterns of languages, of how a spoken language functions as a "code", and the study of substance, that carries the code. It shows that there is a close relationship between the language and thought. In modern linguistics this relationship is explained the terms of distinctions: substance and form. By the term "substance" we mean the material - carries of all the elements of a language and the term form" we mean linguistic concepts. Human speech is called the "phonic substance" in which linguistic forms are manifested. The speech may be either oral or written. The term "phonetics" comes - from the Greek word "phone" - meaning sound, voice and "-tica" - a science. So, phonetics is a special science which studies the phonetic substance and expressions area of the language. The linguistic form and content are described by other brunches of linguistics, namely grammar (morphology and syntax) lexicology (vocabulary, the formation and the meaning of the words) and stylistics (expressive - emotional meaning). Human speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events. The

formation of the concept takes place at a linguistic level, that is in the brain of the speaker;

This stage may be called psychological. The message formed within the brain is first transmitted along the nervous system to the speech organs. Therefore we may say that the human brain controls the behavior of the articulating organs which effects in producing a particular pattern of speech sounds. This second stage may be called physiology. The movements of the speech apparatus disturb the air stream thus producing sound waves. Consequently the third stage may be called physical or acoustic. Further, any communication requires a listener, as well as a speaker.

So, the last stages are the reception of the sound waves by the listener's, hearing physiological apparatus, the transmission of the spoken message through the nervous system to the brain and the linguistic interpretation of the information conveyed [48, 27].

In accordance with their linguistic function the organs of speech may be grouped as follows: - The respiratory or power mechanism furnishes the flow of the air which is the first requisite for the production of speech sounds.

This mechanism is formed by the lungs, the wind pipe and the bronchi. The energy which is regulated by the power mechanism.

Regulating the force of the air - wave the lungs produce variations in the intensity of speech sounds.

Syllabic pulses and dynamic stress are directly related to the behavior of the muscles which activate this mechanism.

From the lungs through the wind - pipe the air - stream passes to the upper stages of the vocal tract. First of all it passes to the larynx containing the vocal cords.

The function of the vocal cords consists in their role as a vibrator set in motion by the air - stream sent by the lungs. At least two actions of the vocal cords as a vibrator should be mentioned.

The opening between the vocal cords is known as the glottis.

The most important speech function of the vocal cords is the production of voice. The effect of voice is achieved when the vocal cords are brought together and vibrate when subjected to the pressure of the air - passing from the lungs. This vibration is caused by compressed air forcing in opening of the glottis and the following reduced air - pressure permitting the vocal cords to come together.

The height of the speaking voice depends on the frequency of the vibrations.

The more frequently the vocal cords vibrate the higher the pitch is. From the larynx the stream passes to the pharynx, the mouth and the nasal cavities. The shapes of these Cavities modify the note produced in the larynx thus giving rise to particular speech sounds. ..

The following four main types of phonetics may be distinguished:

1. Special phonetics is concerned with the study of phonetic system of a concrete language. When the phonetic system is studied in its static form, at a particular period (synchronically, we speak about descriptive phonetics). When the system is studied in its historical development (diachronically) we speak about historical, or evolutionary phonetics.

Historical phonetics uses the philological method of investigation. It studies written documents and compares the spelling and pronunciation of one and the same word in different periods of the history of the language [7, 53].

2. General Phonetics which studies the human sound producing possibilities, the functioning of his speech mechanism and the ways they are

used in all languages to pronounce speech sounds, syllables, stress and intonation. It is apart of General Linguistics.

3. Descriptive Phonetics studies the phonetic system of a certain language. For example: English Phonetics, Uzbek Phonetics etc.

4. Historical or Diachronical Phonetics which studies the changes a sound undergoes in the development of languages.

5. Comparative - Typological Phonetics. It studies the phonetic features of two or more languages of different system such as English, Russian, Uzbek etc. It is part of Comparative - Typological Linguistics.

I.2. Aspects, types and methods of phonetics

Any segment of a language consist of a sound chain which is specified by some articulatory, acoustic and perceptual features. But not all the phonetic features function to distinguish words, morphemes and phrases and some of them cannot serve this purpose. Thus, it is the function of distinction and also identification which is characteristic of all linguistic units.

According to their functions phonetic units - sounds, syllables, stress and intonation can be described linguistically and classified to some groups or subgroups. Thus, Phonetics has four main aspects: articulatory (physiological), acoustic (physic), perceptual (auditory) and phonological (social, functional, linguistic).

The branch of phonetics that studies the way in which the air is set in motion, the movements of the speech organs and coordination of these movements, in-the production of single sounds and train of sounds is called articulatory phonetics[5, 44].

Acoustic phonetics studies the way in which the air vibrates between the speaker's mouth and the listener's ear. Articulatory phonetics has been the dominating branch, and most descriptive work has been done in articulatory terms.

The branch of phonetics investigating the hearing process is known as auditory phonetics. Its interests lie more in the sensation of hearing, which is brain activity, than in the physiological working of the ear or the nervous activity between the ear and the brain. The means by which we discriminate sounds - quality, sensation of pitch, "loudness and length", are relevant here.

The noises we hear may be classified in terms of three features : continuity, resonance and timber.

As for the phonological aspect it differs from all the above mentioned three aspects. The theoretical study which sets up to account all the phonetic distinction of a language is called phonology. Some linguists prefer the terms phonemics and phonematics.

Phonology is one of the aspects of studying. Phonetics data : otherwise it is purely linguistic and social aspect of studying phonetics.

Phonetics in the wider sense includes phonology as distinct from morphology, syntax and stylistics. But in narrow sense the term phonetics is observed in our country. Phonetics and phonology have two levels of investigation: segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental phonology studies phonemes realized in various speech sounds. Suprasegmental phonology studies the distinctive features realized in syllables, stress and intonation. As to suprasegmental phonology the term prosodics may be used.

Thus, phonology may be divided into phonemics and prosodic. The fundamental concept of phonemics is the phoneme which is the smallest unit of a language system. **[5, 55].**

The oldest, simplest and most readily available method is the method of direct observation.

This method consists in observing the movements and positions of one's own or other people's organs of speech in pronouncing various speech sounds, as well as in analyzing one's own kinesthetic sensations during the articulation of speech sound in comparing them with auditory impressions.

Objective methods involve the use of various instrumental techniques (paleography, laryngoscope, photography, cinematography, X-ray photography and cinematography and electromyography).

This type of investigation together with direct observation is widely used in experimental phonetics.

The objective methods and the subjective ones are complementary and not opposite to one another.

Nowadays we may use the up-to-date complex set to fix the Articulatory parameters of speech - so called articulograph.

The methods of investigation used in phonetics vary, but there are three principal methods:

- (1) the direct observation method;
- (2) the linguistic method;
- (3) the experimental method.

1. The direct observation method comprises three important modes of phonetic analysis: by ear, by sight and by muscular sensation. Investigation by means of this method can be effective only if the persons employing it have been specially trained to observe the minutest movements of their own and other people's speech organs, and to distinguish the slightest variations in sound quality.

Every phonetician undergoes a special training, in the course of which his phonetic ear, and also his muscular sensation, are developed. By a “phonetic ear” is meant the capability to distinguish the exact quality of sounds pronounced in various sound sequences or in isolation, whether is one's mother tongue or in a foreign language.

The muscular sensation is developed by constant and regular practice in articulating various sounds. A trained phonetician should be able to pronounce sounds of a given quality (e.g. an open back unrounded vowel, a trilled [r], a fronted [k], etc.), as well as to recognize, by means of means of his highly developed muscular sensation the exact nature of the articulation of any speech sound that he hears.

2. The aim of the linguistic method of investigation of any concrete phonetic phenomena, such as sound, stress, intonation or any other feature, is to determine in what way all of these phonetic features are used in a language to convey a certain meaning. An accurate phonetic analysis (made either by ear or by means of some instruments or apparatus) is of no use whatever unless it serves as a clue that will help to interpret the linguistic function of a phonetic phenomenon.

The linguistic method, therefore, is of paramount importance.

3. The experimental method is based, as a rule, upon the use of special apparatus or instruments, such as the laryngoscope, the artificial palate, the kymograph, the magnetic tape recorder, the oscillograph, the intonograph. Special laboratory equipment, such as kymograph, spectrograph, oscillograph and intonograph help to obtain the necessary data about prosodic properties of speech sounds [7, 53].

I.3. History of phonetics

The term phonics during the 19th century and into the 1970s was used as a synonym of phonetics. The use of the term in reference to the method of teaching is dated to 1901 by the OED.

Phonics derives from the Roman text *The Doctrine of Littera*, dubious - discuss which states that a letter (*littera*) consists of a sound (*potestas*), a written symbol (*figura*) and a name (*nomen*). This relation between word sound and form is the backbone of traditional phonics [58, 67].

Phonetics was studied in ancient India, since 2500 B.C.

The Ancient Greeks are credited as the first to base a writing system on a phonetic alphabet.

Modern phonetics began with Alexander Melville Bell, whose *Visible Speech* (1867) introduced a system of precise notation for writing down speech sounds.

History of English pronunciation:

English consonants have been remarkably stable over time, and have undergone few changes in the last 1500 years. On the other hand, English vowels have been quite unstable. Not surprisingly, then, the main differences between modern dialects almost always involve vowels [36, 68].

Around the late 14th century, English began to undergo the Great Vowel Shift, in which the high long vowels [i:] and [u:] in words like *price* and *mouth* became diphthongized, (where they remain today in some environments in some accents such as Canadian English) and later to their modern values.

This is not unique to English, as this also happened in Dutch (first shift only) and German (both shifts).

The other long vowels became higher:

[e:] became [i:] (for example *meet*),

[a:] became [e:] (later diphthongized to [ei], for example name),
[o:] became [u:] (for example goose), and

Later developments complicate the picture: whereas in Geoffrey Chaucer's time food, good and blood all had the vowel [o] and in William Shakespeare's time they all had the vowel [u], in modern pronunciation good has shortened its vowel to [ʌ] and blood has shortened and lowered its vowel to [ʊ] in most accents.

In Shakespeare's day (late 16th-early 17th century), many rhymes were possible that no longer hold today.

Some American accents, for example that of New York City, Philadelphia, or Baltimore make a marginal phonemic distinction between /ai/ and /ei/ although the two occur largely in mutually exclusive environments.

The bad-lad split refers to the situation in some varieties of southern British English and Australian English, where a long phoneme /æ:/ in words like bad contrasts with a short /æ/ in words like lad.

The cot-caught merger is a sound change by which the vowel of words like caught, talk, and tall (/o:/), is pronounced the same as the vowel of words like cot, rock, and doll (/ɒ:/ in New England /o:/ elsewhere). This merger is widespread in North American English, being found in approximately 40% of American speakers and virtually all Canadian speakers.

The father-bother merger is the pronunciation of the short O /ɔ/ in words such as "bother" identically to the broad A /ɑ:/ of words such as "father", nearly universal in all of the United States and Canada save New England and the Maritime provinces; many American dictionaries use the same symbol for these vowels in pronunciation guides [36, 68].

Conclusion of the chapter I

As we have already above mentioned, language as “the most important means of human intercourse” exists in the material form of speech sounds. It cannot exist without being spoken.

The term phonics during the 19th century and into the 1970s was used as a synonym of phonetics. The use of the term in reference to the method of teaching is dated to 1901 by the OED.

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Languages differ in systems and structures.

Phonetics studies the sound system of the language that is segmental phonemes, word stress, syllabic structure and intonation.

Phonetics has two main divisions: phonology and the study of substance.

1. Special phonetics;
2. General Phonetics.
3. Descriptive Phonetics.
4. Historical or Diachronical Phonetics.
5. Comparative - Typological Phonetics are the main four types of phonetics.

According to their functions phonetic units - sounds, syllables, stress and intonation can be described linguistically and classified to some groups or subgroups.

Thus, we can draw a conclusion. This chapter is dedicated to the theme Phonetics as a branch of linguistic. Today, this theme is one of the most interesting, disputable and important problems of theoretical phonetics of modern English.

Chapter II. Employment of phonetic terms in description and classification of English vowels

II.1. Phonetic term in the interpretation of and American pronunciation.

Main phonetic terms used in description and classification of English vowels in ESL materials are explained in this chapter according to the American variant of pronunciation. Some differences between British and American pronunciation are also described here.

There are 26 letters in the English alphabet: Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Pp, Qq, Rr, Ss, Tt, Uu, Vv, Ww, Xx, Yy, Zz.

Pronunciation of the letters of the alphabet is as following:

A [ei]; B [bi:]; C [si:]; D [di:]; E [i:]; F [ef]; G [ji:]; H [eich]; I [ai]; J [jei]; (Note G and J.) , K [kei]; L [el]; M [em]; N [en]; O [ou]; P [pi:]; Q [kyu:]; R [a:r] (AmE) or [a:] (BrE); S [es]; T [ti:]; U [yu:]; V [vi:]; W [ˈdʌbəlyu:]; X [eks]; Y [wai]; Z [zi:] (AmE) or [zed] (BrE).

A phoneme is the smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one word from another in meaning. For example, the phonemes [t], [d] distinguish the words "ten, den". A phoneme represents a group of closely related variants of the same speech sound, called allophones. For example, the sound [t] is pronounced a little differently in the words "take, try, stay, lost, potato, little", but the same symbol represents these allophones in transcription: the phoneme [t].

In phonetic materials, the noun "consonant" has the following meanings: a consonant sound; a letter representing a consonant sound in writing. Consonants are speech sounds produced by creating an obstruction in the mouth for the air flow from the lungs. There are 20 consonant letters in the English alphabet. They represent 24 consonant sounds.

Most of the consonants can be studied in voiced – voiceless pairs: plosives / stops [b] – [p], [d] – [t], [g] – [k]; fricatives [v] – [f], [z] – [s], [ð] – [θ], [ʒh] – [sh], and unpaired voiceless [h]; affricates [j] – [ch]. The rest of the consonants are sonorants: [l], [r]; nasals [m], [n], [ŋ]; semivowels [w], [y].

Semivowel, also called a semi consonant, is a speech sound of vowel quality used as a consonant. Examples of semivowels: [w] want, well, win, work; [y] yard, yes, yield, yoga. The consonants [l], [r], [h] are sometimes called semivowels too.

Vowels. In phonetic materials, the noun "vowel" has the following meanings: a vowel sound; a letter representing a vowel sound in writing. Vowels are speech sounds produced without obstructing the flow of air from the lungs, so that the breath stream passes freely through the mouth. Vowels are always voiced (i.e., the vocal cords vibrate). Syllables are formed by vowels: I [ai], me [mi:], my [mai], so [sou], lid [lid], let [let], late [leit], lord [lo:rd].

There are six vowel letters in the English alphabet: a, e, i, o, u, y. Or five, if Y is regarded as a consonant. The letter Y can represent a consonant / semivowel (yes, yard) or a vowel (mystery, try, play). Vowel letters, alone or in combinations, represent from 15 to 22 vowel sounds, depending on the way of counting.

All vowel sounds together are called the vowel system. Vowel sounds are divided into monophthongs, diphthongs, and triphthongs.

Monophthong consists of only one vowel sound that does not change during its articulation; i.e., it starts and ends in the same quality, and the speech organs do not change their position during its pronunciation. Monophthongs are also called simple vowels, pure vowels, or stable vowels. American linguists list from 9 to 12 monophthongs in American English, generally 11 monophthongs: [a:], [æ], [i:], [i], [e], [o:], [o], [u:], [u], [ə], [ə].

The neutral vowel sound. Transcription symbols that are generally used to represent the neutral sound are [ʌ] (caret) in stressed syllables (gun, son, undone) and [ə] (schwa) in unstressed syllables (away, reason, minus). In American ESL materials, the schwa symbol [ə] is very often used for the neutral sound both in unstressed syllables and in stressed syllables: gun [gən], son [sən], undone [ən'dən], away [ə'wei], reason ['ri:zən], minus ['mainəs]. For your information, in case your browser doesn't show these symbols, the caret looks like a triangle without a base (or turned v), and the schwa looks like inverted e.

R-colored vowels. The consonant [r] in American English is pronounced after vowels in all positions in the word: car [ka:r], card [ka:rd], cure [kyur]. The sound [r] in AmE has become part of the vowel sound [ər], so that the sound [ə:] is always used with [r] in AmE: serve [sərv], girl [gərl], burn [bərn], earn [ərn], worker ['wərkər], sugar ['shugər], courage ['kəriɹj]. Transcription symbols for this sound may vary: [ər], [ə:r], [ur], [er], [ir]. Vowels in such combinations are called R-colored vowels.

Rhotic accent. The accents in which the sound [r] is pronounced in all positions in the word, including after a vowel in the same syllable (car [ka:r], card [ka:rd]) are called rhotic accents (for example, General American). The accents in which [r] is not pronounced after a vowel in the same syllable (car [ka:], card [ka:d]) are called non-rhotic accents (for example, British Received Pronunciation).

A diphthong is a complex vowel sound that consists of two components. The first part of the diphthong is its main strong component (the nucleus); the second part is short and weak (the glide). Together, the nucleus and the glide form one vowel sound that is indivisible and forms only one syllable. Examples of one-syllable words in which there is only one vowel sound, i.e., the diphthong: [ai] ride, right, lie, buy; [au] brown, cloud;

[ei] late, pray, pain, straight; [oi] toy, spoil; [ou] go, toe, phone, road, bowl, though. A diphthong is always stressed on its first main component.

Different linguistic sources list different numbers of diphthongs. Transcription symbols for diphthongs may also differ: [ei] or [ey]; [au], [aw] or [ou], etc. Generally, eight diphthongs are listed in ESL materials for learners of British English: [ai] (ride, by); [au] (out, how); [ei] (take, day); [oi] (boy, boil); [ou] (go, boat, low); [iə] (beer, here, hear); [eə] (care, fair, bear); [uə] (tour, poor, sure).

American linguists usually list five diphthongs in ESL materials for learners of American English: [ai] (ride, by); [au] (out, how); [ei] (take, day); [oi] (boy, boil); [ou] (go, boat, low). Vowels before final voiced [r] as in "hear, care, tour" have diphthongal character in American English, but there exist considerable variations in their pronunciation. For example, vowel sounds before [r] may be lengthened (here [hi:r]), or a very short neutral sound may appear before final [r] (here [hiər]) and disappear before [r] in the middle of the word (hero, careful, tourist).

Triphthong is a complex vowel sound that consists of three components. A triphthong is indivisible and forms only one syllable. A triphthong is always stressed on its first main component. Two triphthongs are usually listed in British English: [aiə] hire, fire, require; [auə] our, hour, flour. American linguists generally do not list triphthongs because the neutral sound (i.e., the third component of these triphthongs) is often lost before voiced [r] in AmE, for example, fire [fair], [fai(ə)r]; flour [flaur], [flau(ə)r]. In other cases with [aiə], [auə], these sounds are regarded as two separate vowels in two adjoining syllables, for example, di-al, qui-et, high-er; tow-el, flow-er, tow-er

Main speech organs used in the production of speech sounds: mouth, or mouth cavity / oral cavity; lips (upper lip, lower lip); teeth (upper front teeth, lower front teeth, upper molars / upper back teeth); jaws (upper jaw,

lower jaw); tongue (tip / apex of the tongue, front / blade of the tongue, center / middle of the tongue, back of the tongue, root of the tongue, sides of the tongue); alveolar ridge / upper gum ridge / teeth ridge; roof of the mouth (hard palate, soft palate with the uvula); nose, or nasal cavity; throat (pharynx, larynx); vocal cords; lungs.

Active speech organs. Movable organs of speech that are actively used during the production of speech sounds are called articulators or active speech organs. Active organs of speech are the lips, the lower jaw, the tongue, the soft palate with the uvula, the vocal cords, the lungs.

Passive speech organs. Fixed speech organs that are touched (or almost touched) by movable speech organs during articulation are called passive speech organs or points of articulation. Passive organs of speech are the teeth, the alveolar ridge, the upper jaw, the hard palate.

Articulation. There are several main features by which English vowels and their articulation are usually described in linguistic materials. The two most important features refer to the place of articulation. They are the height of the tongue and the part of the mouth where the tongue is raised for the articulation of a particular vowel sound. The other features are lip shape, vowel length, tenseness. The diphthongs are described according to their first main component.

The height of the position of the tongue refers to how high the front, middle, or back of the tongue is raised during articulation. Vowels are described as high, mid, or low depending on the height of the tongue during their articulation. The terms "close, mid-open, open" are also used; they refer to how much the mouth is open during articulation. High (close) vowels are [i:], [i], [u:], [u]. Mid (mid-open) vowels are [e], [ə], [ɐ]. Low (open) vowels are [æ], [a:], [o:], [o].

The place in the mouth. For the purpose of describing the sounds, the mouth cavity is divided into three parts: front, central, back. Depending on

where in the mouth they are formed, vowels are described as front, central, or back.

Front vowels are [i:], [i], [e], [æ].

Central vowels are [ə], [ər].

Back vowels are [u:], [u], [a:], [o:], [o].

The shape of the lips in the production of vowels may be more or less rounded (and/or protruded) or unrounded, i.e., spread or in a neutral position. Depending on whether the lips are rounded or not, vowels are described as rounded or unrounded. Rounded vowels are [o:], [o], [u:], [u]. Unrounded vowels are [i:], [i], [e], [ə], [ər], [æ], [a:].

Vowel length. Depending on the duration of the sound, vowels are described as long or short. Long vowels are [i:], [a:], [o:], [u:], [ər], and often [æ]. Short vowels are [i], [e], [u], [ə]. The length of one and the same vowel may change noticeably in different positions in the word. For example, vowels in stressed syllables sound longer than the same vowels in unstressed syllables. Vowels before voiced consonants sound longer than the same vowels before voiceless consonants.

Duration of long sounds. Students often ask how long the long sounds are. In general, a monophthong vowel sound lasts only as long as necessary for its correct articulation. It doesn't grow stronger after it starts, and it doesn't fade out at the end. It starts and ends in the same quality. The actual time of the vowel sound duration in this or that position in a word is learned best of all by comparing it with the other vowel sounds while practicing the sounds after the recorded speaker.

The sound [æ] is described as a low, front, open, unrounded, short sound, pronounced with the mouth more open than for [e] but less open than for [a:], and there is no duration sign in its transcription symbol. But it takes some time to lower the lower jaw and open the mouth widely enough to articulate this sound correctly. In many cases, for example, in stressed

syllables before a voiced consonant (Ann, Val, family, bad), the sound [æ] may be regarded as a long sound.

The sound [ɒ] is short in British English, for example, not, rock, rob, bottle, college, modern. In the same words in American English, the sound [o] is a long sound colored as [ɑ:] and is often listed in American phonetic materials as [ɑ:]. In some words, there are two variants of pronunciation in AmE, [o:] or [ɒ], for example, gone, coffee, office, borrow, orange, sorry, boss, lost, Boston, want, wash, water.

Degree of tenseness. Additionally, vowels are described as tense or lax. Tenseness refers to the muscular tension of the mouth organs during articulation. Long vowels are tense, and short vowels are lax. Stressed vowels are more tense than the unstressed vowels. Vowels before voiceless consonants are more tense than those before voiced consonants. It is important to stress that compared with Russian vowel sounds, all English vowels may be regarded as tense.

II.2. Phonetics and Pronunciation

Beginning students of English often say that their top priorities are to know grammar well and to learn as many words and everyday phrases as possible. Many students think that phonetics is a luxury that they can do without.

It's a big mistake to underestimate the importance of pronunciation. If you want to communicate in English, you need to speak English. Speaking to people is the only way to communicate. Well, you can exchange written messages, of course. Or use gestures to show what you want to say. But seriously, you need to know how to pronounce what you want to say. How you say something is as important as what you say. It means that it is necessary for you to acquire standard correct English pronunciation if you want to understand English speakers and want them to understand you.

Standard correct pronunciation consists of:

Correct pronunciation of sounds;

Correct pronunciation of words, with special attention to stress;

Correct intonation in different types of sentences, which includes such notions as sentence stress, rhythm, rising intonation, and falling intonation.

In the section Phonetics, we will study English pronunciation: sounds, stress, rhythm, intonation, and other useful things.

English pronunciation is very different from Russian pronunciation. The number of letters and the sounds that they represent are not the same in English and Russian, and some English sounds do not have corresponding sounds in Russian. Vowel and consonant sounds of American English, with pronunciation notes and spelling examples, are listed in English Vowel Sounds and English Consonant Sounds. Important phonetic terms related to vowel sounds are explained in Vowels Glossary of Terms.

English stress and rhythm are particularly difficult for Russian speakers. Even advanced students often have difficulty in mastering English

sentence stress and speech rhythm, which are necessary to master if you want to achieve a good level of language fluency in English. Recommendations on these questions are given in the sections English Stress and English Intonation. Important phonetic terms related to stress are explained in Introduction and Glossary of Terms. Useful pronunciation and listening resources for self-study are listed below.

Perfect Pronunciation Exercises A collection of phonetic exercises on the site Merriam-Webster's Learner's Dictionary. American English, for all levels. You can listen to words and sentences and practice repeating them. A list of sounds and symbols with pronunciation called IPA Pronunciation Symbols (with audio) are given in the Help section. The sounds of English and the International Phonetic Alphabet A chart of the sounds of British and American English in short words, with audio and notes on pronunciation, on the site Antimoon.com.

Authentic American Pronunciation Various materials for listening: letters of the alphabet, consonants and vowels in short words, stress patterns, reduction, homonyms, words with silent letters, dates, songs. American English. **Train Your Accent** Listening materials on various topics provide samples of relaxed pronunciation that will help you to understand how sounds are reduced in everyday speech. American English, for all levels.

II.3. Dialects and Accents of English from historical point of view

This article provides general information on the history of the English language, with a brief description of some regional British and American dialects and accents.

The origins of English go back to the middle of the fifth century when the Germanic tribes (the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes) began to settle in Britain. English descended from the language of the Anglo-Saxons. The

languages of the Celtic tribes (the Britons, the Scots, the Picts) who settled in Britain before that were the basis on which Welsh, Scottish and Irish developed. In the course of its history, English was influenced by many languages and borrowed from them. The history of English is usually divided into three main periods.

Old English, or Anglo-Saxon, was spoken in England from the fifth century till the second half of the twelfth century, though the Old English period is often described as lasting till the Norman Conquest of 1066.

Old English was heavily inflected and had a complex system of declension of nouns and adjectives, flexible syntax, and rather free word order. Words were usually spelled the way they were pronounced. Old English used the runic alphabet almost until the twelfth century when it was mostly replaced by the Latin alphabet.

Middle English was characterized by significant changes in vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Its vocabulary greatly increased due to French borrowings after the Norman Conquest. Middle English underwent the loss of most inflections and significant simplification of grammar. Its syntax became stricter, and its word order was mostly fixed. A series of changes in the quality of the long vowels, known as the Great Vowel Shift, started in the 15th century.

The Middle English period ended in the second half of the 15th century when printing was introduced in England in 1476, which preserved the spelling of English words in print and gradually led to uniformity in English spelling.

Modern English is the English language since 1475. In its early period (till the 18th century), further simplification of grammar took place, and the process of standardization of English spelling and word usage began. The works of William Shakespeare (1564-1616) and *A Dictionary of the English*

Language published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson contributed greatly to the process of standardization of English.

Late Modern English (from 1800 to the present) is characterized by the globalization of English. New dialects of English emerged in various parts of the world. English became the language of international communication used around the world by native speakers of English and by those for whom English was not their mother tongue. During this period a large number of words from other languages came into English, making its vocabulary the largest in the world.

The Modern English period is still going on, and English is going through new changes. One of the most interesting developments is a certain leveling of dialectal differences in pronunciation due to television, radio, Internet, traveling, and other types of international communication. It seems that English pronunciation is becoming more uniform. For example, in my opinion, British and American speech now sound closer to each other than they did fifty years ago. It is also possible that a new kind of English is developing – International English, a blend of British and American English.

Language, dialect, accent. A language is a particular system of words and sentences used as a means of oral and written communication and common to a particular nation living in some geographical area.

A dialect is a variety of a language distinguished from other varieties of the same language by differences in grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation, and by the use of this dialect by a group of people in some locality. A dialect may have regional varieties (regional dialects, subdialects, subvarieties) spoken by large or small communities of people in some localities.

An accent is a particular way of pronunciation and speaking characteristic of a group of people in some locality. Regional accents (local

accents) are part of regional dialects (local dialects). An accent usually has the same name as the dialect to which it belongs.

Dialects and accents are usually named and grouped according to the name of the place where they are generally found, for example, British dialects, American dialects, American accents, Australian accents.

Note the use of articles with languages, dialects and accents: the English language; English; American English; the Southern dialect; Southern dialects; a Southern dialect; the Boston accent (as a whole; as a group of accents); Boston accents (several Boston accents); a Boston accent (one of Boston accents).

The English language has quite a few dialects, including several major dialects, such as British English, American English, Australian English, Canadian English. These dialects have many regional varieties, with dialects and accents of their own.

There are also many other varieties of English around the world, including various types of English spoken by those for whom English is a second language, not their native language, for example, Singapore English, Indian English, Philippine English and many others.

Grammar, spelling and vocabulary are quite similar in most dialects of English, though some differences exist, of course, for example, in spelling. But there are a lot of dialectal differences in pronunciation, which explains the existence of a large number of regional accents.

British English and its accents. There are a lot of regional accents in the United Kingdom. Every region of the country has its own accent or accents which often have their own sub varieties, sometimes with noticeable phonetic differences even between the accents of neighboring towns.

British accents include Received Pronunciation, Cockney, Estuary, Midlands English, West Country, Northern English, Welsh, Scottish, Irish, and many others.

Received Pronunciation (RP) is the type of educated English spoken mostly by those who received formal education in the English public schools and at Oxford and Cambridge universities. Received Pronunciation is also called Received Standard, Public school English, BBC English, normative English, standardized English, Queen's English, King's English.

Received Pronunciation is a Southern England accent, but it does not have any regional peculiarities. Received Pronunciation is the closest to standard English pronunciation as it is described in textbooks for learners of English as a second language. Received Pronunciation is traditionally taught to foreign learners of English.

American English and its accents. American English has a number of regional accents, including such well-known accents as the Midwestern accent, the Southern accent, the speech of New England. On the whole, regional American accents share enough common features in pronunciation and speech patterns so that the spoken language in the United States can be clearly distinguished from the language spoken in Great Britain or from other varieties of spoken English.

Common characteristics of regional American accents include such clearly noticeable features as the sound [r] pronounced in all positions in words (e.g., hard [ha:rd], more [mo:r], first [fɜ:st]); the sound [æ] in words like "ask, last, class, demand, dance" (whereas BrE has [a:] in such cases); the sound [o] that sounds like [a:] in words like "hot, off, rob, gone, sorry, bother, want"; the sound [yu:] pronounced as [u:] after the letters "d, n, s, t" (duplicate, news, sue, student, tune).

One of the most important common characteristics of American accents is American intonation. Typical patterns of American intonation are characterized by mid-level beginning and mid-level continuation through the sentence (as compared with gradually descending scale of British English) and by strong stresses that sound like falls.

Nevertheless, the accents are not the same, and there are many minor regional differences in their pronunciation. Also, there are distinctive accents on the East Coast (for example, in New England) and in the South.

The process of dialect leveling, i.e., reduction of dialectal differences in speech, gradually led to considerable uniformity of most American accents.

People of different nationalities settled in North America during the 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries. They needed to communicate, build houses, do business, protect themselves and their families, raise and educate children.

In those times, in the environment where settlements were small and far from one another, where medical aid and means of communication and transportation were limited or absent, and where everyone carried a gun, the necessity to speak the same language was, without exaggeration, a matter of life and death.

During that period Americans spoke English with various accents carried over from their native languages, and they pronounced and spelled English words differently, but there was a growing tendency toward general leveling of dialectal differences

The process of dialect mixing and leveling was the most intensive in the Midwest, the northern middle section of the country. The Midwest had good climate and fertile land rich in mineral resources. Early settlers came to the Midwest from the American colonies on the Atlantic coast, and later many immigrants from England, Ireland, Germany, Holland and the Scandinavian countries settled in the Midwest. The population of the Midwest grew rapidly.

In schools, colleges and universities of the Midwest, new settlers and their children studied English as a second language according to strict formal rules of grammar, spelling and pronunciation. The Midwestern dialect

developed and became a standard in the region. When the settlement of the western regions of the country began, the Midwestern dialect spread westward and served as a basis for Western dialects.

Noah Webster (1758-1843) was an American lexicographer, educator and author whose lifework was the standardization of American speech and spelling. His spelling books taught several generations of American children how to read and spell. His major work was *An American Dictionary of the English Language* published in 1828.

General American (GA) is generalized American pronunciation that has few regional peculiarities and is perceived as typical American pronunciation by native speakers of American English. General American is also called Standard American English, General American English, Standard Spoken American English, General American Speech, Standard Midwestern, American Broadcast English, Network Standard.

General American was formed on the basis of Midwestern speech, but generally, the term "General American" is applied to any American accent that has few clearly marked regional peculiarities.

As the most neutral, typical pronunciation, General American is used by radio and television broadcasters throughout the United States. The term "Network Standard" refers to General American pronunciation that radio and TV speakers are usually required to have in order to be understood by their listeners across the country.

General American pronunciation is the closest to standard American pronunciation as it is described in textbooks for learners of English as a second language. General American pronunciation is usually taught to ESL learners of American English.

This part of dissertation devoted to innovational project of the dictionary of phonetic terms, directed on shaping, development and improvement of the language and of the meta lingual competency potential

users. Given one of the main integer creation is increasing to efficiency holdings foreign sounds of the speech.

At present exists the growing of the interest to terminological competency in the sphere of the linguistics on absolutely other, more high level of the cognition. This promotes the unprecedented bloom to lexicography as independent science in our country and for its limit.

In recently lexicoraphysts clear realized that complacency of the users with vocabulary product not only depends from quality of the vocabulary product, but also from the skills of the readers to choose the dictionary and use it, as well as from realistic waiting the readers. "Systematic education of students to use dictionaries until has got the broad spreading, but the users of the dictionaries themselves are quite often run away that knowledge of the alphabet it is enough for work with any vocabulary product.

As a whole happens to establish that the lexicographical competency of the users while it is found on the low level" [32, p. 135].

In this connection the row of the actual tasks stand before lexicoraphysts. On the one hand - a development of the methods to registrations and account quickly changing necessities and requirements of the reader, but on the other hand this searching for direct and indirect ways of the enlightenment influences on the same reader with the reason of realizations them own cognitive-exploratory motivation and developments its lexicographic competency.

In this dissertation, there are some parts which are dedicated to the problems of the sociological directions in modern lexicography, I.S. Kudashev diagnoses the problems of knowledge of the dictionary users:

- a lack of information in a dictionary, why they are compiled, as it is orientated in their wealth and specialization;

- non realistic waiting, incomprehension of the natural restrictions of the dictionary and antinomy of lexicography;
- an attitude to dictionary only as to arbitrator, incomprehension that dictionary execute not only normative function;
- an identification of the language and dictionary;
- a misinterpretation lexicographic convention - a litter, reductions and etc;
- incomprehension and innovational decisions of the lexicography learners.

The investigator offers following list of the skills required for shaping lexicographical competencies beside majority of dictionary users:

- a skill will localize the language problem in context and by necessity of its parts;
- a skill to choose the most-eligible dictionary or dictionaries;
- a skill to bring the length of the text in canonical form (or other form, accepted in dictionary;
- a skill to define, to search for the necessary unit;
- the skill to find the supporting word for multi componential units;
- a skill to find the necessary dictionary entry;
- a skill to find the necessary unit in article;
- a skill to extract necessary information;
- a skill to integrate the founded unit in the text **[32, p. 135-136]**.

The notion "prospect of the user" increases their own borders in approach as to process of the creation the new knowledge and do some improvements already existing dictionaries, so and to process their useful turn. The dictionary must develop itself. Its structural design have to become more innovational, attractive, contented, accessible, comprehensible and perspective for the reader.

In relationship with said, becomes actual require of the exploratory exchange of ideas with interested groups of readers by means of questioning these groups in the manner of questionnaires and interviews, as well as with the help of constant monitoring and testing their actions, in accordance with the use of reference literature. We shall note, first of all, importance of these ideas for lexicoraphysts themselves, for gaining certain creative space.

The meaning of the implement of the questioning themselves and monitoring must carry the advantages that reveals the parameters and condition of the use of other reference books, levels and degree holding skills of the vocabulary reading etc.

The empirical studies of the pragmatics of the vocabulary use and vocabulary argument process follows to take as the point of the counting out when making and improving of the whole lexicographic product **[25, p. 390]**. Coming from what is said, follows to expect that behooving structured registration and high polygraph representative dictionaries are consequent by parameters of their function.

Information, is being kept in mega structure and macro structure in micro structure terminological dictionary, interesting all, as from expert in given to branches, finishing student, learning professional knowledge. In the opinion of H.K. Mikkelisena, upright reading macro structure of the dictionary gives the certainty about logical relationship of the system of notion through interaction its lexical presentations, but horizontal reading concentrates attention of the user on semantics and pragmatics of the individual term, opening it possibility of the understanding texts components of the special language-bases **[38, p. 100]**.

The modern trends of the development to lexicography point to the need of the creation LSP reference book of the new generation, which present itself:

1) suitable and detailed navigational instruments in notional field describe branches of the knowledge;

2) facility of the education to control with meta language to this branches;

3) compact and information are reliable of specialized educational allowances for preparing and improvements of specialist in the given branches.

The new generation dictionary of phonetic terms (DphT) reflects the level of the development and particularities of the phonetic notional system, possessing special level to abstractions and difficulties of the knowledge particularities.

The external logician-notional scheme of the phonetics leaves for frames of the linguistics.. The phonetics is claimed in row of the technological areas, in accordance with communication. The experimental phonetic expects use complex of sounds and synthesizing equipments, built on the base of the feature of the human speech. The problem of the perception and products speech is researched by phoneticians, psychologists, physiologists, speech therapists and neurologists. Mathematicians, acoustics and engineers co-operate with phoneticians when making and enhancement of the equipment automatic the recognitions and reproducing the speech signal. The device of the automatic translation speech is in printed texts.

The study of the phonetics has educational and cultural importance for each, who realizes importance full-fledged holdings by language and qualitative level of the interpersonal contact. The main thesis of theories to communications is the sounding speech, as primary form of the existence of the language. The phonetics, by this means, gets into many social spheres and, in turn, can not dispense with studies social factor contacts.

The lexicographic description of the application domain of the phonetics in detail alongside with logician-conceptual modeling its notional

sphere relieves the determination of the base system of relationships in reflecting its terminology.

What are the given compositional innovations in the structure of the dictionary to phonetic terminology, can promote approach the phonetic knowledge to interested user?

The abundance of the description of the languages term system of universal dictionary of phonetic terms must be conducted on bilinguals. This means the essential presence of English in all input components of the structure at conservation of the primacy of the national language for target auditorium of the users (in our event - Russian). "Natural is a directivity of the dictionary from foreign to native language for compiler since in this case, compiler easier to select the exact correspondence of terms in native language, than in foreign, to say nothing of that events, when happens to create the artificial correspondences to" [32, p. 76].

We have analyzed only that points, which practically do not meet or lit, but it is not enough in the well-known phonetic reference book.

Adjustment of the determination occurs the way of the detailed explanation to essence term, used in definitions.

Possible also way presentations of short methodological reference about using the defined notion in practical of the linguistically analysis [20, p. 28].

The reference about origin and status of Entrance units (EU) contains, first of all, instruction on language or scientific origin of the term, as follows, compositional explanation of the internal form of the foreign terms. The authorized terms, (created by certain direction in phonetics, or phonetic school, or author), are supplied corresponding by reference. by this means, short elaborating theorist-linguistically context to histories of the origin, developments and modern use the terms, sharply reducing possibility

of the invalid positioning of the terms in system of the phonetic knowledge and interpretations to pragmatic essence BE in sphere specialized discourse.

The estimation to value of the term is, in our glance, important requirement to term as input unit of the dictionary. This criterion includes the estimation of the term on all already provided in article pragmatic parameter special name (introduce, international, euphony etc.).

Increases urgency of the empirical studies of the pragmatics of the vocabulary use and result of the process of the vocabulary discussion (actual dictionary consultation), which follows to take as the point of the counting out when making and improvement to whole lexicographic product. Introduces that like estimation must become the obligatory criterion at selection and processing entrance units in terminological dictionary of the new generation, in the dictionary of phonetic terms (DPT) particularly.

The corresponding to reference founded on given qualitative (the special observations, expert estimation) and quantitative (questioning, users, experiment) of the analysis, will help to present not only pragmatic value of the term at present, but also in determined degree its using in future.

The model of control presents itself given about semantic and syntax combination of the defined term [37, p. 20].

For example, for phoneme characteristic of presence (the set) allophone while allophones belongs to the phoneme; for allophone characteristic to present its phoneme in determined condition: positions (in word, for verbal grave), encirclement and etc.

Paradigmatic term is considered in three aspects of the relations between term: but synonymous terms, enumerated in article for simplification of the comparison with existing term system though, proposed model of the dictionary, directed on differentiation, unification and standardization existing terminology, gives the motivated permission for only one term;

Antonymic terms, marking opposite notions;

Hippomanic terms, marking nearest on associations of the notion.

The list of the sources and the quoting, as a rule, is formally optional criterion of the dictionaries to phonetic terminology.

However, this point is straight connected with authorization of the origin and status of the defined term and so, cut-ins in the dictionary of phonetic terms absolutely necessary. The opened question about quantitative correlation and combinability of primary and secondary source to navigational information in dictionary of the linguistical terminology are necessary [14, p. 30]. It is possible, that presence of the primary sources or conservation to their urgency, need in acknowledgement of the status and sense of the term secondary sources might be excessive.

The ideology of the new dictionary of phonetic terms offer the following approaches to macro structure that is to say vertical arrangement of the central part of dictionary of phonetic terms - a word list.

First, word list must contain the independent sections in accordance with type of the phonetics as autonomous aspect of the terminological field. This will allow avoiding

Secondly, building of the word list of each separate section follows to produce alphabetically.

On the one hand, alphabetical principle of the structure of macro structure of special dictionary more suitable for realization of the many pragmatic tasks, in particular, reading, interpretations or translation special text.

On the other hand, structure of the vocabulary body of the dictionary of phonetic terms, built on this principle, will become less informative and less stable.

In this connection, the most big description is a making the dictionary of phonetic terms, combining factor systematized information user with high factor of functional efficiency.

Mega structure comprises in itself generalizing information on dictionary, author, coauthor and source of its creation. The traditional element of mega structure, as is well known, are such as: list of the conditional indications and abbreviations, tables to applicable transcriptions and notations, explanatory note, containing short commentary to methodologies of the creation and uses by dictionary, bibliography etc.

The introductory part must contain detailed, clear and, in ditto time, compact verbal and graphic presentation. Logician-notional system described terminological of the area of the phonetics, demonstrating interaction its autonomous parts and relationship with adjacent scientific discipline.

The examples of the phonetic phenomena present itself, probably, the most labor-consuming and non simple in technical plan point dictionary entry and dictionary of phonetic terminology as a whole so we shall allow to stop on this point in detail.

The presentation so multivariate and nonlinear landscape, as phonetic concept sphere it is impossible, probably, limit only printed non verbal to format **[42, p. 19]**.

Within the framework of the last is found whole arsenal of the facilities, actively used or expecting its use in phonetic term graphic: drawings, photography, symbols, formulas, transcription, one hundred, language forms for organic of the entailment of the concrete communication task in proposed social cultural field.

The illustration of the phonetic terms can serve the phenomenon of the imposition different into national sidebar on the same verbal context. If, for example, pronouncing of the phrase Peter is having tea is noted gradually by

top-down scale in combination with low final fall of the tone - nor that other as establishment of the fact, but costs to change the direction of the scale and range of the terminal tone, immediately appear the notes oppose; resist-delivering

- Peter is having tea, but all the rest prefer coffee.

Change timbre on speech signalizes about warning

- Peter is having tea. Don't bother him - and so on.

Linguistic variables the language formulas can be more complex, when it is used whole complex of the language facilities different language level systems. This process generates stylistic variation. On the first level variant of competition speaking handle two or more language forms from arsenal of the own linguistical competency.

The choice in each concrete event one of them straight depend on level social cultural competency of speaking and in sufficient degree is defined them.

Second level of analysis, was already noted. Social cultural sphere not at all generates the equal variety, but only uses the potential, created in strictly linguistical field (such, to example, phonetic phenomena, as reduction, assimilation, morpheme, border signals etc.).

The variant inflexions linguistical competition do not destroy the structured unity of the language, but are an adaptive model of its operation in different conditions and in varied encirclement. The Main factor "gemmulation" and growing of the number of variants and sub variants of the language is a potential of the language system.

The variant dispersion of the language in different spaces (temporary, physical, geographical, social, psychological) saves the causal relationship with the source of the spreading, but mechanism extension visuals frame, and is understood through formation and developments its structure.

On the other hand language competency appears in development.

On the other hand since phonetics handles sound materials for making the full guide to this discipline full sound application, created in laboratories and field conditions is necessary.

The examples of speech sounds as applications to the dictionary of phonetic terms together with profound side of most reference books reflect universal model of the language study. Importance repeatedly increases when referencing the assimilation problem of the foreign language.

It is known that mastering foreign speech sounds introduced, as, the main and difficult competency for the person, not being carrier of this language.

The teachers of English are constantly assigned by question about regularity of the choice of the language forms and limit this language competency, about "corridor of" fluctuations pronunciation rates, as saved unity and identity of the language in the process of its constant development.

The data of the deflection, however, do not carry the nature of the distortion beside that persons, for which considered language is native (the internal circle of the users), in speech of the representatives so named external circle of the users that is to say studying this language as foreign. What notes D. Preston [44, 141-159], studies the variety frames of English language. It is enough for a long time and are seminal on three directions: inter influence of social factor and linguistic forms; the strictly interaction and variations of the language forms in the language progress.

We shall name, subsequent to D. Preston, these three exploratory objects three levels of competency and shall briefly consider their contents.

On the first level of the study of the language social cultural facts and language forms come to direct contiguity with each other.

As a result of contextualization of communication, implies to processing whole communication-pragmatic information, includes information on collocutor, speaker addresses to language facility of the

realization of meaning contacts. Criterion sociocultural preferences is defined.

On the first level choice language form are acceptable. In this case it is realized as variable linguistic competency by means of choice. The task of language approach and its ways of teaching appeared. The notion of the weak zones used with psycholinguistic standpoint in language use (weaker areas of the grammar or weaker grammars) appeared. Homskiy and Gregg note that weak zones - on essences certificate to insecurity speaking in correspondence their own speech forms criteria of simplicity and true as base speech competency[24, p. 368].

D. Preston carries in turn of the discourses about the one third level variation notions of the vernacular and post vernacular of the knowledge of the language. He declares that natural, primary and before the end by true formula of the language for its carriers is an vernacular, which is worked out with infancy in contact with parent, home and the other children in speech context, comparatively free from excessive formalization and changes.

In the opinion of researcher, all that speaking learn in language in post vernacular period, carries especially simulation nature and is used by them as formal, perceived variant of their natural language, coexistence alongside with it as universally adopted paradigm generalized and averaged communication reality [44, p. 149].

Education of English as foreign occurs usually on simulation-prototyping base and reproduces the algorithms of the secondary language code free from enormous amount additional, on-example, emotional-modal, information, which is sent only vernacular by the way.

The Strategies of the language behavior, adopted when learning, do not include the tacticians of the internal self-verification, which is blocked by need of the normative monitoring pronounced or written.

Thereby, foreign speech does not move over to stage of a dialect, but communication situations of unstated nature, in which is required support on the part of primary language model, immediately cause the interference influence of the native language that brings about communication error and appearance of the accent.

In connection with enumerated reason before specialists will get up the two-unit task:

The first task is to study factor and regularities of variation in speech of the representatives of users with provision for variant, dialectal, and other polyphones within the framework of universal Grammar's of the native language (in broad, rather than narrow aspectual sense word);

The second task is to study the reasons and limits of the language in speech of the representatives of the external circle of the users within the framework of specific Grammar's their discourse as result of the interaction interference systems of native and non native languages.

The second, inter linguistic aspect of the task, has as theoretical, so and practical directivity.

The purpose of the relative-language is an opening mechanism increasing to foreign competency besides non carrying of the language. Creation to efficient model of the teaching the foreign language, taking into account national identity of the trained subject, is interesting and difficult and is called future multi cultural world community. Its immense prattle on our glance, contributes the dictionary of phonetic terms of new generation, bilingual, lingua didactical model which capable to reflect both main meta language parameters logician-notional phonetic sphere, and the main stages of finding strictly language competency.

II.4. Modifications of the English vowels and consonants in connected speech

The articulation of a speech sound in isolation. There are two major classes of sounds traditionally distinguished in any language - consonants and vowels. From the perceptive point of view consonants are known to have voice and noise combined, while vowels are sounds consisted of voice only.

The complete articulation of a speech sound - a vowel or a consonant - when said by itself in isolation consists of three stages:

1. The on-glide stage, or the initial stage, during which the articulating organs move to the position necessary for the articulation of a sound.

2. The hold stage, or the retention-stage, during which the articulating organs are kept in the position for a certain period of time.

3. The off-glide (release) stage, or the final stage, during which the articulating organs return to a neutral position. For example, the on-glide of [t], pronounced in isolation, is the contact formed by the tip of the tongue placed against the teeth ridge. During the hold stage the air is compressed behind the closure, during the explosion stage, the organs forming the obstruction part rapidly and the compressed air escapes abruptly. [48, p. 66-67]

Speech sounds are seldom said by themselves, they are used in combination with other sounds in connected speech.

Two ways of linking two adjacent speech sounds.

In English there are two principal ways of linking two adjacent speech sounds: merging of stages and interpenetration of stages.

The type of junction depends on the nature of the sounds that are joined together.

As all English sounds come under the classification of ; consonants and vowels one may speak of joining:

- (a) a consonant to a following vowel (C + V), as in the word *me* [mi:];
- (b) a vowel to a following consonant (V + C), as in the word *on* [t>n];
- (c) two consonants (C + C), as in the word *blow* [blao];
- (d) two vowels (V + V) , as in the word *reality* [ri"aelati].

Merging of stages, as compared with interpenetration of stages, is a simpler and looser way of joining sounds together. It usually takes place if two adjacent sounds of a different nature are joined together. In this case the end of the preceding sound penetrates into the beginning of the following sound. In other words, the end of the first sound and the beginning of the second are articulated almost simultaneously.

Interpenetration of stages usually takes place when consonants of a similar or identical nature are joined. In this case the end of the first sound penetrates not only into the beginning but also into the middle part of the second sound, as in *act* [ækt], *begged* [begd] . [32, c. 63]

Modifications of sounds in English.

Speech sounds influence each other in the flow of speech, as a result of the intercourse between consonants and vowels and within each class

there appear such processes of connected speech as assimilation, accommodation, elision (which is sometimes termed deletion), inserting and vowel reduction.

The adaptive modification of a consonant by a neighbouring consonant in the speech chain is known as assimilation, e. g. the alveolar [t] followed by the interdental [ð] becomes dental: *eighth* [eit θ], at *three* [at θ ri:] .

The term accommodation is often used by linguists to denote the influence of the vowel on the consonant or the consonant on the vowel, for instance, some slight degree of nasalization of vowels preceded or followed by nasal sonorant: *never* ["neva], *men* [men]; or labialization of consonants preceding the vowels [ə:, n, u:, o] : *shoe* [Ju:], *bull* [bul].

Elision or complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants, is often observed in English. Elision is likely to be minimal in slow careful speech and maximal in rapid relaxed colloquial forms of speech.

Inserting is a process of sound addition. One of the wide-spread sound changes is certainly vowel reduction. Reduction is actually qualitative or quantitative weakening of vowels in unstressed positions, e.g. *board* [bɔ:d] - *blackboard* ["blækbɔ:d], *man* [mæn] - *postman* ["pɔ:stmæn]

. These modifications are observed both within words and at word boundaries. [24, p. 71-72]

4. Modifications of consonants in connected speech.

4.1 Assimilation affecting the place of articulation.

Assimilation takes place when a sound changes its character in order to become more like a neighbouring sound.

The characteristic which can vary in this way is nearly always the place of articulation, and the sounds concerned are commonly those which involve a complete closure at some point in the mouth that is plosives and nasals which may be illustrated as follows: ,

a. The alveolar [t], [d], followed by the interdental [ð], [θ] sounds, become dental (partial regressive assimilation - when the influence goes backwards from a "later" sound to an "earlier" one), e.g. *breadth* [bredθ], *said that* [sed ðæt], *read this* [ri:d ðis];

b. The alveolar [t], [d] under the influence of the post-alveolar [r] become post-alveolar (partial regressive assimilation), e.g. *tree* [tri:], *trip* [trip], *true* [tru:], *trunk* [trʌŋk], *dry* [drai], *dream* [dri:m], *the third room* [ðə θə:d ru:m] ;

c. The alveolar [t], [d] assimilate with a following palatal [j] and become affricates [tʃ], [dʃ] (incomplete regressive assimilation), e.g. *graduate* ["grædʒeɪt], *congratulate* [kən"grætʃuleɪt], *did you* ["dɪdʒu:], *could you* ["kʊdʒu:];

d. The alveolar [s], [z] before palato-alveolar become palato-alveolar (complete regressive assimilation), e.g. *horse-shoe* ["hos:ʃu:],

e. The bilabial [m] before the labio-dental [f] becomes labio-dental (partial regressive assimilation), e.g. *symphony* ["simfani], *triumph* ["triumf], *comfort* ["kʌmfət], *come for me* [kʌm fo: mi];

f. The alveolar [n] becomes dental, before the interdental [ð] (partial : regressive assimilation), e.g. *seventh* ["sevan θ], *on the desk* [on ðə desk];

g. The alveolar [n] becomes velar before the velar [k], e.g. *thank* [θænk], *Congress* ["kɒngres] . **[25, 385]**

The sounds commonly changing their place of articulation are alveolar stops.

4.2 Assimilation affecting the manner of articulation.

The manner of articulation is also changed as a result of assimilation, which may be illustrated as follows:

a. Loss of plosion. In the sequence of two plosive consonants the former loses its plosion: *glad to see you* [qlæd tu si: yu:], *great trouble* [greit trʌbl], and *old clock* [ould klok] (partial regressive assimilations).

b. Nasal plosion. In the sequence of a plosive followed by a nasal sonorant the manner of articulation of the plosive sound and the work of the soft palate are involved, which results in the nasal character of plosion release (partial regressive assimilations): *sudden* ["sʌdn], *not now* [not nav], *at night* [at nait], *let me see* [let mi si:].

c. Lateral plosion. In the sequence of a plosive followed by the lateral sonorant [l] the noise production of the plosive stop is changed into that of the lateral stop (partial regressive assimilations): *settle* ["setl], *table* ["teibl], *at last* [at la:st]. It is obvious that in each of the occasions one characteristic feature of the phoneme is lost. **[32, 71-72]**

4.3 Assimilation affecting the work of the vocal cords.

The voicing value of a consonant may also change through assimilation. This type of assimilation affects the work of the vocal cords and the force of

articulation. In particular voiced lenis sounds become voiceless Fortis when followed by another voiceless sound.

a. A voiceless consonant may be replaced by a voiced one under the influence of the adjacent voiced consonant, e.g. the voiceless [s] in *goose* [gu:z] is replaced by the voiced [z] in the compound noun *gooseberry* ["guzberi] under the influence of the voiced [b].

b. A voiced consonant may be replaced by a voiceless one under the influence of the adjacent voiceless consonant, e.g. the voiced [z] in *news* [nju:z] is replaced by the voiceless consonant [s] in the compound noun *newspaper* ["nyus: peipə] under the influence of the voiceless [p]. [32, 71]

In casual informal speech voicing assimilation is often met; e.g. *have to do it* ["hæv tu "du: it], *five past two* ["faif pa:st "tu:]. The sounds which assimilate their voicing are usually voiced lenis fricatives assimilated to the initial voiceless fortis consonant of the following word.

c. The weak forms of the verbs *is* and *has* are assimilated to the final voiceless fortis consonants of the preceding word, e.g.: *What is this?* [wot iz ðis] - *What's this?* [wots ðis]; *your aunt's coming* [yo a:nts. *What's your name?* [wots yo neim];

d. English sonorants [m, n, r, l, j, w] preceded by the Fortis voiceless consonants [p, t, k, s] are partially devoiced (partial progressive assimilation), e.g. *smart* [sma:t], *snake* [sneik], *tray* [trei], *quick* [kwik], *twin* [twin], *play* [plei], *pride* [praid]. In English assimilation usually results in changing voiced lenis consonants into voiceless fortis, e.g. *of course* [əfko:s]. The change of voiceless fortis consonants into voiced lenis as a result of assimilation is not typical. [32, 74-75]

4.4 Assimilation affecting the work of the lips. Consonants followed by the sonorant [w] change their lip-position. They become lip-rounded in anticipation of [w], e.g. *twinkle* ["twinkl], *quite* [kwait], *swan* [swon], *language* [læŋɡvɪʃ], *quick* [kwik], *twenty* [twenty] [32, 71]

5. Modifications of consonants in connected speech. Accommodation.

5.1 Accommodation affecting the lip position. In accommodation the accommodated sound does not change its main phonemic features and is pronounced as a variant of the same phoneme slightly modified under the influence of a neighboring sound. [32,.256]

Lip position may be affected by the accommodation, the interchange of "consonant + vowel type".

Labialization of consonants is traced under the influence of the neighbouring back vowels, e.g. *pool* [pu:l], *moon* [mu:n], *rude* [ru:d], *soon* [su:n], *who* [hu:], *cool* [ku:l], etc.

It is possible to speak about the spread lip position of consonants followed or preceded by front vowels [i:], [i], e.g. *tea* [ti:], *beat* [bi:t]; *meet* [mi:t], *team* [ti:m]; *sit* [sit], *miss* [mis] .

Assimilation affecting the place of articulation is considered to be most typical of the English sound system.

6. Modifications of consonants in connected speech. Elision

Elision or complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants, is observed in the structure of English words. It is typical of rapid colloquial speech and marks the following sounds:

a. Loss of [h] in personal and possessive pronouns *he*, *his*, *her*, *him* and ; the forms of the auxiliary verb *have*, *has*, *had* is widespread, e.g. *What \ has he done?* ["wot az i 4dAn].

b. [ɪ] tends to be lost when preceded by [a:], e.g. *always* ["o:weiz], *already* [o:"redi], *all right* [o:"rait].

c. Alveolar plosives are often elided in case the cluster is followed by another consonant, e.g. *next day* ["neks "dei], *just one* ["^as "wAn], *mashed potatoes* ["mee/ pa"teitaoz] . If a vowel follows, the consonant remains, e.g. *first of all* ["f3:st av "o:l]. Whole syllables may be elided in rapid speech: *library* ["laibri], *literary* ["litri].

Examples of historical elision are also known. They are initial consonants in *write* [rait], *know* [nəʊ], *knight* [naɪt], the medial consonant [t] in *fasten* ["fa:s(a)n], *listen* ["lis(a)n], *whistle* ["wisl], *castle* ["ka:sl] . **[24, 76-77]**

7. Modifications of consonants in connected speech. Inserting of sounds
While the elision is a very common process in connected speech, sounds also can be inserted occasionally.

The linking and intrusive [r] are both part of the same phonetic process of [r] insertion.

When a word which ends in a vowel is followed by another word beginning with a vowel, the so-called intrusive "r" is sometimes pronounced between the vowels.

e.g. *Asia and Africa* ["eɪʃə and "afrika], *the idea of it* [ði aɪdɪə of ɪt], *mar and pa* ["ma:r and "pa:].

The so-called linking "r" is a common example of insertion, e.g. *clearer* [kliərə], *a teacher of English* ["ti:tʃəv ɪŋɡlɪʃ] .

When the word-final vowel is a diphthong which glides to [ɪ] such as [aɪ], [eɪ] the palatal sonorant [j] tends to be inserted, e.g. *saying* ["seɪɪŋ]; *trying* [traɪɪŋ].

The process of inserting the sonorants [r], [j] or [w] may seem to contradict the tendency towards the economy of articulatory efforts.

In case of the [u]-gliding in diphthongs [aʊ], [əʊ] the bilabial sonorant [w] is sometimes inserted, e.g. *going* ["ɡəʊɪŋ], *allowing* [əˈləʊɪŋ] .

The explanation for it lies in the fact that it is apparently easier from the articulatory point of view to insert those sounds than to leave them out. **[24, 77]**

8. Modifications of vowels in Connected Speech. The modifications of vowels in a speech chain are traced in the following directions: they are either quantitative or qualitative or both.

These changes of vowels in a speech continuum are determined by a number of factors such as the position of the vowel in the word, accentual structure, tempo of speech, rhythm, etc.

positions, e.g. At last he has ,come. - [at la:st hi haz κAm], but *Is he or , she to blame?* - [iz 'hi: o: ʃi: bleim];

The length of a vowel depends on its position in a word.

It varies in different phonetic environments. English vowels are said to have positional length, e.g. *knee* [ni:] - *need* [ni:d] - *neat* [ni:t] (accommodation).

The vowel [i:] is the longest in the final position, it is obviously shorter before the lenis voiced consonant [d], and it is the shortest before the fortis voiceless consonant [t].

8.1. Modifications of vowels in Connected Speech. Quantitative changes.

The decrease of the vowel quantity or in other words the shortening of the vowel length is known as a quantitative modification of vowels, which may be illustrated as follows:

The shortening of the vowel - length occurs in unstressed positions, e. g. *blackboard* ["blækbod], *sorrow* ["sorow] (reduction).

In these cases reduction affects both the length of the unstressed vowels and their quality (quantitative reduction). Form words often demonstrate quantitative reduction in unstressed

8.2. Modifications of vowels in Connected Speech. Qualitative changes. Qualitative modification of most vowels occurs in unstressed positions.

Unstressed vowels lose their "colour", their quality, which is illustrated by the examples below:

1. In unstressed syllables vowels of full value are usually subjected to qualitative changes, e.g. *man* [mæn] - *sportsman* ["spo:tsmæn], *conduct* ["kondAkt] - *conduct* [kAn"dAkt].

In such cases the quality of the vowel is reduced to the neutral sound [a] (qualitative reduction).

These examples illustrate the neutralized (reduced) allophones of the same phonemes as the same morphemes are opposed.

The neutral sound [a] is the most frequent sound of English. In continuous text it represents about eleven per cent of all sounds. And if we add the

occurrence of [ɪ] which is closely related to [a] in unstressed positions we get a figure close to twenty per cent - nearly one sound in five is either [a] or the unstressed [ɪ]. This high frequency of [a] is the result of the rhythmic pattern: if unstressed syllables are given only a short, duration, the vowel in them which might be otherwise full is reduced.

It is common knowledge that English rhythm prefers a pattern in which stressed syllables alternate with unstressed ones.

The effect of this can be seen even in single words, where a shift of stress is often accompanied by a change of vowel quality; a full vowel becomes [a], and [a] becomes a full vowel. For example, *analyse* [ˈənalaɪz] - *analysis* [ˈanalɪsɪs]; in both words full vowels appear in the stressed positions, alternating with [a] in unstressed position.

It would be impossible to have [a] in a stressed syllable, and almost as impossible to have a full vowel in every unstressed syllable.

Slight degree of nasalization marks vowels preceded or followed by the nasal consonants [n], [m], e.g. *and* [ænd], *then* [ðen], *morning* [ˈmɔːnɪŋ], *men* [men], *never* [ˈneva], *no* [nou] (accommodation).

The realization of reduction as well as assimilation and accommodation is connected with the style of speech. In rapid colloquial speech reduction may result in vowel elision, the complete omission of the unstressed vowel, which is also known as zero reduction.

Zero reduction is likely to occur in a sequence of unstressed syllables, e.g. *history* [ˈhɪstri], *factory* [ˈfæktəri], *literature* [ˈlɪtrətʃə], *territory* [ˈterɪtri].

The following example illustrates a stage-by-stage reduction (including zero reduction) of a phrase: e.g. *Has he done it?* [hæz hi,dʌn ɪt] [haz hi ,dʌn ɪt] [hæz ,dʌn ɪt] [z i ,dʌn ɪt] .

Certain interrelation which we observe between the full form of a word and its reduced forms is conditioned by the tempo, rhythm and style of speech.

[49, 90]

Sounds in actual speech are seldom pronounced by themselves.

They are usually pronounced together with other sounds within single words and at the junction of words in phrases and sentences.

But in order to pronounce a word consisting of more than one sound, a phrase or a sentence, it is necessary to join the sounds together in the proper way.

In the process of speech the degree of sound modifications may be different, varying from partial assimilation, when one sound feature is modified, like in *tenth* (alveolar [n] becomes dental) to actual loss of a sound, e.g. *listen* [ˈlɪsn], *history* [ˈhɪstri], *factory* [ˈfæktri], complete sound adaptation being the intermediate state: *nice shoe* [ˈnaɪs ʃuː] .

Conclusion of chapter II

Main phonetic terms used in description and classification of English vowels in ESL materials are explained in this chapter according to the American variant of pronunciation. Some differences between British and American pronunciation are also described here.

A phoneme represents a group of closely related variants of the same speech sound. A phoneme is the smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one word from another in meaning. English pronunciation is very different from Russian pronunciation. The origins of English go back to the middle of the fifth century when the Germanic tribes (the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes) began to settle in Britain. English descended from the language of the Anglo-Saxons. The languages of the Celtic tribes (the Britons, the Scots, the Picts) who settled in Britain before that were the basis on which Welsh, Scottish and Irish developed. In the course of its history, English was influenced by many languages and borrowed from them. The history of English is usually divided into three main periods.

Old English was heavily inflected and had a complex system of declension of nouns and adjectives, flexible syntax, and rather free word order. Words were usually spelled the way they were pronounced. Old English used the runic alphabet almost until the twelfth century when it was mostly replaced by the Latin alphabet.

The Middle English period ended in the second half of the 15th century when printing was introduced in England in 1476, which preserved the spelling of English words in print and gradually led to uniformity in English spelling.

The Modern English period is still going on, and English is going through new changes. One of the most interesting developments is a certain leveling of dialectal differences in pronunciation due to television, radio, Internet, traveling, and other types of international communication. It seems that English pronunciation is becoming more uniform. For example, in my opinion,

British and American speech now sound closer to each other than they did fifty years ago. It is also possible that a new kind of English is developing – International English, a blend of British and American English.

Modern English is the English language since 1475. In its early period (till the 18th century), further simplification of grammar took place, and the process of standardization of English spelling and word usage began. The works of William Shakespeare (1564-1616) and *A Dictionary of the English Language* published in 1755 by Samuel Johnson contributed greatly to the process of standardization of English.

Late Modern English (from 1800 to the present) is characterized by the globalization of English. New dialects of English emerged in various parts of the world. English became the language of international communication used around the world by native speakers of English and by those for whom English was not their mother tongue. During this period a large number of words from other languages came into English, making its vocabulary the largest in the world.

Nevertheless, the accents are not the same, and there are many minor regional differences in their pronunciation. Also, there are distinctive accents on the East Coast (for example, in New England) and in the South.

Chapter III. Phonetic terms in English and Uzbek explanatory dictionaries

III.1. Phonetic Terms in English explanatory dictionaries

Phonetic alphabets isolate the discreet speech sounds of languages and represent speech sounds with combinations of letters, numbers, and characters which are known as "phones".

In addition, phonetic alphabets use a vocabulary of terms that describe phones and their articulation, including the following characteristics:

- **Manner of articulation.** Describes how the tongue, lips, jaw, and other speech organs make contact to produce a sound.
- **Place of articulation.** The point of contact, where an obstruction occurs in the vocal tract between an active (moving) articulator (typically some part of the tongue) and a passive (stationary) articulator (typically some part of the roof of the mouth).
- **Phonation type.** Indicates whether a sound is voiced or voiceless. A voiced sound is one in which the vocal cords vibrate.
- A voiced sound is one in which the vocal cords do not vibrate.
- **Airstream mechanism.** The method by which airflow is created in the vocal tract.

The following table defines terms used to describe speech sounds and their components, contains additional terms used in phonetics.

PHONETIC TERMS LIST from LONGMAN explanatory dictionary

	Term	Description	The source
1	Abbreviation	A short form of a word or expression	Longman 1997 p.12 Macromedia Inc.
2	Abstract noun	A noun that names a feeling, quality or state, rather than an object, animal or person.	Longman 1997 p.6 Macromedia Inc.

3	Accusative	Technical form of a noun in languages as German or Latin.	Longman 1997 p.11 Macromedia Inc.
4	Acoustic	Relating to sound and the way of people hear things	Longman 1997 p.12 Macromedia Inc.
5	Alveolar	Relating to a sound such as [t] or [d] that is made by putting the end of the tongue at the top of the mouth behind the upper front teeth.	Longman 1997 p.40 Macromedia Inc.
6	Approximant	A consonant sound such as [w] or [l] made by air passing between the tongue or lip and another part of the mouth without any closing of the air passage.	Longman 1997 p.58 Macromedia Inc.
7	Articulation	The production of the speech sounds.	Longman 1997 p.66 Macromedia Inc.
8	Aspirate	To breathe in or to breathe something into your lung by accident.	Longman 1997 p.69 Macromedia Inc.
9	Aspiration	The sound of air bowing out of that happens when some consonants are pronounced. Such as [p] in pin.	Longman 1997 p.69 Macromedia Inc.
10	Assimilation	The process of assimilating or being assimilated, the process of which a sound in a word changes. Because of the effect of another sound next to it.	Longman 1997 p.71 Macromedia Inc.

11	Back	A back vowel sound is made by raising your tongue at the back of your mouth – opposite front.	Longman 1997 p.85 Macromedia Inc.
12	Barbarism	Cruel and violent behavior.	Longman 1997 p.95 Macromedia Inc.
13	Bilabial	Sound such as [p] or [b] that is (used) made using both lips.	Longman 1997 p.123 Macromedia Inc.
14	Consonant	A speech sound made by partly or completely stopping the flow of air through the mouth.	Longman 1997 p.296 Macromedia Inc.
15	Definite article	The word “the” in English.	Longman 1997 p.367 Macromedia Inc.
16	Dental	A consonant that is articulated , tongue against the upper teeth, such as [t], [d] and [n].	Longman 1997 p.373 Macromedia Inc.
17	Diphthong		
18	Dorsal	A consonant that is articulated with the mid body of the tongue.	Longman 1997 p.418 Macromedia Inc.
19	Fricative	A sound such as [f]or [z] made by forcing your breathe through a narrow opening between your lips and teeth, or between your tongue and teeth.	Longman 1997 p.580 Macromedia Inc.

20	Front	A front vowel sound is made by raising your tongue at the front of your mouth, such as the vowel sound in “see”- opposite back.	Longman 1997 p.583 Macromedia Inc.
21	Glide	A vowel sound which is made by moving your tongue from one position to another one, for example “i” [ai].	Longman 1997 p.615 Macromedia Inc.
22	Glottal stop	A speech sound made by completely closing and then opening your glottis, which in some forms of spoken English may take the place of a [t] between vowel sounds or may be used before a vowel sound.	Longman 1997 p.616 Macromedia Inc.
23	Glottis	The space between your vocal cords which produce the sound of your voice by movements in which this space is opened and closed.	Longman 1997 p.616 Macromedia Inc.
24	Lateral	A lateral speech sound is made by using the sides of the tongue.	Longman 1997 p.805 Macromedia Inc.
25	Labial	A labial speech sound is made using one or both lips.	Longman 1997 p.797 Macromedia Inc.
26	Lingual	Related to the tongue, a lingual sound is made by the movement of the tongue.	Longman 1997 p.835 Macromedia Inc.
27	Liquid	either of the consonant sounds [l] and [r]	Longman 1997 p.836 Macromedia Inc.

28	Nasal	Nasal consonant or vowel such as [n] or [m] is one that is produced wholly or partly through your nose.	Longman 1997 p. 965 Macromedia Inc.
29	Omission	The sound that has been omitted	Longman 1997 p.1009 Macromedia Inc.
30	Orthography	System for spelling words in a language correct spelling-orthographic.	Longman 1997 p.1024 Macromedia Inc.
31	Palatal	Sound such as [tʃ] in the word “chin” made by putting your tongue against your hard palate.	Longman 1997 p.1043 Macromedia Inc.
32	Pharynx	The tube that goes from the back of your mouth to where the separate passages for food and air divide-pharyngeal	Longman 1997 p.1080 Macromedia Inc.
33	Phone	Relating to sound the voice or the ability to speak.	Longman 1997 p.1082 Macromedia Inc.
34	Phoneme	The smallest unit of speech that can be used one word different from another word such as the “b” and “p” in “big” and “pig”-phonemic.	Longman 1997 p.1082 Macromedia Inc.
35	Plosive	A consonant sound that is made by completely stopping the flow of air out of your mouth and then suddenly letting it out, as when saying for example [b] or [t].	Longman 1997 p.1104 Macromedia Inc.

36	Pronunciation	The way in which a language or a particular word is pronounced.	Longman 1997 p.1152 Macromedia Inc.
37	Prosody	Duration, rhythm, stress, loudness, pitch and tone of a speech sound.	Longman 1997 p.1155 Macromedia Inc.
38	Radical	A consonant that is articulated with the root (base) of the tongue in the throat.	Longman 1997 p. 1184 Macromedia Inc.
39	Raised	A sound that is articulated with the tongue or lip raised higher than some reference point.	Longman 1997 p.1187 Macromedia Inc.
40	Retracted	A sound that is pronounced farther to the back of the vocal tract than some reference point.	Longman 1997 p.1232 Macromedia Inc.
41	Retroflex	A retroflex speech sound is made with the end of your tongue pointing backward and up.	Longman 1997 p.1233 Macromedia Inc.
42	Rounded	The pronunciation of a vowel with lips formed in a circular opening.	Longman 1997 p.1256 Macromedia Inc.
43	Sibilant	A sibilant sound such as “s” or “sh” in English.	Longman 1997 p. 1345 Macromedia Inc.
44	Soft palate	The soft part of the back of the top of your mouth.	Longman 1997 p.1382 Macromedia Inc.

45	Stop	A consonant sound, like [p] or [k] made by stopping the flow of air completely and then suddenly letting it out of your mouth.	Longman 1997 p.1435 Macromedia Inc.
46	Syllable	A word or part of a word which contains a single vowel sound.	Longman 1997 p.1475 Macromedia Inc.
47	Syllabic	Of or based on syllables.	Longman 1997 p.1475 Macromedia Inc.
48	Timbre	The quality of the sound made by particular instrument or voice.	Longman 1997 p.1523 Macromedia Inc.
49	Tone	The difference in pitch. The pitch of some ones voice as they speak.	Longman 1997 p.1532 Macromedia Inc.
50	Trill	A speech sound produced by quickly moving the end of your tongue against the top part of your mouth when you pronounce the sound [r].	Longman 1997 p.1554 Macromedia Inc.
51	Transformation	Complete change in someone or something.	Longman 1997 p.1547 Macromedia Inc.
52	Unvoiced	Unvoiced consonants are produced without moving the vocal cords: for example [d] and [g] ore voiced consonants, and [t] and [k] are unvoiced.	Longman 1997 p.1590 Macromedia Inc.

53	Uvular	A consonant that is articulated with the back of the tongue against or near the uvular, that is , further back in the mouth than velar consonants.	Longman 1997 p. 1597 Macromedia Inc.
54	Velar	A velar consonant such as [k] or [g] is pronounced with the back of your tongue close to the soft part of the top of your mouth.	Longman 1997 p.1603 Macromedia Inc.
55	Vocal cords	Thin pieces of muscles in your throat that produce sounds when you speak.	Longman 1997 p.1613 Macromedia Inc.
56	Voiced	Voiced sounds are made using the vocal cords, for example [d] and [g] are voiced consonants.	Longman 1997 p.1613 Macromedia Inc.
57	Voiceless	Voiceless sounds are made without using vocal cords, unvoiced, For example [p] and [k] are voiceless consonants.	Longman 1997 p.1613 Macromedia Inc.
58	Vowel	One of the speech sounds that you make by letting your breath flow out without closing any part of your mouth or throat.	Longman 1997 p.1616 Macromedia Inc.

III.2. Uzbek phonetic terms in explanatory dictionaries

We studied “O’zbek tilining izohli lug’ati” Uzbek dictionary which consist of 5 books. And learned all phonetic terms that we have in Uzbek language. Here we gave some examples taken from the dictionary:

Uzbek phonetic terms			
	Termin	Izoh	Manba
1	Artikl	(lot. articulus - nutq qismi bo’lagi.) Ba’zi tillarda otning oldidan qo’shilib, unga aniqlik yoki noaniqlik va boshqa ma’nolarni bag’ishlaydigan ko’rsatkich. Aniqlik artikli.	O’zbek tilining izohli lug’ati. 1-kitob Tosh.2006. 101b
2	Agglyutinatsiya	(lot-agglunatio yopishtirish)so’z yasash yoki shakl yasash asosini o’zgartirmagan holda unga standart affikslarni qo’shish orqali so’z yoki shakl yasalishi. Agglyutinatsiyada har bir affiks faqat bir Grammatik ma’noga ega.	O’zbek tilining izohli lug’ati. 1-kitob Tosh.2006. 87b
3	Akustika	(yun.akustikos-eshitish,quloq solishga doir)biror binoda tovushlarning eshitilishi sharoiti va xususiyatlari tovushlarning yaxshi eshitilishi yoki eshitilmaslik holati.	O’zbek tilining izohli lug’ati. 1-kitob Tosh.2006. 90b
4	Assimilatsiya	(lot assimilation-o’xshatish,qiyos,tenglashtirish)	O’zbek tilinig izohli lug’ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 98b

5	Artikulatsiya	(lot.articulatio<artikulare-aniq talaffuz qilmoq)Nutq a'zolarining (lab,til va shu kabilarning tovush hosil qilishdagi harakat faoliyati va holati.	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 101b
6	Affiks	(lot.affixus-birlashtirilgan,biriktirilgan.)so'zga qo'shiladigan qo'shimchalar	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 96b
7	Bo'g'in	So'zning bir nafas bilan aytiladigan, bir yoki bir necha tovushdan iborat bo'lagi “Tosh” so'zi bir bo'g'indan, “Bolta” so'zi esa 2 bo'g'indan iborat.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 426b
8	Bo'g'iz undoshlari	Tomoqning qizilo'ngach va kekirdak boshlanadigan yeri, tomoq. Shu yerda talaffuz qilinadigan undoshlar H undoshi.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 426b
9	Burun tovushi	Burun yordamida hosil bo'ladigan tovush M: M, N, Ng.	Ona tili darsligi. 1999 y. 46b
10	Bog'lovchi	So'zlarni bog'lashga xizmat qiladigan qo'shimchalar	Ona tili darsligi. 1999 y. 76b
11	Bo'g'in	Bir nafas zarbi bilan aytiladigan tovush yoki tovushlar birligi	Ona tili darsligi. 1999 y. 77b
12	Diftong	(di+yun phthongos ovoz, tovush) Ikki unli tovushning bir bo'g'inining, qorishib kelishi va shunday birikkan tovushlar. Maslan: nem. Tilidagi “au” kabi.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 629b

13	Dissimilatsiya	(lot dissimilation-o'xshamaslik. So'zlarni talaffuz etganda artikulatsiya o'rni yoki usuli jihatdan o'xshash tovushlardan birining o'zgarishini boshqa noo'xshash tovush bilan almashinuvi)	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 1- kitob Tosh 2006 676b
14	Dominanta	Sininimlar qatoridagi asosiy so'z.	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 1- kitob Tosh 2006 567b
15	Fonema	Biror tilda so'z yoki morfemalarning ma'no farqini belgilovchi, ularni bir- biridan farqlashga xizmat qiluvchi tovush birligi.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4- kitob Tosh 2006 356b
16	Fonetika	Tilshunoslikning nutq tovushlarining hosil bo'lish usullari, akoustik xususiyatlari va tarkibini o'rganadigan bo'lim	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4- kitob Tosh 2006 356b
17	Fricativ	Nutq a'zolari bir-biriga yaqinlashib , havo tor oraliqdan sirg'alib chiqishi natijasida hosil bo'ladigan V, F, S, Z, J, Sh, X undoshlari.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4- kitob Tosh 2006 365b
18	Fraza	Nutqning tugal fikr bildiruvchi odatda gapga teng bo'luvchi mustaqil birligi.	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4- kitob Tosh 2006 364b

19	Harakat nomi	Fe'ning ish-harakat nominigina bildiruvchi (uni atovchi zamon shaxs-son mayl kabi ma'nolarga ega bo'lmaydigan shakli). Bu shakl –sh,-ish,-u,-uv,-moq qo'shimchalaridan biri bilan hosil qilinadi. M:o'qish,o'quv,o'qimoq	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 512b
20	Harf	Tovushning yozuvdagi shakli.undosh tovush(so'z) tovush(fonema) ning yozma nutq uchun qabul qilingan shakli,belgisi. Har bir tovush 1 belgi bilan ifodalanadi. M:a,b,k,u.	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 512b
21	Hiqqildoq	Nafas yo'lining (burun bo'shlig'idan keyin) ikkinchi qismi ovoz hosil qiluvchi a'zo (kekirdakka havo o'tishini ta'minlaydi va unga qattiq, suyuq moddalar tushishiga to'sqinlik qiladi).	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 539b
22	Intonatsiya	(lot. Intonare-baland ovozda gapirmoq, talaffuz qilmoq) Tovushning o'zgarishidan past-baland bo'lib tovushdan iborat bo'lgan, ritmik ohangdor, nutq tuzilishi, ohang.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 219b
23	Jarangsiz undosh	Tovush paychalarining ishtirokisiz hosil bo'ladigan shovqinli tovush.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 74b
24	Jarangli undosh	Tovush paychalarining ishtiroki bilan hosil bo'ladigan ovozli tovush.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 73b

25	Lab undoshi	Lab yordamida hosil bo'ladigan undoshlar	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 100b
26	Lablangan	Labial tovushlar, lab tovushlari	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 101b
27	Nafas tovushi	O'pkaga olinadigan va undan chiqariladigan havo, dam, tin	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 1-kitob Tosh 2006 426b
28	O'zak	So'zning asl ma'nosini bildirib, yangi so'z yasashiga asos bo'ladigan, so'z yasovchi qo'shiladigan eng kichik qism so'z yasash asosi.	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 135b
29	O'zlashmoq	O'zga tildan qabul qilinmoq	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 138b
30	Portlovchi undoshlar	Nutq a'zolarining jipslashuvi va havo oqimi bosimining shu a'zolari yorib o'tishi natijasida hosil bo'ladigan undoshlar.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 3-kitob Tosh 2006 299b
31	Qo'shimcha	So'zga qo'shilib yangi so'z yokiso'z shaklini hosil qiluvchi morfema	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 419b

32	Qo'shma	Ikki va undan ortiq til birligining qo'shiluvidan tashkil topgan qo'shma gap,qo'shma so'z ,qo'shma affiks	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 420b
33	Reduksiya	Kuchsiz laffuz natijasida tovushning o'zgarishi, tovushning miqdor va sifat begisi jihatdan pasayishi (bu hodisa asosan urg'usiz bo'g'indagi unlilarga hos bo'ladi)	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 3-kitob Tosh 2006 369b
34	Silabik	(syllable- bo'g'in) grafik belgilari hosil qiluvchi fonema yoki fonema qo'shilmalarini ifodalaydigan yozuv.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 3-kitob Tosh 2006 502b
35	Sirg'luvchi undoshlar	Frikativ tovushlar.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 3-kitob Tosh 2006 526b
36	Shovqinli undoshlar	Og'iz bo'shlig'ida un ishtirokisiz hosil bo'ladigan tovush. Faqat shovqindan hosil bo'lgan K, P, S, T, F, Sh, Ch, Q, X, IJ,H tovushlari jaransiz undosh tovushlardir.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 589b
37	Taqsim son	Bo'lak ulush ifodalaydigan son	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 39b

38	Tembr	Bir pardadagi bir xil balandlikdagi,har tovushlarning o'ziga xos tomonlari,sifati tovlanishi	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 61b
39	Tovush	Nutq a'zolarining artikulyatsiyasi bilan hosil bo'ladigan eng kichik til birligi.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 130b
40	Transformatsiya	Asosiy sintaktik tuzilmani til qonun-qoidalari asosida o'zgartirib ikkinchi bir tizimni hosil qilish	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 168b
41	Tub so'z	Qismlarga bo'linmaydigan yasama bo'lmagan	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 173b
42	Undosh tovush	Og'iz va bo'g'iz bo'shlig'ida turli to'siqlarga uchrab hosil bo'ladigan, tarkibi faqat shovqindan iborat bo'ladigan tovush. M: B, V, D tovushlari.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 289b
43	Unli tovush	Og'iz va bo'g'iz bo'shlig'ida hech qanday to'siqqa uchramay hosil bo'ladigan , tarkibi ovozdan iborat (shovchin deyarli ishtirok etmaydigan) tovush. M: A,I,O.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 290b

44	Urg'u	Turli fonetik vositalar (masalan: ovozni kuchaytirish) orqali bo'g'in yoki so'zni ajratishga hos kuchli talaffuz.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 298b
45	Uzual	Umum qo'llanishga oid, umum qo'llanishga xos	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006 270b
46	yasama	Yasovchi qo'shimchalar vositasida hosil qilingan, yasalgan	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 121b
47	Yasovchi qo'shimchalar	So'z yasalish asosiga qo'shilib yangi so'z hosil qiladigan so'z. Yasovchi qo'shimchalar. M: ot-ishchi, fe'l-ishla	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 121b
48	Yuklama	Mustaqil bo'lak yoki gapga turli qo'shimcha ma'no berish, shuningdek turli Grammatik munosabatlarni ifodalash uchun xizmat qiladigan yordamchi so'z yoki qo'shimcha. M: nahotki, holos-chi, -mi.	O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati 5-kitob Tosh 2006 80b
49	Chastota	Muayyan lingvistik hodisaning nutqda miqdoran qo'llanish darajasi	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4-kitob Tosh 2006

			463b
50	Cho'ziq	Uzoq davomli talaffuz etiladigan .M:cho'ziq bo'g'in, cho'ziq unli	O'zbek tilinig izohli lug'ati 4- kitob Tosh 2006 520b

III. 3 Similarities and differences of phonetic terms in Uzbek and English monolingual dictionaries

We made a research on the phonetic terms that are found in English language and made a table of these terms comparing both in English and Uzbek languages. Here we showed the similarities and differences of English and Uzbek phonetic terms. Also tried show the existing and none existing terms both in Uzbek and English languages.

	English phonetic terms Source: Longman English dictionary 1997 Macromedia Inc.	N	Uzbek phonetic terms Source: O'zbek tilining izohli lug'ati, ona tilining maktablar uchun darsligi
1	Abbreviation A short form of a word or expression	1	Abraviatura ----- -----
2	Abstract noun A noun that names a feeling, quality or state, rather than an object, animal or person		Mavhum ot -----

3	<p>Accusative</p> <p>Technical form of a noun in languages as German or Latin.</p>		-----
4	<p>Acoustic</p> <p>Relating to sound and the way of people hear things</p>		<p>Akustika (yunoncha akustikos-eshitish,quloq solishga doir) biror binoda tovushlarning eshitilishi sharoiti va xususiyatlari tovushlarning yaxshi eshitilishi yoki eshitilmaslik holati.</p>
5	<p>Alveolar</p> <p>Relating to a sound such as [t] or [d] that is made by putting the end of the tongue at the top of the mouth behind the upper front teeth.</p>		
6	<p>Approximant</p> <p>A consonant sound such as [w] or [l] made by air passing between the tongue or lip and another part of the mouth without any closing of the air passage.</p>		
7	<p>Articulation</p> <p>The production of the speech sounds.</p>		<p>Artikulyatsiya (lot.- articulatio-articulare-aniq talaffuz qilmoq) nutq a'zolarining (lab,til va shu kabilarning) tovush hosil qilishdagi harakat –faoliyati va holati.</p>
8	<p>Aspirate To breathe in or to breathe something into your lung by accident.</p>		

9	Aspiration The sound of air bowing out of that happens when some consonants are pronounced. Such as [p] in pin.		
10	Assimilation The process of assimilating or being assimilated, the process of which a sound in a word changes. Because of the effect of another sound next to it.		Assimilatsiya (lot. Assimilation- o'xshatish,qiyos,tenglashtiris h) Bir tovushning boshqa bir tovush ta'sirida o'xshashlik bir xillik tomon o'zgarishi.M: oshshi-oshni tussiz -tuzsiz
11	Back A back vowel sound is made by raising your tongue at the back of your mouth – opposite front.		
12	Barbarism Cruel and violent behavior.		
13	Bilabial Sound such as [p] or [b] that is (used) made using both lips.		Lab undoshi Lab yordamida hosil bo'ladigan undoshlar
14	Consonant A speech sound made by partly or completely stopping the flow of air through the mouth.		Undosh tovush Og'iz va bo'g'iz bo'shlig'ida turli to'siqlarga uchrab hosil bo'ladigan, tarkibi faqat shovqindan iborat bo'ladigan tovush. M: B, V, D tovushlari.
15	Definite article The word “the” in English.		Artikl (lot. articulus - nutq qismi bo'lagi.) Ba'zi tillarda otning oldidan qo'shilib, unga

			aniqlik yoki noaniqlik va boshqa ma'nolarni bag'ishlaydigan ko'rsatkich. Aniqlik artikli.
16	Dental A consonant that is articulated , tongue against the upper teeth, such as [t], [d] and [n].		Lab tish undoshlar ----- ---
17	Diphthong a component vowel sound made by pronouncing two vowel quickly one after the other. For example the vowel sound in "my" is a diphthong.		Diftong (di+yun phthongos ovoz, tovush) Ikki unli tovushning bir bo'g'inning, qorishib kelishi va shunday birikkan tovushlar. Maslan: nem. Tilidagi "au" kabi.
18	Dorsal A consonant that is articulated with the mid body of the tongue.		Ti o'rta undoshlar -----
19	Fricative A sound such as [f]or [z] made by forcing your breathe through a narrow opening between your lips and teeth, or between your tongue and teeth.		Sirg'luvchi undoshlar Frikativ tovushlar.
20	Front A front vowel sound is made by raising your tongue at the front of your mouth, such as the vowel sound in "see"-opposite back.		Til oldi unlilar -----
21	Glide A vowel sound which is made by moving your tongue from one position to another one, for example "i" [ai].		

22	<p>Glottal stop</p> <p>A speech sound made by completely closing and then opening your glottis, which in some forms of spoken English may take the place of a [t] between vowel sounds or may be used before a vowel sound.</p>		
23	<p>Glottis</p> <p>The space between your vocal cords which produce the sound of your voice by movements in which this space is opened and closed.</p>		
24	<p>Lateral</p> <p>A lateral speech sound is made by using the sides of the tongue.</p>		<p>Lab undoshi</p> <p>Lab yordamida hosil bo'ladigan undoshlar</p>
25	<p>Labial</p> <p>A labial speech sound is made using one or both lips.</p>		<p>Lablangan</p> <p>Labial tovushlar, lab tovushlari</p>
26	<p>Lingual</p> <p>Related to the tongue, a lingual sound is made by the movement of the tongue.</p>		<p>Til tovushlar</p> <p>-----</p>
27	<p>Liquid either of the consonant sounds [l] and [r]</p>		
28	<p>Nasal</p> <p>Nasal consonant or vowel such as [n] or [m] is one that is produced wholly or partly through your nose.</p>		<p>Burun tovushi</p> <p>Burun yordamida hosil bo'ladigan tovush M: M, N, Ng.</p>

29	Omission The sound that has been omitted		
30	Orthography System for spelling words in a language correct spelling-orthographic.		Orfografiya to'g'ri yozuv qoidalarini o'rganuvchi bo'lim
31	Palatal Sound such as [tʃ] in the word "chin" made by putting your tongue against your hard palate.		
32	Pharynx The tube that goes from the back of your mouth to where the separate passages for food and air divide-pharyngeal		Hiqqildoq Nafas yo'lining (burun bo'shlig'idan keyin) ikkinchi qismi ovoz hosil qiluvchi a'zo (kekirdakka havo o'tishini ta'minlaydi va unga qattiq, suyuq moddalar tushishiga to'sqinlik qiladi).
33	Phone Relating to sound the voice or the ability to speak.		Tovush Nutq a'zolarining artikulyatsiyasi bilan hosil bo'ladigan eng kichik til birligi.
34	Phoneme The smallest unit of speech that can be used one word different from another word such as the "b" and "p" in "big" and "pig"-phonemic.		Fonema Biror tilda so'z yoki morfemalarning ma'no farqini belgilovchi, ularni bir-biridan farqlashga xizmat qiluvchi tovush birligi.

35	<p>Plosive</p> <p>A consonant sound that is made by completely stopping the flow of air out of your mouth and then suddenly letting it out, as when saying for example [b] or [t].</p>		<p>Portlovchi undoshlar</p> <p>Nutq a'zolarining jipslashuvi va havo oqimi bosimining shu a'zolari yorib o'tishi natijasida hosil bo'ladigan undoshlar.</p>
36	<p>Pronunciation</p> <p>The way in which a language or a particular word is pronounced.</p>		
37	<p>Prosody</p> <p>Duration, rhythm, stress, loudness, pitch and tone of a speech sound.</p>		
38	<p>Radical</p> <p>A consonant that is articulated with the root (base) of the tongue in the throat.</p>		
39	<p>Raised</p> <p>A sound that is articulated with the tongue or lip raised higher than some reference point.</p>		
40	<p>Retracted</p> <p>A sound that is pronounced farther to the back of the vocal tract than some reference point.</p>		
41	<p>Retroflex</p> <p>A retroflex speech sound is made with the end of your tongue pointing backward and up.</p>		

42	<p>Rounded</p> <p>The pronunciation of a vowel with lips formed in a circular opening.</p>		
43	<p>Sibilant</p> <p>A sibilant sound such as “s” or “sh” in English.</p>		
44	<p>Soft palate</p> <p>The soft part of the back of the top of your mouth.</p>		
45	<p>Stop</p> <p>A consonant sound, like [p] or [k] made by stopping the flow of air completely and then suddenly letting it out of your mouth.</p>		
46	<p>Syllable</p> <p>A word or part of a word which contains a single vowel sound.</p>		<p>Bo’g’in</p> <p>So’zning bir nafas bilan aytiladigan, bir yoki bir necha tovushdan iborat bo’lagi “Tosh” so’zi bir bo’g’indan, “Bolta” so’zi esa 2 bo’g’indan iborat.</p>
47	<p>Syllabic</p> <p>Of or based on syllables.</p>		<p>Silabik</p> <p>(syllable- bo’g’in) grafik belgilari hosil qiluvchi fonema yoki fonema qo’shilmalarini ifodalaydigan yozuv.</p>
48	<p>Timbre</p> <p>The quality of the sound made by particular instrument or voice.</p>		<p>Tembr Bir pardadagi bir xil balandlikdagi, har bir tovush o’ziga xos tomoni, sifati tovlanishi.</p>

49	<p>Tone</p> <p>The difference in pitch. The pitch of some ones voice as they speak.</p>		
50	<p>Trill</p> <p>A speech sound produced by quickly moving the end of your tongue against the top part of your mouth when you pronounce the sound [r].</p>		
51	<p>Transformation</p> <p>Complete change in someone or something.</p>		<p>Transformatsiya</p> <p>Asosiy sintaktik tuzilmani til qonun-qoidalari asosida o'zgartirib ikkinchi bir tizimni hosil qilish</p>
52	<p>Unvoiced</p> <p>Unvoiced consonants are produced without moving the vocal cords: for example [d] and [g] ore voiced consonants, and [t] and [k] are unvoiced.</p>		<p>Shovqinsiz tovushlar</p>
53	<p>Uvular</p> <p>A consonant that is articulated with the back of the tongue against or near the uvular, that is , further back in the mouth than velar consonants.</p>		
54	<p>Velar</p> <p>A velar consonant such as [k] or [g] is pronounced with the back of your tongue close to the soft part of the top of your mouth.</p>		

55	<p>Vocal cords</p> <p>Thin pieces of muscles in your throat that produce sounds when you speak.</p>		
56	<p>Voiced</p> <p>Voiced sounds are made using the vocal cords, for example [d] and [g] are voiced consonants.</p>		<p>Shovqinli undoshlar</p> <p>Og'iz bo'shlig'ida un ishtirokisiz hosil bo'ladigan tovush. Faqat shovqindan hosil bo'lgan K, P, S, T, F, Sh, Ch, Q, X, II,H tovushlari jaransiz undosh tovushlardir.</p>
57	<p>Voiceless</p> <p>Voiceless sounds are made without using vocal cords, unvoiced, For example [p] and [k] are voiceless consonants.</p>		
58	<p>Vowel</p> <p>One of the speech sounds that you make by letting your breath flow out without closing any part of your mouth or throat.</p>		<p>Unli tovush</p> <p>Og'iz va bo'g'iz bo'shlig'ida hech qanday to'siqqa uchramay hosil bo'ladigan , tarkibi ovozdan iborat (shovchin deyarli ishtirok etmaydigan) tovush. M: A,I,O.</p>

CONCLUSION

1.As we have already above mentioned, language as “the most important means of human intercourse” exists in the material form of speech sounds. It cannot exist without being spoken. Phonetics was studied. in ancient India since 2500 B.C..

The Ancient Greeks are credited as the first to base a writing system on a phonetic alphabet. Modern phonetics began with Alexander Melville Bell, whose Visible Speech (1867) introduced a system of precise notation for writing down speech sounds.

2.Linguistic is composed of some units, which are divided into significant and non - significant ones.

3.The whole system of relation of linguistic units forms a system of a language. Languages differ in systems and structures.

According to their functions phonetic units - sounds, syllables, stress and intonation can be described linguistically and classified to some groups or subgroups.

4.Phonetics is concerned with the human noises. Phonetics studies the sound system of the language that is segmental phonemes, word stress, syllabic structure and intonation. The scientific study of a language involves an explanation of a mass of notions in terms of a rigorously organized and highly patterned system - the link between the units.

5. Phonetics has two main divisions: phonology, the Study of sound patterns of languages, of how a spoken language functions as a "code", and the study of substance, that carries the code. It shows that there is a close relationship between the language and thought. In modern linguistics this relationship is explained the terms of distinctions: substance and form. It follows from this, that phonetics a basis brunch or fundamental brunch of linguistics, that is why phonetics claims to be of equal importance with grammar and lexicology.

6. The movements of the speech apparatus disturb the air stream thus producing sound waves. Consequently the third stage may be called physical or acoustic. The last stages are the reception of the sound waves by the listener's, hearing physiological apparatus, the transmission of the spoken message.

7. According to their functions phonetic units - sounds, syllables, stress and intonation can be described linguistically and classified to some groups or subgroups. The relationship between all the units or elements of a language includes different notions starting from sounds, morphemes, words, word combinations and ending up with phrases.

8. Phonetics in the wider sense includes phonology as distinct from morphology, syntax and stylistics. Phonology is one of the aspects of studying. Phonetics data: otherwise it is purely linguistic and social aspect of studying phonetics.

9. The theme is dedicated to the theme Phonetics as a branch of linguistic. Today, this theme is one of the most interesting, disputable and important problems of theoretical phonetics of modern English.

10. The English and Uzbek phonetic terms have similarities and differences as we showed at the table above. We can see that not all terms have their adequate pairs in both languages. Their articulation also differ from each other.

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