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**QUALIFICATION WORK ON SPECIALITY OF
ENGLISH PHILOLOGY**

ON THE THEME:

**“STYLES OF PRONUNCIATION AND RELATION WITH
REDUCTION AND ELISION OF VOWELS IN ENGLISH”**

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Theme: Styles of pronunciation and its relation with reduction and elision of vowels in English

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II. Phonostylistics and problem of styles

2.1 Informational style;

2.2 Academic style;

2.3 Publicistic style;

2.4 Declamatory style;

2.5 Conversational style

III. Reduction and elision of vowels in English, and its influence on styles of pronunciation

3.1 Modifications of English vowels in speech.

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Introduction

The main aspect of the development of the national economy should be viewed from both economic and social point of view. All kinds of reinforcement of material and technical bases of the social sphere are one of the most important problems in transition to market relations.

Special attentions attached to the 5 main principle of the building of the sovereign state advanced by I. A. Karimov were recognized not only in our country, but also abroad.

These principles are the following: economy should be a priority task over politics; the state should act as the main reformer; leadership of law should be established all spheres of life, strong social policy should be implemented in all spheres of life; transition to market economy should be evolutionary i.e. step by step exactly these 5 principles are at the basis of development of our state and branches of economy.

Only well educated and professional person can be economically free and reliable proponents of the crucial economic transformation. Awarding this truth should like in the bases of the whole development process of spiritual and cultural life of the people, in the renewal of the whole system of education.

We should remember that only that country, that nation can advice great future, prosperity and well-being which would be able to train knowledgeable, professional and energetic persons, true patriot of their country the country which would provide them with huge spiritual legacy of the great national culture and give them access to the world treasure of science and culture.

There is possibility to radically reform the education system, to bring its contents, forms and methods close to the real need of the , to save the high and secondary schools from conservatism and formalities which rooted deeply into the system of education during the former, previous regime.

Educational establishment of a new type, such as professional colleges, lyceums business schools and academic lyceums are intensively being created.

One of the main Constitutional guarantees – the right to receive education, realization of creativity, intellectual development – are realized through this program. The marked development of educational services is being achieved through developing marketing in the sphere of education, and training qualified specialists, the system of governmental and non-governmental education establishments, paid consulting and educational services is being developed. Market relations in the principles of self-financing, principles of demand and supply.

To provide efficient work of educational establishments of a new type and their efficient functioning, the center of the special secondary professional education was formed, as a part of the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Education.

Much work is performed in provisioning the branches of the national economy with educated specialists of various levels.

Much attention is given to the problems of the development of scientific and research work because the state will not have its future without all-sided elaboration of science. Taking this into account much attention in the Republic is attached to expansion of research work, efficient application of scientific achievements in various spheres of the national economy.

Alongside with numerous fields of science and due to economic reforms such trends of science as economics, history, philosophy, law, sociology and other are being developed. Wide and profound research work, both of fundamental and applied nature, is being conducted in subdivisions of the Academy of Sciences and in various educational establishments of Uzbekistan.

During the last year the most important document aimed at creation of favorable conditions to form a new highly educated generation and to support gifted children and the youth were adopted. Among these important documents are: the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan “*On the National program of training specialists*” “*On education*”, the Resolution of the Cabinet of Ministers “On the organization of general secondary education in the Republic of Uzbekistan”, “On measures of organization on special secondary education in the Republic of

development and financing the material and technical lyceums and professional colleges for the years of 1999 - 2003”.

Among listed documents “*The National program of training specialists*” stipulates formation of many-sided individual educated thought the system of continuous education organically connected with intellectual, cultural and moral education of a citizen.

That's why today we attached special attention to this issue. That is why our society is so much interested in these draft laws , intended the achievement of this objective , and reforms in the field of education is becoming more urgent problem , the solution of which will determine our future. So we realized that the achievement of the great objectives we have noble intentions, such as renewal of society, efficiency of our reforms being carried out for the sake of progress and the future, and the results of our intentions are closely connected, first of all, with the problem of training highly qualified personnel, specialists who meet the requirements of the time .

More ever we are all becoming aware of one more truth. Only a well educated person is able to value human dignity, preserve national values, raise national awareness, fight the right to live in a free society, so that our independent stat could win a decent and respectable place in the world community.

That's why in our country , beginning from the initial steps along the road of the independence , special attention has been paid to the revival and further development of our great spirituality , the improvement of national education system , the strengthening of its national basis , and raising it to world standards in harmony with modern requirements. I'd like to speak briefly about the work that had been done in this process for the last years.

Regarding schools, we adopted the law on education starting from the 1996-1997 academic year. In the first form children began learning to read new ABC-books. For the teaching new orphogaphy or and ABC-books, necessary programmes , manuals and textbooks were created. During this period, 300 new educational institutions were created, 46 lyceums were established under higher

educational institutions, about 800 students studied abroad and many teachers visited other countries in order to study modern ways of teaching.

In the field of secondary specialized education its worth mentioning the opening of business school in our region, professional courses for primary and secondary schools, teaching new specialists proceeding from market economy requirements.

In the field of higher education it is necessary to draw our attention to the implementation of the test system , the reorganization of the pedagogical Institutes in regional centers into Universities, giving regional educational institutions higher status, sending students and specialists abroad to study and exchange experience on the account of newly established national organizations and international funds , carrying out concrete work intended to retrain specialists and teachers in the field of business and economics and economic training of more than 2000 students and specialists abroad in the transitional period , attracting more than 200 foreign specialists to educational institution of our republic .

Funds " Mahalla", "Kamolot", "Sog'lom avlod uchun", "Nuroni", "Ulug'bek", "Umid", and "Fond Forum" working in the field of education, their contribution to bringing up a physically and spiritually perfect generation. We have a lot of positive results in this field.

At the present great importance is attached to the study and teaching foreign languages. No doubt, it happens not without purpose. Today, the importance of our people's perfect knowledge of foreign languages can scarcely be exaggerated as our country aspires to win a decent place in the world community, because our people see their great future as a life in mutual accord and cooperation with their foreign partners.

On December 10, 2012 President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree "On measures to further improve foreign language learning system".[3:1-2]

It is noted that in the framework of the Law of the Republic of Uzbekistan "On education" and the National Programme for Training in the

country, a comprehensive foreign languages' teaching system, aimed at creating harmoniously developed, highly educated, modern-thinking young generation, further integration of the country to the world community, has been created. During the years of independence, over 51.7 thousand teachers of foreign languages graduated from universities, English, German and French multimedia tutorials and textbooks for 5-9 grades of secondary schools, electronic resources for learning English in primary schools were created, more than 5000 secondary schools, professional colleges and academic lyceums were equipped with language laboratories.

However, analysis of the current system of organizing language learning shows that learning standards, curricula and textbooks do not fully meet the current requirements, particularly in the use of advanced information and media technologies. Education is mainly conducted in traditional methods. Further development of a continuum of foreign languages learning at all levels of education; improving skills of teachers and provision of modern teaching materials are required.

According to the decree, starting from 2013/2014 school year foreign languages, mainly English, gradually throughout the country will be taught from the first year of schooling in the form of lesson-games and speaking games, continuing to learning the alphabet, reading and spelling in the second year (grade).

Also it is envisaged that university modules, especially in technical and international areas, will be offered in English and other foreign languages at higher education institutions.

The State Testing Centre, along with other relevant agencies, is tasked with preparing draft proposals on introducing foreign languages testing to the entrance examinations for all higher educational institutions.

In order to increase teaching standards in distant rural areas, the higher educational institutions are allowed targeted admission of people living in distant areas to foreign language programs on the condition that they will oblige

themselves to work in the acquired specialty at their residence area for at least 5 years after graduation. The decree also envisages 30% salary increase for foreign language teachers in rural areas, 15% increase for those in other areas.

The National Teleradio Company, State Committee for communications, informatisation and telecommunication technologies, Agency for Press and Information of the Republic of Uzbekistan are tasked to prepare and broadcast language-learning programs, significantly increase access to international educational resources via “Ziyonet” educational network, promote publication of foreign language textbooks, magazines and other materials. [1]

The government has been entrusted with developing a package of measures for development of science and supporting the young people in their scientific activities. And as our president mentioned: “...the extremely important factor of the current reforms is the extremely qualified workforce.”[2]

More ever we are all becoming aware of one more truth. Only a well educated person is able to value human dignity, preserve national values, raise national awareness, fight self-sacrificingly the right to live in a free society , so that our independent state could win a decent and respectable place in the world community.

In the field of higher education it is necessary to draw our attention to the implementation of the test system , the reorganization of the pedagogical Institutes in regional centers into Universities, giving regional educational institutions higher status, sending students and specialists abroad to study and exchange experience on the account of newly established national organizations and international funds , carrying out concrete work intended to retrain specialists and teachers in the field of business and economics and economic training of more than 2000 students and specialists abroad in the transitional period , attracting more than 200 foreign specialists to educational institution of our republic [1].

However, it is necessary to remember always that the study of foreign languages should not be carried out at the expense of oblivion to the mother tongue .It is hard to understand and justify a specialist, especially one holding a high post,

who is unable to choose fine and appropriate words to express his idea, concisely and precisely, in his mother tongue. In our recent past, in most cases the Russian language but not the mother tongue served as mediator in the study of foreign language.

Pronunciation seems to be sometimes a neglected part in our English lessons. Many teachers are not used to teaching it for many reasons. As most teachers in our schools are not native speakers, there is no need to set native-like pronunciation as one of our goals, moreover, most teachers themselves do not feel perfect in this language component and thus feel reluctant to show it. But we do not need to be perfect to enable our pupils to achieve their best. The next obstruction for teachers is the lack of pronunciation tests and general unfamiliarity with their assessment. Nevertheless, giving feedback on correct speaking to our students should be involved. Learning pronunciation will elevate their level of speaking and undoubtedly will improve their listening skills.

People learn languages for many different purposes. And therefore, the goals for individual learners may vary. From the teachers' point of view, the following aspects should be taken into account: the age, natural ability and motivation of the learners which is to be the base for answering the questions about how much time we will devote to teaching pronunciation and what level is needed for obtaining efficient communication. This is difficult, since, in contrast with e. g. grammar or vocabulary plans, pronunciation does not enable this particular progressive pace as all phonetic and phonological features occur from the very beginning. Nevertheless, we can count on the subconscious acquisition of the sound of English which will be beneficial for both, teachers and learners, later on.

We can delimit two extreme targets in learning pronunciation. On the one hand, some learners aim to obtain native-like pronunciation, on the other hand, many learners' purposes are more practical in the way that as long as their speaking is comprehensible, they do not have the need to improve. Both these opinions have their advantages and disadvantages. In practice, many learners do not achieve native-like pronunciation and the question is, if its obtaining is

necessary. At the same time, learning pronunciation does not only improve speaking, but has a great influence on our listening skills, so its practice is useful.

The theme of my graduation paper is “Styles of pronunciation and its relation with reduction and elision of vowels in English”. It’s closely related with theoretical and practical phonetics, phonostylistics, data of researches and other social subjects.

As the previously mentioned statements were the extremes in attitude to pronunciation learning, our aim should be somewhere in between, which means that we should aim to reduce the time to “tune in” for the listener as well as to put down the strain for the speaker in order to make the conversation comfortable for both sides.

The actuality of my graduating qualification paper lies on vital need to investigate styles of English pronunciation taking into account influence of reduction, and motivate students to learn this language thoroughly, according to the last documents signed by our president.

In this work it is necessary to solve the following **primary objectives**:

1. Theoretically to comprehend and approve importance of knowledge on styles of English pronunciation
2. To analyze all styles of English pronunciation, relation between pronunciation and reduction
3. To find out the last changes on a given theme, and describe them.

The subject matter of graduating qualification paper is English pronunciation with all its subdivisions.

The object of graduating qualification paper is to analyze characteristic features of pronunciation styles in English.

During the work the following **methods of research** were applied:

1. The analysis of the scientific literature on a theme of graduation work;
2. The analysis of programs and internet resources such as official sites of foreign authors and websites of both domestic and foreign universities;

Practical value of the given theme is included in the formation of modern scientific resource for language learners and students of the Higher Education.

Structure of my qualification paper is as follows: introduction, three chapters, conclusion and the list of used literature.

First chapter is dedicated to the tasks of modern phonetics and its role in teaching English.

Second chapter is about Phonostylistics and problem of styles

Third chapter is dedicated to reduction and elision of vowels in English, and its influence on styles of pronunciation .

As methodological basis of my graduating qualification paper all laws and decrees dedicated to improving system of teaching foreign languages can be taken.

For **material of my graduation paper** I used scientific works and articles of many well-known scientists, such as D. Jones, J.C. Wells, J. Gimson, S. Johnson, S. Jeffries, J. Maidment. D, A. Abduazizov, K. Vrubel and etc.

Chapter I. The tasks of modern phonetics and its role in teaching English

Modern demands for knowing English can not be realized without fluency in speaking. Also, an effective communication can not be fulfilled without fluent, understandable English. So, what makes our speech understandable for others? Of course, correct pronunciation and strong grammar.

To our surprise, students graduating special or any other educational institutions do not speak English as it was drawn in demands. Maybe, it was related with lots of problems in the sphere of education before independence, such as lack of good textbooks, or modern techniques or something else. But I think that it's directly connected with ignoring such important subject as theoretical phonetics.

Teaching pronunciation involves a variety of challenges. To begin with, teachers find that they do not have enough time in class to give proper attention to this aspect of English instruction. When they do find the time to address pronunciation, the instruction often amounts to the presentation and practice of a series of tedious and seemingly unrelated topics. Drilling sounds over and over again (e.g., minimal pair work) often leads to discouraging results, and discouraged students and teachers end up wanting to avoid pronunciation altogether.

There are also psychological factors that affect the learning of pronunciation in ways that are not so true of studying grammar or vocabulary. For one thing, the most basic elements of speaking are deeply personal. Our sense of self and community are bound up in the speech-rhythms of our first language (L1). These rhythms were learned in the first year of life and are deeply rooted in the minds of students. Therefore, it is common for students to feel uneasy when they hear themselves speak with the rhythm of a second language (L2). They find that they “sound foreign” to themselves, and this is troubling for them. Although the uneasiness is usually unconscious, it can be a major barrier to improved intelligibility in the L2.

A teacher can help overcome this psychological barrier and other challenges by thinking of the goal of pronunciation instruction not as helping students to sound like native speakers but as helping them to learn the core elements of spoken English so that they can be easily understood by others. In other words, teachers and students can overcome the frustrations, difficulties, and boredom often associated with pronunciation by focusing their attention on the development of pronunciation that is “listener friendly.”

Pronunciation seems to be sometimes a neglected part in our English lessons. Many teachers are not used to teaching it for many reasons. As most teachers in our schools are not native speakers, there is no need to set native-like pronunciation as one of our goals, moreover, most teachers themselves do not feel perfect in this language component and thus feel reluctant to show it. But we do not need to be perfect to enable our pupils to achieve their best. The next obstruction for teachers is the lack of pronunciation tests and general unfamiliarity with their assessment. Nevertheless, giving feedback on correct speaking to our students should be involved. Learning pronunciation will elevate their level of speaking and undoubtedly will improve their listening skills.

People learn languages for many different purposes. And therefore, the goals for individual learners may vary. From the teachers’ point of view, the following aspects should be taken into account: the age, natural ability and motivation of the learners which is to be the base for answering the questions about how much time we will devote to teaching pronunciation and what level is needed for obtaining efficient communication. This is difficult, since, in contrast with e. g. grammar or vocabulary plans, pronunciation does not enable this particular progressive pace as all phonetic and phonological features occur from the very beginning. Nevertheless, we can count on the subconscious acquisition of the sound of English which will be beneficial for both, teachers and learners, later on.

We can delimit two extreme targets in learning pronunciation. On the one hand, some learners aim to obtain native-like pronunciation, on the other hand, many learners’ purposes are more practical in the way that as long as their

speaking is comprehensible, they do not have the need to improve. Both these opinions have their advantages and disadvantages. In practice, many learners do not achieve native-like pronunciation and the question is, if its obtaining is necessary. At the same time, learning pronunciation does not only improve speaking, but has a great influence on our listening skills, so its practice is useful. According to Gimson (1994, p. 273), the first extreme target is achieving just such a level of pronunciation which enables understanding. Gimson mentions so called Minimal General Intelligibility as the lowest requirement. This Minimal General Intelligibility: possesses a set of distinctive elements which correspond in some measure to the inventory of the RP phonemic system and which is capable of conveying a message efficiently from a native English listener's standpoint, given that the context of the message is known and that the listener has had time to "tune in" to the speaker's pronunciation. (p. 273)

In its opposition, Gimson describes High Acceptability as: a form of speech which the native listener may not identify as non-native, which conveys information as readily as would a native's and which arrives at this result through precision in the phonetic realization of phonemes and by confident handling of accentual and intonational patterns. (p. 273)

As the previously mentioned statements were the extremes in attitude to pronunciation learning, our aim should be somewhere in between, which means that we should aim to reduce the time to "tune in" for the listener as well as to put down the strain for the speaker in order to make the conversation comfortable for both sides.

What affects pronunciation learning?

Like in other subjects, there are many factors which affect pronunciation learning, but some of them are specific to this language section as well as to learning foreign language as a whole. It involves both learning as an organized and intentional process, and the unintentional language acquisition, which proceeds subconsciously and intuitively, however, is not less beneficial. Both, learning and the language acquisition, are dependable on the inner and outer factors, which the

teachers should be aware of when setting out goals and preparing methods and materials.

The factors which cannot be influenced neither by the learner, nor his or her surroundings are the native language, the age and to a certain extent the phonetic ability of the learner. In contrast, the amount of exposure to English, the attitude and motivation may be supported and changed a lot either by the teacher, or the learner, but usually in cooperation and support from both sides.

The influence of the native language is unquestioned. It involves the individual sounds as well as combinations of sounds and features such as rhythm and intonation. The more differences there are between the native and the target language, the more difficulties will be encountered by the learner. The learner's errors derive from various sources. When a particular sound does not exist in the mother tongue, the learners tend to substitute it by the nearest equivalent from their native language. For example, the sound [ð] will often be substituted by [d] or [z] as these are the nearest. This first language application affects the rhythm and the intonation too. Still, the influence of the native language is only one of the factors and does not need to be crucial.

Phonetics as a branch of linguistics studies sounds in the broad sense, investigating vowels and consonants. It studies the acoustic properties of sounds, the physiological basis of sound production, it occupies itself with the study of the ways in which the sounds are organized into a system of different units. In the 18th century it was considered as a part of grammar. Now phonetics is an independent science with its own theories, methods of investigation, it is closely connected with physiology, biology, physics and other sciences. It is also connected with grammar, lexicology, the history of the language.

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. It is important in the study of language. It is the most fundamental branch of linguistics; it occupies the equal importance with grammar and lexicology. Phonetics has two main divisions: on the one hand, phonology, the

study of the sound patterns of the languages, of how a spoken language functions as a "code", and on the other, the study of substance, that carries the code. Before analyzing the linguistic function of phonetic units we need to know how the vocal mechanism acts in producing oral speech and what methods are applied in investigating the material form of the languages that is substance.

Human speech is the result of a highly complicated series of events. The formation of the concepts 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 transmitted along the nervous system to the speech organs. The human brain controls the behaviour of the articulating organs which effects in a particular pattern of speech sounds. This second stage may be called physiological. The third stage may be called physical or acoustic. 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 apparatus, the transmission of the spoken message through the nervous system to the brain and the linguistic interpretation of the information conveyed.

Language is the immediate actuality of thought and the most important means of communication. It exists in two main speech forms: oral and written. In oral speech the substance is phonic, in written speech the substance is graphic. The sound substance forms units of the phonetic system of a language. The phonetic system of a language is a set of phonetic units arranged in an orderly way to replace each other in a given framework. It contains two systems – segmental and suprasegmental. Segmental units are: elem. Sounds, vowels, consonants. Suprasegmental units are: syllables, rhythmical units, intonation groups, utterances.

Aspects of speech sounds. The sound substance has its own independent properties as a physical phenomenon. Moreover, it is a product of human activity. Being created by the speaker, the sound substance indicates the speaker's personality (sex, age, individual features), reveals his physiological and emotional state, geographical origin, education, social status and so on. Sound phenomena

have different aspects which are closely connected: the articulatory aspect, the acoustic aspect, the auditory aspect and the linguistic aspect. The articulatory aspect. Speech sounds are products of human organs of speech. Sound production is impossible without respiration, which consists of two phases- inspiration and expiration. Expiration, during which sp. sounds are produced, is called phonic expiration. The acoustic aspect. Like any other sound of nature sp. sounds exist in the form of sound waves and have such physical properties as frequency, intensity, duration and spectrum. The auditory aspect. Speech sounds may also be analysed from the point of view of perception. It involves the activity of our hearing mechanism, which can be considered in two ways. On the one hand, it is a physiological mechanism, which reacts to acoustic stimuli. On the other hand, it is also a psychological mechanism, which selects from the great amount of acoustic information only that which is linguistically important. The linguistic aspect. Segmental sounds and prosodic features are linguistic phenomena. Representing language units in actual speech, they perform certain linguistic functions. They constitute meaningful units- morphemes, words, word-forms, utterances.

Let us consider the four components of the phonetic system of language.

The first and the basic component of the phonetic structure of language is the system of its segmental phonemes existing in the material form of their allophones. The phonemic component has 3 aspects, or manifestations:

1. the system of its phonemes as discrete isolated units;
2. the distribution of the allophones of the phonemes;
3. the methods of joining speech sounds together in words and at their junction, or the methods of effecting VC, CV, CC, and VV transitions.

The second component is the syllabic structure of words. The syllabic structure has two aspects, which are inseparable from each other: syllable formation and syllable division.

The third component is the accentual structure of words as items of vocabulary (i.e. as pronounced in isolation). The accentual structure of words has

three aspects: the physical (acoustic) nature of word accent; the position of the accent in disyllabic and polysyllabic words; the degrees of word accent.

The fourth component of the phonetic system is the intonational structure of utterances. The four components of the phonetic system of language (phonemic, syllabic, accentual and intonational) all constitute its pronunciation (in the broad sense of the term).

We know that the phonic medium can be studied from four points of view: the articulatory, the acoustic, the auditory, and the functional.

We may consider the branches of phonetics according to these aspects. Articulatory phonetics is the study of the way the vocal organs are used to produce speech sounds. Acoustic phonetics is the study of the physical properties of speech sounds. Auditory phonetics is the study of the way people perceive speech sounds. Of these three branches of phonetics, the longest established, and until recently the most highly developed, is articulatory phonetics. For this reason, most of terms used by linguists to refer to speech-sounds are articulatory in origin.

Phoneticians are also interested in the way in which sound phenomena function in a particular language. In other words, they study the abstract side of the sounds of language. The branch of phonetics concerned with the study of the functional (linguistic) aspect of speech sounds is called phonology. By contrast with phonetics, which studies all possible sounds that the human vocal apparatus can make, phonology studies only those contrasts in sound which make differences of meaning within language.

Besides the four branches of phonetics described above, there are other divisions of the science. We may speak of general phonetics and the phonetics of a particular language (special or descriptive phonetics). General phonetics studies all the sound-producing possibilities of the human speech apparatus and the ways they are used for purpose of communication. The phonetics of a particular language studies the contemporary phonetic system of the particular language, i.e. the system of its pronunciation, and gives a description of all the phonetic units of the language. Descriptive phonetics is based on general phonetics.

Linguists distinguish also historical phonetics whose aim is to trace and establish the successive changes in the phonetic system of a given language (or a language family) at different stages of its development. Historical phonetics is a part of the history of language.

Closely connected with historical phonetics is comparative phonetics whose aims are to study the correlation between the phonetic systems of two or more languages and find out the correspondences between the speech sounds of kindred languages.

Phonetics can also be theoretical and practical. At the faculties of Foreign Languages in this country, two courses are introduced:

1. Practical, or normative, phonetics that studies the substance, the material form of phonetic phenomena in relation to meaning.
2. Theoretical phonetics, which is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in language.

This dichotomy is that which holds between theoretical and applied linguists. Briefly, theoretical linguistics studies language with a view to constructing theory of its structure and functions and without regard to any practical applications that the investigation of language might have. Applied linguistics has as its concerns the application of the concepts and findings of linguistics to a variety of practical tasks, including language teaching.

All the branches of phonetics are closely connected not only with one another but also with other branches of linguistics. This connection is determined by the fact that language is a system whose components are inseparably connected with one another.

Phonetics is also connected with many other sciences. Acoustic phonetics is connected with physics and mathematics. Articulatory phonetics is connected with physiology, anatomy, and anthropology. Historical phonetics is connected with general history of the people whose language is studied; it is also connected with archaeology. Phonology is connected with communication (information) theory, mathematics, and statistics.

We distinguish between subjective, introspective methods of phonetic investigation and objective methods.

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 kinaesthetic sensations during the articulation of speech sound in comparing them with auditory impressions.

Objective methods involve the use of various instrumental techniques (palatography, laryngoscopy, 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.

Acoustic phonetics comes close to studying physics and the tools used in this field enable the investigator to measure and analyze the movement of the air in the terms of acoustics. This generally means introducing a microphone into the speech chain, converting the air movement into corresponding electrical activity and analyzing (Ксень, это слово у Красы через «s», но, по-моему, тут «z») the result in terms of frequency of vibration and the amplitude of vibration in relation to time. The spectra of speech sounds are investigated by means of the apparatus called the sound spectrograph. Pitch as a component of intonation can be investigated by intonograph.

The acoustic aspect of speech sounds is investigated not only with the help of sound-analyzing techniques, but also by means of speech-synthesizing devices.

Chapter II Phonostylistics and problem of styles

Every standard language is characterized by a range of speech styles, which encompasses not just the segmental aspects but such paralinguistic features as the pace at which speakers habitually deliver their utterances. In this respect American English is unexceptionally variegated, even though most speakers fall into fairly narrow categories when it comes to pace of delivery. Typically, the truly idiosyncratic speaking styles are those that are categorized by speech mannerisms, including dialectal peculiarities in otherwise normative speech.

The qualification «ponderous» or «portentous» applies to speech that is so painfully slow when compared to general norms as to stand out as stylistically inappropriate regardless of the speaker's predilections. Moreover, when the content is utterly trivial or plebeian, utterances delivered at a labored and gravid pace can only try an interlocutor's patience and create the impression (among others) that the speaker has nothing to say. Those who speak at the same pace regardless of what they are saying run the risk of seeming dull and colorless.

Speaking a language is like playing a musical instrument. A gavotte played at a tempo appropriate to a dirge will not set anyone to dancing.

The term *style* is used in sociolinguistics to refer to «the variation that occurs in the speech of a single speaker in different situational contexts» (Cheshire 1992: 324). The variants come from a single language or dialect, «though it is recognized that the same social and psychological principles govern switching of language, of dialect, and of style» (Cheshire 1992: 324). Situational contexts are typically described in terms of relative *formality*. The factors triggering stylistic variation have been identified as *topic*, *setting* and *relationship between interlocutors* (Hymes 1974). Some languages have discrete styles, i.e. they impose co-occurrence restrictions on forms within a given style. The most influential approach to stylistic variation was that of Labov (1972), who analysed formality as a linear continuum from very casual speech to very careful speech according to the degree of attention given to speech by speakers. In his newest paper, however,

Labov (in Eckert and Rickford eds. 2001) states that he did not intend this continuum to describe how style-shifting is produced and organized in every-day speech but rather to describe the intra-speaker variation in the sociolinguistic interview. Discussion in the contributions to Eckert and Rickford (eds. 2001) volume shows no unanimous approach to the study of stylistic variation. There are at least three major aspects of the study: quantitative, qualitative and functional. I believe that they should be unified for the benefit of comprehensiveness. My definition of phonostylistics does not aspire to be sociolinguistically comprehensive.

The term *phonostylistics* stands for the phonological processes conditioned by style, i.e. style-sensitive or style-dependent ones. A scale of styles may be set up in a variety of ways, still it is generally encompassed within the extremes of *emphatic* vs. *informal*, with *formal* in between. Emphatic style is well-exemplified by motherese and citation forms, informal styles include casual, colloquial, intimate, while a speech, a lecture, or a job interview are examples of a formal style. For the purposes of clarity, I will refer to a simplified binary distinction between *formal* vs. *informal* only.

As far as the informal style is concerned, there exists the whole array of terms in the literature used to refer to approximately the same type of speech: *fast*, *rapid*, *allegro*, *casual*, *connected*, *informal*, *real*, *spontaneous*, or *conversational*. With respect to the primary style-differentiating criteria, the term *casual* seems to be the most adequate or, indeed, the least narrow or vague. The criteria are: tempo of speech and attention paid to speech. The criteria take on different values depending on the situation in which a speech act takes place (topic, aim, relation to the interlocutor, place of a conversation) and on the individual features of the speaker. Most commonly, exactly those situations do arise which trigger casual speech, i.e. in other words, most often we speak casually. The relationship between the two criteria is inversely proportional: the higher the degree of attention the slower the tempo.

According to the popular view, phonostylistic processes are automatic, phonetically conditioned, serve ease of articulation, and as such they arise automatically at a given stage of second language competence. There is a number of problems connected with this view, however. Firstly, phonostylistic processes are language-specific. The same function is served by various means across languages, but also within a language. Languages decide for some out of many ways to overcome articulatory difficulty, which is demonstrated by language-specific speaker-friendly casual speech processes. For instance, a coronal stop or fricative palatalises easily and even coalesces with the following palatal glide within words and across word boundaries in English (cf. *would you, as you, immediately*, etc.) whereas in Polish this never happens (*kot jNɛ* does not become *kociNɛ*). Thus, the choice of a process serving ease of articulation in L2 cannot be random (and thus cannot be automatic). This means that even if the learner is successful in targeting second language underlying intentions (e.g., with the help of the methods outlined above, working against «repair»), still the second language casual speech processes will not necessarily be triggered, since there is more than one «natural pronunciation» (phonetically motivated one) resulting from those intentions.

Secondly, the problem with the acquisition of phonostylistics of a second language is that the level of attention in a SL does not drop low enough to trigger a natural application of those processes. Even in a natural setting of SLA, certain forms get fossilized before they get the chance to be productively derived. Once such fossilization happens, the subsequent drop in attention due to the natural setting conditions does not bring the expected application of the casual speech processes.

L1 interference is stronger in casual speech (if a learner manages to reach casual speech level) due to the lack of or difficulty in control over articulation. A vicious circle arises: we want the learners to reach casual style (correlated with low level of attention), but at the same time we want them to apply L2 processes and not succumb to L1 interference (caused by low level of attention).

Additionally, phonostylistic processes are the most difficult to decode from the non-native language input (cf. Figure 1 above). A frequent result of this difficulty is learning lexicalized versions of utterances with processes already present in them without the learners realizing this, e.g. L2 English *Would you like...*, with palatalization and yod-coalescence already applied.

The primary reason, thus, for teaching phonostylistic processes is to enhance this decoding ability, i.e. to facilitate perception and enable the learner to establish an underlying representation. In this way, teaching phonostylistics creates a bridge towards learning phonology of a second language in general.

The primary concern of linguistics is the study of language in use. It's particularly relevant for phonetic studies. We're interested in how the phonetic units are used in various social situation. It's the extra linguistic situation that influences our choice of language means.

There's a special branch of linguistics that studies the way language means function in different situation. It's called functional stylistics. It's primary concern is functional style – a set of language means used in a particular situation.

Phonostylistics is the study of the way phonetic units, both segmental (sounds) and suprasegmental (intonation), are used in a particular extralinguistic situation.

Extralinguistic situation consists of 3 components.

1) The purpose. It's the most important factor that guides the communication. The purpose is what you want to achieve (to get / give information, to instruct, to entertain, to chat). The aim is very important as far as pronunciation is concerned.

The subject matters less important but it still matters.

This factor can bring numerous variations in pronunciation which are determined both by individual characteristics of the speaker and the character of their relationship.

We must consider individual and socio-cultural features: the social status, social group or class the speaker belongs to.

2) Participants. Another important aspect is the character of participant relationship which is reflected in the tenor (тональность) of discourse: formal / informal, friendly / unfriendly, SOMETHING and it effects greatly the choice of linguistic means.

The social roles of the speaker are also important. We have authority subordination relationship (teacher – pupil)

3) Scene / setting. This component has several factors:

- physical orientations of the participants (the distance between people, proxemics studies it)

Setting can be also described in the following terms: public / non-public, formal / informal, monoloquing / poliloguing, dialoguing.

It also includes the channel of communication: face to face, public presentation, telephone, mass media. (*аксиальное – радиальное*)

All the components of extralinguistic situation influence the choice of linguistic means.

The Classification of Phonetic Styles.

1. Gaiduchic (correlates with functional styles of language)

- solemn (торжественный);
- scientific business (научно-деловой);
- official business (официально-деловой);
- everyday (бытовой);
- familiar (непринуждённый).

2. Dubovsky (degrees of formality):

- informal ordinary;
- formal neutral;
- formal official;
- informal familiar;
- declamatory.

3. Ours (the purpose of communication):

- informational;

- academic;
- publicistic;
- declamatory;
- conversational.

A person does not always pronounce the same words in the same way. The pronunciation of one and the same person may be different on different occasions, when delivering a lecture, speaking over the radio or giving a dictation, when talking to official persons or chatting with friends. These different ways of pronouncing words are called “styles of pronunciation”, they have peculiarities which may differ in different languages. Styles of speech or pronunciation are those special forms of speech suited to the aim and the contents of the utterance, the circumstances of communication, the character of the audience, etc. As D. Jones points out, a person may pronounce the same word or sequence of words quite differently under different circumstances.

Thus in ordinary conversation the word *and* is frequently pronounced [n] when unstressed (e.g. in *bread and butter* ['bredn 'butə]), but in serious conversation the word, even when unstressed, might often be pronounced [ænd]. In other words, all speakers use more than one style of pronunciation, and variations in the pronunciation of speech sounds, words and sentences peculiar to different styles of speech may be called stylistic variations.

Several different styles of pronunciation may be distinguished, although no generally accepted classification of styles of pronunciation has been worked out and the peculiarities of different styles have not yet been sufficiently investigated.

D. Jones distinguishes among different styles of pronunciation the rapid familiar style, the slower colloquial style, the natural style used in addressing a fair-sized audience, the acquired style of the stage, and the acquired style used in singing.

L.V. Shcherba wrote of the need to distinguish a great variety of styles of speech, in accordance with the great variety of different social occasions and situations, but for the sake of simplicity he suggested that only two styles of

pronunciation should be distinguished: (1) colloquial style characteristic of people's quiet talk, and (2) full style, which we use when we want to make our speech especially distinct and, for this purpose, clearly articulate all the syllables of each word.

The kind of style used in pronunciation has a definite effect on the phonemic and allophonic composition of words. More deliberate and distinct utterance results in the use of full vowel sounds in some of the unstressed syllables. Consonants, too, uttered in formal style, will sometimes disappear in colloquial. It is clear that the chief phonetic characteristics of the colloquial style are various forms of the reduction of speech sounds and various kinds of assimilation. The degree of reduction and assimilation depends on the tempo of speech.

S.M. Gaiduchic distinguishes five phonetic styles: solemn (торжественный), "scientific business (научно-деловой), official business (официально-деловой), everyday (бытовой), and familiar (непринужденный). As we may see the above-mentioned phonetic styles on the whole correlate with functional styles of the language. They are differentiated on the basis of spheres of discourse.

The other way of classifying phonetic styles is suggested by J.A. Dubovsky who discriminates the following five styles: informal ordinary, formal neutral, formal official, informal familiar, and declamatory. The division is based on different degrees of formality or rather familiarity between the speaker and the listener. Within each style subdivisions are observed. M.Sokolova and other's approach is slightly different. When we consider the problem of classifying phonetic styles according to the criteria described above we should distinguish between segmental and suprasegmental level of analysis because some of them (the aim of the utterance, for example) result in variations of mainly suprasegmental level, while others (the formality of situation, for example) reveal segmental varieties. So it seems preferable to consider each level separately until a more adequate system of correlation is found.

The style-differentiating characteristics mentioned above give good grounds for establishing intonational styles. There are five intonational styles singled out mainly according to the purpose of communication and to which we could refer all the main varieties of the texts. They are as follows:

1. Informational style.
2. Academic style (Scientific).
3. Publicistic style.
4. Declamatory style (Artistic).
5. Conversational style (Familiar).

But differentiation of intonation according" to the purpose of communication is not enough; there are other factors that affect intonation in various situations. Besides any style is seldom realized in its pure form.

Informational Style.

It is sometimes called "formal" or "neutral". It is used in educational information, press reporting and broadcasting, especially when reading news over the radio and T.V. The degrees of formality vary. A purely descriptive text, most commonly heard in class is the ideal informational style. This style may also present round-table talks, discussions of political events, so there is much stylistic freedom.

Academic Style.

It is described as both intellectual and volitional. The purpose of the speakers is to attract the listener's attention, to establish close contacts, to direct the public attention to the message. It is used in reading lectures, in scientific discussions, at the conferences, seminars, in class. A lecturer sounds self-assured, instructive, authoritative. It sounds very loud and rhythmical.

Publicistic Style.

It is always called "oratorical". The aim of the speaker is to extend persuasive and emotional influence on the listeners. It can be heard in political, judicial, oratorical speeches, in sermons, debates, at congresses, meetings. It needs special training.

On the other hand, the proper response of the audience inspires the speaker and stimulates him on a successful talk.

Declamatory Style.

It is also called as “artistic”, “acquired” or “staged”. It is highly emotional and expressive, needs special training. The aim is to appeal to the mind, will and feelings of the listener. It is heard on the stage, on the screen, in a T.V. studio, it is reflected in verse speaking, prose readings and recitations. It displays a great variety of intonation.

Conversational Style.

Its aim is to analyze variations that occur in spontaneous, everyday speech. It is the most commonly used type of intonation style. It is called familiar and is used in everyday communication, in natural conversation of relatives, friends, well-acquainted people. A wide range of intonation patterns is used here. The conversation lacks in planning, semantic blocks, the words are commonly repeated, the speech is characterized by “non-fluency”, “errors”, slips of the tongue or extra fluency with elision in many words. One can hear whistles, laughs, giggles, see gesticulations and grimaces of talking people. A nose-to nose distance is the most comfortable for such talks, which are regarded as intimate.

2.1 Informational styles

“An intonational style can be defined as a system of interrelated intonational means which is used in a social sphere and serves a definite aim of communication” [Соколова и др.: 216].

The choice of an intonational style is determined primarily by the purpose of communication and then by a number of other extralinguistic and social factors. The following intonational styles are singled out:

- 1) Informational.
- 2) Academic (Scientific).
- 3) Publicistic (Oratorical).
- 4) Declamatory (Artistic).
- 5) Conversational (Familiar).

Intonational style markers are restricted to certain kinds of situational contexts and above all to the speakers' aim in communication. Thus an intonational style is seen as some kind of additive by which a basic content of thought may be modified.

The purpose of communication determines the types of information conveyed in oral texts. They may be intellectual, attitudinal (emotional, modal) and volitional (desiderative). Each of these types is realised by means of specific prosodic parameters.

These stylistically marked modifications of all the prosodic features represent the invariants of the style forming intonation patterns common to all the registers of the particular style.

The invariant of the intonation patterns circulating in certain fields of communication at a given period of time may be treated as the norm or the ideal of speech behavior for these particular spheres of communication.

Informational style is sometimes qualified as "formal", "neutral", since in an ideal setting, in its pure manifestation it is least of all influenced or correlated by extralinguistic factors. It is manifested in the written variety of an informational narrative read aloud.

The majority of these texts are of a purely descriptive character and are simply called descriptive narratives. The written speech, the reading, should not be subjected to the contextual variables and the commonest and "ideal" situation for this register is the reading of such texts in class. They may be labelled as educational informational descriptive narratives.

As is widely known, spoken speech is less imperial, the spoken variety of such texts expresses more personal concern and involvement. They may be presented in different forms: monologues, dialogues, polylogues.

Press reporting and broadcasting, especially the reading of the news coverage over the radio is very close in its manner to this type of the style as the reader tends to sound impartial when reporting routine news or weather forecasts, for example.

Informational style includes other spheres of communication: business and legal intercourse, the reading of administrative documents and so on.

Types of style, i.e. certain spheres of discourse are called registers, the term being widely used abroad in a broader sense, often meant as style in general.

1. Written (read aloud) and spoken texts belonging to the same intonational style have different prosodic realization.
2. In oral speech the means of the prosodic realization are more vivid, expressive and varied, especially in voice timbre, loudness, tempo, length of pauses and rhythm.
3. The speaker often uses some hesitation phenomena (hesitation pauses and temporizers) intentionally, which enables him to obtain the balance between formality and informality and establish contacts with the public.
4. The speaker uses various hesitation phenomena unintentionally which enables him to gain the time in search for suitable expression or idea and thus not interrupt the flow of speech.
5. The speech is characterized by a greater number of intonation groups, supraphrasal units and phonopassages. In spontaneous speech an

intonation group doesn't always coincide with a syntagm. Pauses at the end of the phrase are optional.

6. The reading is characterized by a decentralized stress distribution whereas speaking – by a centralized one.
7. Spontaneous speech is more contrastive, communicative centers are more vividly underlined; the emphasis is achieved by a wider range of terminal tones, greater degree of loudness and prominence of accented segments.
8. The reading is rhythmical, oral speech rhythm is non-systematic, unpredictable, variable.

TABLE 20

The Opposition of Phonostylistic Invariant Characteristics of Informational Descriptive Monologue

Phonostylistic characteristics		Varieties of the language	
		Reading	Speaking
1		2	3
Timbre		impartial, dispassionate, reserved resonant	dispassionate, businesslike, reserved, occasionally interested
Delimitation		phonopassages – phrases – intonation groups; pauses are mostly at syntactical junctures normally of medium length, but for the end of the passage	phonopassages – phrases – intonation groups; a number of hesitation and breath-taking pauses (filled and non-filled) breaks phrases into a great number of intonation groups, destroying their syntactical structure
Other style-marking prosodic features	Loudness	normal (piano) throughout the text, varied at the phonopassage boundaries	normal (piano), contrastive at the boundaries, decrease towards the end of the passage; increase on semantic centres
	Levels and ranges	decrease of levels and ranges within the passage	decrease of levels and ranges within the passage; various ranges and levels bind together several sequences into a larger unit
	Rate	normal (moderate) or slow, not variable	variable; allegro on interpolations, lento on emphatic centres
	Pauses	not greatly varied, mostly syntactical, occasionally emphatic	varied; the length depends on the syntactical and semantic value of the segment, the maximum length being at the passage boundaries
	Rhythm	systematic, properly organized, isochronic, decentralized accentuation	non-systematic, subjective isochrony, centralized stress distribution, the rhythmicity within the passage is achieved by the alternation of all prosodic features

Accentuation of semantic centres	Terminal tones	common use of final categoric falls; in non-final segments mid-level and low rising tones are quite common	common use of final categoric falls on semantic centres, non-final falls, mid-level and rising tones in non-final intonation groups. The emphasis is achieved by the use of high falls (very abrupt for a male voice)
	Pre-nuclear patterns	common use of falling and level heads or several falls within one interpausal unit	varied; common use of level heads with one accentuated pre-nuclear syllable; descending falling heads are broken by the "accidental rise"
	The contrast between accented and unaccented segments	not great	great, achieved by the centralized stress pattern; increase of loudness, levels and ranges on semantic centres; high categoric falls, emphatic stress on them and other variations of different prosodic characteristics

2.2 Academic style

Academic style is often described by phonostylists as both intellectual and volitional. It is determined by the purpose of the communication as the speaker's aim is to attract the listener's attention, to establish close contacts with the audience and to direct the public attention to the message carried in the contents of the text. It is frequently manifested in academic and educational lectures, scientific discussions on conferences, seminars and in classes.

Table 29

Academic Style Suggested Spheres of Communication

Written variety of the language		Spoken variety of the language													
Monologue		Dialogue		Monologue				Dialogue				Polylogue			
Public		Public		Public		Non-public		Public		Non-public		Public		Non-public	
Prep.	Spont.	Prep.	Prep.	Spont.	Prep.	Spont.	Prep.	Spont.	Prep.	Spont.	Prep.	Spont.	Prep.	Spont.	
the reading of lectures or scientific reports in public, over the radio or television	the reading of examples in answers at conferences or in interviews	—	scientific talks and explanations at seminars and classes	explanations at seminars, answers in the interviews, at conferences	answers at examinations	answers at examinations	interviews in TV studios	interviews, talks at scientific conferences, congresses	talks at examinations, at scientific conferences	interviews, talks at examinations, at conferences, meetings	discussions over the radio and TV	discussions at conferences, congresses, seminars, in TV studios	—	discussions at congresses, conferences	

Specific characteristics of the academic style which display features not shared by others include:

1 A scientific (academic) text read aloud in public in front of a fairly-sized audience conveys both intellectual and volitional information, so the attitudinal and emphatic functions of intonation are of primary importance here.

2 A lecturer always sounds self-assured, authoritative, instructive and edifying, because any scientific style talk should be well prepared and is often even rehearsed by a trained lecturer.

3 A scientific style talk presenter sounds much louder than an informational style

reader as any public oration is produced face to face with a fairly-sized audience. Instances of diminished loudness are observed only in bringing out phrases expressing forgetfulness, uncertainty, word-searching.

4 The prosodic features of the academic style reading are rather varied as intonation correlates the lecturer's attempts to get his meaning across clearly and to obtain the balance between formality and informality. This variety is created by:

- a) The alternation of pauses, types of heads, pitch levels and terminal tones.
- b) The ample use of variations and contrasts of the tempo to help the listener to differentiate between the more and less important parts of the overall flow of speech. The speaker normally slows down when he introduces rules, terms, scientific laws, etc. This makes them stand out.

5 The rhythmical organization of a scientific text is properly balanced by the alternation of all prosodic features which gives the acoustic impression of "rhythmicality".

6 High falling and falling-rising terminal tones are widely used as a means of both logical and contrastive emphasis

2.3 Publicistic style

The term "publicistic" serves for many kinds of oratorical activities, that is why this intonational style is often called "oratorical". There is a great deal of overlap between academic, publicistic and declamatory style when the basic aim of the speaker is to extend persuasive and emotional influence on the listeners and of course, declamatory style when the basic aim of the speaker is to extend persuasive and emotional influence on the listeners and, of course, volitional and desiderative information is predominant in the texts. But in publicistic speeches it is achieved not only through argumentation as in the academic style or imagery as in the declamatory style, but through all sorts of direct oratorical performances. These performances are designed to entertain the public thus accomplishing the purpose of imposing the speaker's ideas on listeners.

So publicistic style is commonly called by phonostylists oratorical, volitional and desiderative. Its manifestation can be heard in political, judicial, oratorical speeches, in sermons, parliamentary debates, at congresses, meetings, press conferences and so on.

The invariant of phonostylistic characteristics of Publicistic oratorical speeches is given in table 31.

Public oratorical speeches are so removed from everyday informational narratives and so vividly marked on the grammatical, lexical and prosodic levels that are immediately recognized by listeners and labelled as oratorical skills and exercises. As there is a very strong concern on the part of the speaker about the effects achieved by his speech on the listener, the former uses all kinds of oratorical performances which on the prosodic level are characterized by the incomparable variations and contrasts within the systems of pitch loudness, tempo and timbre accompanied by kinesic components.

These prosodic contrasts, very expressive facial mimics and gestures identify certain oral texts as belonging to publicistic intonational style. It is

undoubtedly clear that volitional and emotional function of intonation is predominant in this register against the back ground of other functions.

Table 31

The Invariant of Phonostylistic Characteristics of Publicists Oratorical Speeches

Timbre		dignified, self-assured, concerned and personally involved; a variety of attitudinal and modal expressions in the voice
Delimitation		phonopassages — phrases — intonation groups
Style-making prosodic features	Loudness	enormously increased, ranging from forte to fortissimo; sometimes instances of diminished loudness are observed to bring out words and phrases of paramount importance and produce certain psychological effect
	Ranges and levels	greatly varied; the predominant use of wide ranges within the phonopassage; a very high level of the start of the initial intonation groups
	Rate	moderately slow; the public speaker slows down to bring out communicatively important centres; less important information entails acceleration of speed
	Pauses	definitely long between the passages; a great number of breath-taking pauses; pausation is commonly explicable in semantic and syntactic terms; interpausal segments are rather short; thus phrases may be overloaded by pauses of different length; another characteristic feature of this register is a rather frequent stop of phonation before the emphatic semantic centre; it serves as a means of bringing out words and phrases; voiceless hesitation pauses occur to produce the effect of apparent spontaneity, 'rhetorical silence' is often used to exert influence on the public
	Rhythm	properly organized; within the speech segments rhythmic groups have recurrent alternation, which produces the acoustic effect of strict rhythmicity
The accentuation of semantic centres	Terminal tones	mostly emphatic, especially on emotionally underlined semantic centres; in non-final intonational groups falling-rising tones are frequent; terminal tones are contrasted to distinguish between the formal segments of speech and less formal ones (illustrations, examples, jokes, and so on)
	Pre-nuclear patterns	common use of the descending sequence of stressed syllables; a large proportion of falling and stepping heads, frequently broken by accidental rises to increase the emphasis; another common 'rhetorical trick' is the tonal subordination when semantically and communicatively important intonation groups contrast with their neighbours by all prosodic features; so the high level head may be alternated with the low level head, especially in enumerations
	The contrast between accented and unaccented segments	not great
	Paralinguistic features	a great number of paralinguistic effects, kinesic components — facial expressions, bodily movements, gestures — subjected to the main purpose of the publicistic discourse: to influence the audience, involve it into the talk and to exert the expected response from it

2.4 Declamatory style

This intonational style is also called by some as "artistic, acquired or stage". Attitudinal, volitional and intellectual functions of intonation are of primary importance here and serve to appeal to the mind, will and feelings of the listener. Most commonly it is performed through all sorts of image-bearing devices which require rehearsing and professional skills. This intonational style can be heard on the stage, on the screen, in a TV studio or in a classroom during verse speaking and prose readings and recitations. It is always a written form of the language read aloud or recited. Acting is a two-way conversation, players respond very directly and promptly to the "feedback" they get from the audience; the "feedback" in their case being almost certainly communal, collective, non-verbal language. Methods of achieving, stimulating and maintaining this "conversation" with their audience must inevitably be the mainspring of the actors' "training".

To feel, to know, even to express the contents of their drama is a wasted and futile activity if it is not conveyed to other participants — the audience. Distancing, posture, gesture, facial expression and timing – all these facets of actor's art are as important as the delivery of words themselves.

It is common knowledge that prose, which describes an action or a series of actions to tell a story, is called narrative.

The prose is descriptive when scenes, objects, people, or even a person's feelings are described in such a way that we can imagine them vividly. In good descriptive writing an author builds up a picture in words in much the same way as an artist paints a landscape or a portrait.

The prosodic organization of the declamatory reading depends on the type of the literary text – descriptive, narrative, dialogue; on the character of the described events, schemes and objects (humorous, tragic, romantic, dreamy, imaginative and so on) and of course on the skills of the reader. But it is always clearly marked and distinguished by its expressiveness, personal involvement on the part of the author,

by the emphasis, by the entire range of prosodic and paralinguistic effects and it is all felt through the skilful reading (see table 32).

The phonological opposition of the informational and declamatory reading shows that both readings differ totally in any aspect, but primarily in the voice timbre – in the declamatory reading the emotional colouring of the voice is very rich, varied according to the degree of emphasis.

On the prosodic level the markers of the declamatory style reading are:
 Slow tempo, caused by the *lento* rate of utterances and prolonged pauses,
 Stable rhythmicality.

The use of the falling terminal tones in initial intonation groups, the increase of their range with the emphasis.

TABLE 32

The Invariant of Phonostylistic Characteristics of the Declamatory Prose Reading

Timbre		concerned, personally involved, emotionally rich
Delimitation		phonopassages — phrases — intonational groups
Style-marking prosodic features	Loudness	varied according to the size of the audience and to the emotional setting
	Levels and ranges	variable
	Rate	deliberately slow, necessitated by the purpose of the reading: the complete understanding of the author's message by the listener; changes in the speed of utterances are determined by the syntactic structures, importance of information and the degree of emphasis
	Pauses	long, especially between the passages. Disjunctive pauses tend to be longer than connecting ones. Internal boundary placement is always syntactically or semantically predictable. A declamatory reading is distinctly marked by a great number of prolonged emphatic pauses — the device used by the reader to underline the emphasis
	Rhythm	properly organized, the isochronic recurrence of stressed and unstressed syllables
The accentuation of semantic centres	Terminal tones	common use of categoric low and high falls in final and even initial intonation groups and on semantic centres; occasional use of rising and level tones to break the monotony and in initial groups to connect segments of the phrase, to lead the listener on the later developments
	Pre-nuclear patterns	varied, contain patterns which have both common emphatic and non-emphatic usage; for the emphasis the following patterns are most frequently used: Low Head + High Fall; High Head + Low Fall High Head + High Fall; Stepping Head + High Fall
	The contrast between accented and unaccented segments	not great

2.5 Conversational style

Conversational style is also called familiar. This kind of English is also a means for everyday communication, heard in natural conversational interaction between speakers. So phonetic stylists call it conversational style. Some scholars also call it informal, because this style occurs mainly in informal external and internal relationships in the speech of relatives, friends, well-acquainted people and so on.

In informal situations, where speakers are more relaxed, less attention is given by them to the effect they produce on the listeners, because in everyday life a more natural and spontaneous style will be used. It is the style at the extreme informal end of the stylistic linear continuum that is known as "vernacular" [Brown 1977]. Thus all speakers have a vernacular style but its variations in the use of non-standard norms depend on the social background. In this style variation will be at its most consistent level. It is the most situationally influenced kind of English.

In conversational style the emotional reaction to the stimulating speech signals is very important so the attitudinal function of intonation here comes to the fore. Therefore one is liable to find here a wider range of contrasts at any level than could be expected elsewhere.

In a conversation we do not just listen to words, we derive the meaning consciously or unconsciously from a number of other communicative systems and it could be that a lift of an eyebrow, a twitch at the side of the mouth, or a silence tell us more than a dozen sentences. But undoubtedly the verbal part of the communication plays a very important role and has its own systems too but only linked with other effective ways contributed by the speakers. The full effect is achieved and meanings are exchanged even with strangers and about unfamiliar topics.

Spontaneous, colloquial, informal conversations display certain common linguistic characteristics.

1. Firstly, talks of this kind are characterized by the inexplicitness of the language as the speakers rely very much upon the extralinguistic factors — context, kinesics, etc. This manifests it self in "incompleteness" of many utterances as the context makes it clear what was meant by the speaker, thus making redundant its vocal expression (see example 1):

Example 1

Jane: Well... maybe, but... take responsibility; the... the... you don't need as great a sense of responsibility for you... your kind of work as you do in teaching — all those children, all those parents...

Brenda: No, but you do have your... your... your colleagues at work — you have a certain amount of responsibility to them.

Occasionally, the listeners request recapitulation by all sorts of repeated and echoing questions (see example 2):

Example 2

Richard: Well, I'm going tonight in fact.

Jane: Tonight? Oh, are you?

Richard: Yes, most nights really.

2. Secondly, conversations are characterized by the lack of planning and the randomness of subject matter. They are very often unpredictable, not guided to an overall theme as, for example, in our first conversation.

This is the most changeable variety of the language. It is, however, true that in many everyday communications certain semantic blocks are commonly repeated. For instance, the stereotyped exchange of greetings, partings, pleasantries, making acquaintance, starting the conversation, arresting attention, making contacts and so on.

One can easily spot phrases of speech etiquette functioning in colloquial talks such as questions to keep the conversation going, asking for information, expressions leading up to questions, polite formulas for attracting attention, requesting, agreeing and refusing, expressing gratitude and others. These devices

and opening gambits are very helpful for speakers to build up a conversational unity and are used by native speakers mechanically.

3. The third general feature of the conversational style talks is "non-(uency)". Informal spontaneous conversation is characterized by a high proportion of "errors" involving hesitation phenomena, slips of the tongue and all sorts of overlapping and simultaneous speech. tions, e.g. mmmm, sshh, ah, bn, etc.

Also, one can hear whistles, laughs, giggles, clearings of the throat, snorts and sniffs.

On the grammatical level informal conversation provides delimitation of utterances and sentences. Other points to be noted on the grammatical level include:

High proportion of parenthetic compound types of sentence introduced by: you see, you know, I mean, I say and others.

Frequent use of interrogative sentence types and very few imperatives.

Common use of vocatives, especially in initial position.

Rare use of nominal groups as subjects; the personal pronouns are more in evidence, the informal you is quite common in its impersonal function.

A great number of question tags.

The use of all sorts of repetitions and repetition structures. Even adverbial intensifiers such as very may be repeated several times.

The occurrence of contrasted verbal forms (he's, I'll, I've).

The frequency of colloquial ellipses.

The most noticeable aspect of everyday conversations is their vocabulary. It is characterized by colloquial idioms, the use of words simple in structure, the avoidance of phraseology; also the informality of the text is achieved by the use of words and phrases specific for such conversations, e.g.

Chapter III Reduction and elision of vowels in English, and its influence on styles of pronunciation

3.1 Modifications of English phonemes in speech.

There are some remarkable differences between the pronunciation of a word in isolation and of the same word in a block of connected speech. These changes are mostly quite regular and predictable. The modification of a consonant under the influence of the adjoining consonant in the flow of speech is known as assimilation. The term accommodation is often used to denote the interchanges of “vowel + consonant” type or “consonant + vowel” type. Assimilation may affect the work of the lips, tongue, soft palate walls of the pharynx. Consonants may be modified according to the place of obstruction, to the manner of articulation, to the lip position, the position of the soft palate. According to the direction of assimilation, it may be regressive and progressive. Regressive a. is most common in both languages: English and Russian. According to the degree a. may be complete, incomplete. Assimilation may be also historical, in cases when its process is already fixed in present-day English and living, when it acts in living speech of speakers of to-day. Some cases of a. are considered to be obligatory, functioning according to the accepted norm of the language, used by the educated people, while the other are met only in the speech of the illiterate part of the population of the country.

Assimilation is the likening of two adjoining sounds. The adaptive modification of a consonant by a neighboring consonant in the speech chain is known as assimilation. Assimilation may affect all the features of the articulation of a consonant phoneme or only some of them. Assimilation may affect: 1) the place of obstruction (in them, all that, his thoughts-alveolars are replaced by dentals); 2) the active speech organ (congress, concrete, conquest-the alveolar sonorant |n| is replaced by the back-lingual sonorant;) ; 3) the work of the vocal cords (goose and berry- gooseberry |guzberi|) 4) the position of the lips (quick, twenty, language) -labialized variants of the phonemes |k|,|g|,|t| are used under the influence of the bilabial sonorant |w|. The term accommodation is often used by

linguists to denote the interchanges of “vowel + consonant type” or “consonant + vowel type.” (too, loose-an unrounded variant of |t| is replaced by a rounded |t| under the influence of a rounded sound |u|).

One of the wide-spread sound changes is vowel reduction. Elision or complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants, is often observed in English. (knight, talk, walk, column, dumb, whistle, garden, all right |orait|). Vowel elision is very frequent in informal conversational style. It often goes with other processes involving assimilation and elision of consonants. Elided neutral sound |e| is very common in the unstressed syllables of polysyllabic words, like : COLLECTIVE, DIFFERENT, POLITICAL-|klektiv|,|difrent|,|plitik|.

The manner of articulation is also changed as a result of assimilation, which may be illustrated as follows: 1. Loss of plosion. 2. Lateral plosion. 3. Nasal plosion. According to the direction of assimilation it may be of two kinds: progressive and regressive. (gooseberry, newspaper), (twins, pride). According to the degree of assimilation it may be complete or incomplete (horse-shoe, London bridge). Assimilation may be historical and living. The historical assimilation took place in the historical development of the language while living assimilation acts at a present period. (DOES SHE but DOES IT; DID YOU). Assimilation is recognized as obligatory or established when it follows the phonetic laws of the language acquired by the educated population. Non-obligatory or accidental assimilation is met in uneducated speech of population (LONDON|m| BRIDGE; WOULD|b| BE-regressive assimilation)

Sounds in actual speech are seldom pronounced by themselves. To pronounce a word consisting of more than one sound, it is necessary to join the sounds together in the proper way. There exist several types of junction, some of which are common to all or many languages, while others are characteristic of individual languages. In order to master these specific types of junction it is necessary to understand the mechanism of joining sounds together. This mechanism can only be understood after analyzing the stages in the articulation of a speech-sound pronounced in isolation.

Every speech-sound pronounced in isolation has three stages of articulation. They are (1) the on-glide, or the initial stage, (2) the retention-stage, or the medial stage, and (3) the off-glide (release), or the final stage.

The on-glide, or the beginning of a sound, is the stage during which the organs of speech move away from a neutral position to take up the position necessary for the pronunciation of a consonant or a vowel. The on-glide produces no audible sound. The retention-stage or the middle of a sound is the stage during which the organs of speech are kept for some time either in the same position necessary to pronounce the sound (in the case of non-complex sounds) or move from one position to another (within complex sounds, such as diphthongoids, diphthongs and affricates). For the retention-stage of a stop consonant the term stop-stage may also be used. The off-glide, or the end of a sound, is the stage during which the organs of speech move away to a neutral position. The off-glide of most sounds is not audible, the exception being plosives whose off-glide produces the sound of plosion before a vowel and in a word-final position before a pause.

In English there are two principal ways of linking two adjacent speech sounds: I. Merging of stages. II. 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 we may speak of joining:

- (a) a consonant to a following vowel (C + V), as in the word [mi:] me;
- (b) a vowel to a following consonant (V + C), as in the word [ɒn] on;
- (c) two consonants (C + C), as in the word [bləʊ] blow;
- (d) two vowels (V + V), as in the word [riæləti] reality.

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 [ækt] act, [begd] begged.

The modifications are observed both within words and word boundaries. There are the following types of modification: assimilation, accommodation, reduction, elision, and inserting. The adaptive modification of a consonant by a neighbouring consonant in a speech chain is assimilation. Accommodation is used to denote the interchanges of VC or CV types. Reduction is actually qualitative or quantitative weakening of vowels in unstressed positions. Elision is a complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants. Inserting is a process of sound addition.

Modification of consonants

1. Assimilation

1.1. Place of articulation

- t, d > dental before [ð, θ]: eighth, at the, said that
- t, d > post-alveolar before [r]: tree, true, dream, the third room
- s, z > post-alveolar before [ʃ]: this shop, does she
- t, d > affricates before [ʃ]: graduate, could you
- m > labio-dental before [f]: symphony
- n > dental before [θ]: seventh
- n > velar before [k]: thank

1.2. Manner of articulation

- loss of plosion: glad to see you, great trouble
- nasal plosion: sudden, at night, let me see
- lateral plosion: settle, at last

1.3. Work of the vocal cords

- voiced > voiceless: newspaper, gooseberry (and in grammatical ...)
has, is, does > [s]; of, have > [f]

Notice: In English typical assimilation is voiced > voiceless; voiceless > voiced is not typical.

1.4. Degree of noise

- sonorants > are partially devoiced after [p, t, k, s]

2. Accommodation

2.1. Lip position

- consonant + back vowel: pool, rude, who (rounded)
- consonant + front vowel: tea, sit, keep (spread)

3. Elision

3.1. Loss of [h] in personal and possessive pronouns and the forms of the auxiliary verb have.

3.2. [l] tends to be lost when preceded by [o:]: always, already, all right

3.3. In cluster of consonants: next day, just one. mashed potatoes

4. Inserting of sounds

4.1. Linking [r] (potential pronunciation of [r]): car owner

4.2. Intrusive [r]: [r] is pronounced where no r is seen in the spelling china and glass: it is not recommended to foreign learners.

The main types of phonostylistic processes are:

- assimilations, e.g. of stops and nasals, as in: *that pen, good mother, could get, ten men*; palatalization and coalescence, e.g. in: *did you, hit you, don't you, as yet*

- reductions, e.g. cluster reductions and degeminations, as in: *a test drive, I asked him*; smoothing, as in: *hour, lawyer*

- hiatus avoidance, e.g. in: *law and order; situation*

- assimilation + reduction, e.g. in: *I can't go, don't be silly*

- reduction and elision of vowels conditioned by rhythm in iso-accentual, stress-timed languages, e.g. *perhaps*

- consonant epenthesis, e.g. in: *prin [t] ce, min [t] ce.*

3.2 Reduction and its types

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.

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:

1. The shortening of the vowel length occurs in unstressed positions, e.g. black-board [ɔ:], sorrow [3u] (reduction). In these cases reduction affects both the length of the unstressed vowels and their quality.

Form words often demonstrate quantitative reduction in unstressed positions, e.g.

Is →he or she to blame? – [hi:]

But: At →last he has come. – [hi]

ut: At →last he has come. – [hi]

2. 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 – need – neat (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 voice-less consonant [t].

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 [mʌn] – sportsman ['spɔ:tsmən], conduct ['kɒndəkt] – conduct [kən'dʌkt].

In such cases the quality of the vowel is reduced to the neutral sound [ə].

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

Nearly one sound in five is either [ə] or the unstressed [ɪ]. This high frequency of [ə] 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 [ə], and [ə] becomes a full vowel. Compare: analyse ['ænləlaɪz] – analysis [ə'næklɪsɪs].

2. Slight degree of nasalization marks vowels preceded or followed by the nasal consonants [n], [m], e.g. never, no, then, men (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, factory, literature, territory. It often occurs in initial unstressed syllables preceding the stressed one, e.g. correct, believe, suppose, perhaps.

The example below illustrates a stage-by-stage reduction (including zero reduction) of a phrase.

Has he done it? [hæz hiː ,dʌn ɪt]

[həz hɪ ,dʌn ɪt]

ə[z ɪ ,dʌn ɪt]

[z ɪ ,dʌn ɪt]

The sound variations in words, their derivatives and grammatical forms of words are known as sound alternations. It is perfectly obvious that sound alternations are caused by assimilation, accommodation and reduction in speech.. Alternations of consonants are mainly due to contextual assimilations: the dark [ɫ] in spell

alternates with the clear [l] in spelling. Vowel alternations are the result of the reduction in unstressed positions: combine ['kɒmbain] (n) – combine [kəm'bain] (v) where [ɒ] in the stressed syllable of the noun alternates with the neutral sound in the unstressed syllable of the verb. Some sound alternations are traced to the phonetic changes in earlier periods of the language development and are known as historical.

The following list of examples presents the most common types of historical alternations.

1. Vowel Alternations

1. Vowel Alternations

1. Distinction of irregular verbal forms:

[i: – e – e]: mean – meant – meant

[i – ʌ – ʌ]: dig – dug – dug.

[ai – ʊ – i]: write – wrote – written

[i – ʌ – ʌ]: sing – sang – sung

[εə – ɔ: – ɔ:]: wear – wore – worn

[ai – i – i]: hide – hid – hidden

[i: – ʊ – ʊ]: speak – spoke – spoken

[ʊ – u: – ʊ]: know – knew – known

[i – ei – i]: give – gave – given

[e – ɒ – ɒ]: get – got – got

[i: – ɔ: – ɔ:]: teach – taught – taught

[ʌ – u – u]: understand – understood – understood

[ei – u – ei]: take – took – taken

[ei – ʊ – ʊ]; wake – woke – woken

[u: – ɒ – ɒ]: shoot – shot – shot

[e – ʊ – ʊ]: tell – told – told

[i – ʌ – ʌ]: sit – sat – sat

[i – ɔ: – ɔ:]: think – thought – thought

[ʌ – ei – ʌ]: become – became – become

[ai – ɜu – i]: rise – rose – risen

[ɜu – u: – ɜu]: grow – grew – grown

[u: – ɜu – ɜu]: choose – chose – chosen

[ai – u: – ɜu]: óy – óew – óown

[ai – ɔ: – ɔ:]: óght – fought – fought

[ai – au – au]: ónd – found – found

[i: – ɔ: – i:]: see – saw – seen

[iə – ɜ: – ɜ:]: hear – heard – heard

and some other less common verbal alternations of this type.

2. Distinction of causal verbal forms:

[i – e]: sit – set

[ai – ei]: rise – raise [ɔ: – e] fall – fell

3. Distinction of singular and plural forms of nouns:

[ʌ – e]: man – men

[u – i:]: foot – feet

[u: – i:]: tooth – teeth

[au – ai]: mouse – mice

[u – i]: woman – women

[ai – i]: child – children

[ai – i]: child – children

4. Distinction of parts of speech in etymologically correlated words:

[i: – e]: feast – festive

[a: – ʌ]: class – classify

[ɒ – e]: long – length

[ɔ: – e]: broad – breadth

[ei – ʌ]: nation – national

[ai – i]: wise – wisdom

[ɒ – i:]: hot – heat

This type of alternation is often strengthened not only by suffoxation but also by the shifting of stress like in: part– particular, 'climate – cli'matic.

The first thing that counts in the stylistic modifications of sounds is the character of relationship between the speaker and the listener and the degree of formality in their discourse. Speech continuum reflects the amount of attention that the speakers give to their speech. It is assumed that in formal situations the participants will monitor their linguistic behaviour. If the speaker wants to be clearly understood (like while producing a lecture with an educational aim), he should sound explicit and his pronunciation may be characterized as supercorrect. In informal situations, where speakers are more relaxed, less attention will be given to speech and more natural and simplified it will sound. Consequently, the degree of simplification of speech (assimilation, reduction, elision) may be looked upon as a style forming means.

Typical character of sound simplifications in relation to the degree of formality is the great qualitative stability of vowels in slow formal speech and more frequent sound variability in informal spoken English. Both front and back vowels in less explicit articulation tend to be changing towards neutralized sounds, especially in grammatical words.

Spelling	Formal	Informal
it's not	its 'nɒt	əts 'nyt
because	bi'kɒz	bikəz
according to	ə'kɔ:diŋ tə	əkədiŋ tə
I think he was	ai'θiŋk hi· wəz	^ 'θiŋk i wɜz

The historically long vowel [i:] tends to lose its diphthongization; as the next stage it undergoes quantitative reduction and finally changes its quality as well.

Spelling	Formal	Informal
I don't believe it	i a'dʒʌnt bi'li:v it	^ dʒʌn(t) bə'liv it

it seems to be it 'si:mz tə bi· it 'simz tə bi

The similar process of reduction is likewise observed in [u:] simplified to [u].

Spelling	Formal	Informal
a few more words	ə 'fju: 'mɔ: 'wɜ:dz	ə fju mɔ· 'wɜ:dz
a new aspect	ə 'nju: 'æspekt	ə 'n(j)u 'æspekt

As to labialization of vowels the amount of rounding varies greatly between the individual speakers. The vowel [ɔ:] seems to retain lip rounding as a rule. The vowels [ɒ] and [ɒI] have very little, if any, rounding at all in informal speaking. The vowels [u:], [u] seem to lose the rounding altogether. Diphthongs are very often monophthongized in informal speech.

The diphthong [ɜu] is sometimes completely neutralized in the unstressed position.

Spelling	Formal	Informal
so we've discussed	sɜu wi·v dis'kʌst	sə wiv dis'kʌst
hope to settle it	hɜup tə 'setl it	hə tə 'setl it

Vowel elision is very frequent in informal conversational style. It often goes with other processes involving assimilation and elision of consonants. Elided neutral sound [ə] is very common in the unstressed syllables of polysyllabic words, like:

Spelling	Formal	Informal
collective	ə'lektkiv	'klektiv
different	'difərənt	'difrənt
prisoner	'prizənə	'priznə
political	ə'litikpl	'plitikl
phonetically	ə'nfetikəli	'fnetikəli

In the last three examples the loss of [ə] in the initial unstressed syllable of a word causes the initial consonant form a cluster with the consonant of the stressed syllable. Vowel reduction mostly occurs in extended utterances in sequences of words. The loss of the neutral sound [ə] in the preposition to or the particle to preceded by a consonant is a very common pattern.

Spelling	Formal	Informal
next to Liverpool	'nekst tə 'livəpu:l	'nekst 'tlivəpu:l
back to london	'bæk tə 'lʌndən	'bæk 'tlʌnd(ə)n
to see them	ə 'sti: pəm	'tsi: pəm
future situation	'fju:tʃə ,sitju'eɪʃn	'fju:tʃə 'sitjueɪʃn
this afternoon	ɪs p'a:ftə'nu:n	pɪs 'a:ftnu:n
after all	a:ftər 'ɔ:l	'a:ft'rɔ:l

In the majority of spoken utterances beginning with the initial [I] is elided when the phrase runs on without a marked pause after the previous saying.

3.3 Methodological recommendations

Nowadays learners of foreign languages ought to have ample opportunities of hearing the language spoken, and not just by their teacher and their fellow-pupils. Television, video tapes, cassettes and CDs give today's learners an advantage which earlier generations did not have. However, mere exposure to authentic language material, while it will certainly improve a learner's comprehension ability, is not sufficient to ensure a good productive command of the language or a good pronunciation. Almost everyone can benefit from explicit pronunciation teaching, in which the use of phonetic transcription has an important role.

In what follows I shall concentrate on the teaching and learning of English; but many of the points apply to other languages too.

A good dictionary gives information on a whole range of matters. As well as telling you what a word means (by translation or otherwise), it should at least give relevant information about its grammatical status and about its pronunciation.

There are various ways of giving information about pronunciation: respelling using orthographic conventions of the learner's language, respelling using orthographic conventions of the target language, or phonetic notation. All of these can be regarded as types of phonetic transcription, though they may well vary considerably in quality.

The easiest transcription system for the beginner is arguably a respelling using the orthographic conventions of the first language: for example, showing English pronunciation in a Korean-English bilingual dictionary by transcribing English pronunciation into han'gŭl, in a Japanese-English bilingual dictionary by transcribing it into katakana, or in a Turkish-English bilingual dictionary by writing it in Latin letters with Turkish spelling conventions. In its crudest form, this has the major drawback of treating English as if its sound system were the same as that of the learner's first language. At the very least the transcription

system will need to be made more elaborate, and therefore more complicated, by devising ways of symbolizing those sounds of English that are not found in Korean, Japanese, or Turkish respectively. Obvious examples of such sounds are the two th-sounds of English, the voiceless and voiced dental fricatives heard in *thin* and *this* respectively; or the vowel sound of the word *nurse* (no matter whether we take British RP or GenAm as our pronunciation model for English).

Respelling systems using English orthographic conventions are found mainly in monolingual dictionaries aimed at native speakers. Such systems are still generally in use in the United States, though I am gratified to say that in Britain they have quite recently been displaced by transcriptions using the International Phonetic Alphabet. They have to contend with various awkward facts about traditional English spelling: for example, that there is no unambiguous way of spelling the diphthong sound /aʊ/ (as in *mouth*, *now*), because both *ou* and *ow*, the obvious candidates, correspond to a different diphthong in *soul*, *own* (not to mention still other possibilities for *ou* exemplified in the words *group*, *thought*, *could*, *cough*, *double*, *tourist*, *journey*). There is no unambiguous way of showing the diphthongs of *price*, *goat* in traditional English spelling; so respelling systems have to resort to special symbols involving the letters *i* and *o* with a macron diacritic (\bar{i} , \bar{o}). We can be proud that EFL dictionaries have led the way in employing IPA notation, which is unambiguous and systematic.

Strangely enough, there are many native speakers of English to whom facts such as this are not self-evident. English people beginning the study of phonetics sometimes imagine that words such as *write* and *wrong* begin with a *w*-sound. Or they may believe that *know* ends with *one* (but not *no*). They are so dazzled by their knowledge of the spelling that they hold quite mistaken views about pronunciation. And there are learners of English as a foreign language who get equally misled by the spelling.

Learners of English have to contend with the ambiguity inherent in many spelling sequences. As you know, *o* plus consonant letter plus *e* usually

corresponds to BrE /əʊ/, AmE /oʊ/, as in home, nose, vote. But sometimes, as in love, come the vowel is /ʌ/; and in move it is /u:/. Where the letter o denotes a short vowel, the sound is usually BrE /ɒ/, AmE /ɑ:/, as in lot, top. But in many other cases it is /ʌ/, as in front, monkey. In the case of the combination or the sound is usually /ɔ:ɪ/ (with or without a following r-sound depending on whether we are taking non-rhotic RP or rhotic GenAm as our model), as in north, short, core. But after the letter w we find a quite different vowel sound — BrE /ɜ:ɪ/, AmE /ɝ:ɪ/ — in work, word, world, and in BrE another one again, /ʌ/, in worry. In unstressed syllables the pronunciation is usually /ə, əv/, as in minor, tractor and also in information, Oxford ((even though many EFL learners wrongly believe these words are pronounced with /ɔ:ɪ/ in the second syllable)).

There are various “reading rules” (spelling-to-sound rules) to help the learner pass from the written form of an English word to the spoken form. (A certain amount of information is available at each letter of the alphabet in my LPD, Wells 1990/2000; for a very thorough survey, see Carney 1994). But these rules are complicated and have many exceptions. In practice it is necessary to learn the pronunciation of many words individually.

Some English spellings are entirely ambiguous. If you see the spelling entrance, you will need the context to decide whether it denotes the way in, pronounced /'entrəns/, or the verb meaning to fill with wonder and delight, to /ɪn'trɑ:ns/. Other homographs (same spelling, different pronunciation and meaning) include bass, bow, buffet, does, gill, lead, live, minute, putting, read, resume, tear, tinged, wind, wound (Carney 1994: 397-399; Cruttenden 1994: 211-212). As soon as we transcribe them, we show the difference in pronunciation.

There are also some tricky verb-noun and verb-adjective pairs. English has nearly a hundred words of the type conduct, digest, incense, object, pervert, where the same spelling is used for a verb, with final stress, and for the related

noun, with initial stress. Associated with the stress difference there is often a difference in vowel quality, because of the phenomenon of vowel reduction.

Tiresomely, there are many other English disyllabic verb-noun pairs where both are pronounced alike, with no difference of stress: thus control, promise.

Ideally, then, every learner should learn the correct pronunciation of a word at the same time as he incorporates it into his active vocabulary. Experience shows, however, that even advanced students often fail in this task. Fluent speakers of EFL may have an inaccurate impression of what the native-speaker pronunciation of a word is; the inevitable corollary is that their own oral production of it is flawed.

A useful exercise for more advanced learners is “doing transcription”, i.e. transcribing an orthographic text, a passage of ordinary English prose, into phonetic symbols (normally, into a phonemic version, perhaps including intonation).

There are also psychological factors that affect the learning of pronunciation in ways that are not so true of studying grammar or vocabulary. For one thing, the most basic elements of speaking are deeply personal. Our sense of self and community are bound up in the speech-rhythms of our first language (L1). These rhythms were learned in the first year of life and are deeply rooted in the minds of students. Therefore, it is common for students to feel uneasy when they hear themselves speak with the rhythm of a second language (L2). They find that they “sound foreign” to themselves, and this is troubling for them. Although the uneasiness is usually unconscious, it can be a major barrier to improved intelligibility in the L2.

A teacher can help overcome this psychological barrier and other challenges by thinking of the goal of pronunciation instruction not as helping students to sound like native speakers but as helping them to learn the core elements of spoken English so that they can be easily understood by others. In other words, teachers and students can overcome the frustrations, difficulties, and boredom often

associated with pronunciation by focusing their attention on the development of pronunciation that is “listener friendly.”

Conclusion

Although there are differences between some authors about the numbers of functional styles and their names, it is possible to single out:

- informational (formal) style;
- scientific (academic) style;
- declamatory (artistic, belles-lettres) style;
- publicistic (oratorical) style;
- conversational (informal, familiar) style.

Functional styles reveal their language peculiarities on a number of levels, including grammar, vocabulary, and phonetics.

The formal means used to mark phonetic peculiarities of functional styles are all the components of intonation: (a) changes of pitch (range, level and direction), (b) changes of energy (variations of stress and rhythm), (c) changes of duration (tempo and pauses), (d) changes of timbre or voice quality. That is why we shall refer to functional styles as intonational styles.

Intonational styles distinction is based on the assumption that there are three types of information: (a) intellectual information, (b) emotional and attitudinal information, (c) volitional and desiderative information. Consequently, there are three types of intonation patterns used in oral communication: (a) intonation patterns used for intellectual purposes, (b) intonation patterns used for emotional and attitudinal purposes, (c) intonation patterns used for volitional and desiderative purposes. All intonational styles include intellectual intonation patterns, because the aim of any kind of communication is to give some intellectual information. The frequency of occurrence and the distribution of emotional (or attitudinal) and volitional (or desiderative) patterns shape the distinctive features of each style.

Informational (formal) style is characterised by the predominant use of intellectual intonation patterns. It occurs in formal discourse where the task is to send the message without giving it any emotional or volitional evaluation. This intonational style is used by radio and television announcers when reading news, weather forecasts, or in various official situations, such as classroom activity (informational educational texts). It is considered to be stylistically neutral. In most cases the speaker sounds dispassionate.

The characteristic feature of **informational style** is the use of the Falling tones, normal or slow speed of utterance and regular rhythm. Pauses are always semantically predictable, that is an intonation group always consists of words joined together by sense. Besides, intonation groups tend to be short; duration of pauses varies from medium to long. Short pauses are rather rare.

In scientific (academic) style intellectual and volitional intonation patterns are concurrently employed. The speaker's purpose here is not only to prove a hypothesis, to create new concepts, to disclose relations between different phenomena, but also to direct the listener's attention to the message carried in the semantic component. Although this style tends to be objective and precise, it is not entirely unemotional. Scientific intonational style is frequently used by university lecturers, schoolteachers, or by scientists in formal and informal discussions.

The most pure manifestation of the **academic style** is realised in a lecture. The lecturer's purpose is threefold: (a) he must get the 'message' of the lecture across to his audience; (b) he must attract the attention of the audience and direct it to the 'message'; (c) he must establish contact with his audience and maintain it throughout the lecture. To achieve these goals he makes use of a specific set of intonational means. The most commonly used tone is Falling (High Fall, Fall-Rise) which makes the intonation group sound weighty. This enables the lecturer to sound categoric, judicial, considered and persuasive. The speed of utterance fluctuates from normal to accelerated, but it is never too fast. Variations in the speed of utterance are indicative of the degree of importance attached to different pieces of information. Less important information is pronounced at

greater speed than usual, while more important one is pronounced at slower speed. Besides, the speaker makes use of alternating rhythmic patterns, differing in length. Diminished or increased loudness that contrasts with the normal loudness helps the listeners to perceive a word as being brought out. Pauses are predominantly short, internal boundaries placement is always semantically or syntactically predictable.

In **declamatory (artistic, belles-lettres)** style the emotional role of intonation increases, thereby intonation patterns used for intellectual, volitional and emotional purposes have an equal share. The speaker's aim is to appeal simultaneously to the mind, the will and feelings of the listener by image-bearing devices. Declamatory style is generally acquired by special training and it is used in stage speech, recitation, reading aloud fiction.

While reading aloud fiction, we deal with two varieties of oral representation of the written text: (1) reading aloud a piece of descriptive prose (the author's speech or a monologue); (2) reproduction of actual conversation (the speech of characters or a dialogue).

The intonation of the author's speech or a monologue is characterized by the use of Falling tones. The nuclear tone in final intonation groups is generally the Low Fall. The principal nuclear tones in non-final intonation groups are the Low Fall, the High Fall and the Fall-Rise. The speed of utterance is relatively slow and as a result there are no marked variations in rhythm. Pauses may be different in length but long pauses are more common.

The intonation adequate for reading dialogues is remindful of actual conversation, but there is no one-for-one correlation between them. It is not a pure and simple reproduction of the intonation that might be heard in the natural speech of living people. Reading dialogues is characterized by a great variety of scales (descending and ascending, stepping and sliding), as well as terminal tones (especially, falling-rising tones). The pitch level in most utterances is generally high and the range is wide. The speed of the utterance is normal or increased as compared with natural speech and as a result the rhythm is more regular. Pauses

are always semantically or syntactically predictable. Hesitation pauses do not occur unless they are deliberately used for stylistic purposes.

Verses have well-defined patterns of rhythm — the stressed syllables follow one another in regular intervals of time: the intervals between the stressed syllables are approximately equal. If several unstressed syllables follow the stressed one, they are pronounced quicker; if the stressed syllable is followed by only one unstressed syllable the latter is longer. The most typical tone of recitation is Falling. The Low Fall is especially often used in quiet lyric poems. The High Fall is used when the atmosphere of the poem is strained. It is often used in grand, pompous, solemn verses. Tempo is also a very important feature of poetic speech. The difference in the duration of various stanzas is indicative of the mood of the reader. Pauses in poetic style fulfill various functions. More or less equal length of pauses creates the atmosphere of quietness in lyric poetry. Long pauses create pompous atmosphere. Psychological pauses are often met to fulfill emotional function in poetry.

Publicistic (oratorical) style is characterized by predominance of volitional intonation patterns against the background of intellectual and emotional ones. The general aim of this intonational style is to exert influence on the listener, to convince him that the speaker's interpretation is the only correct one. The task is accomplished not merely through logical argumentation but through persuasion and emotional appeal. For this reason publicistic style has features in common with scientific style, on the one hand, and declamatory style, on the other. It is especially noticeable in public political speeches, judicial speeches, and sermons.

Publicistic style is characterized by a number of phonetic peculiarities. Loudness is usually enormously increased, but sometimes decreased loudness occurs to bring out words and phrases of paramount importance and to produce certain psychological effect. Pitch levels are greatly varied, predominantly wide ranges are used. The speakers often use the so-called "rhetorical trick" — High Level Heads are alternated with the Low Level Heads. Terminal tones are mostly emphatic, especially on emotional semantic centres; in non-final intonation groups

the falling-rising tones are used. The speed of the utterance is moderately slow, but some unimportant parts of the speech are pronounced quicker. The use of so-called "rhetorical pauses" is aimed to influence the public. Rhythm is properly organized. Voice timber is dignified, self-assured, concerned and personally involved.

The usage of conversational (familiar) style is typical of the English of everyday life. It occurs both within a family group and in informal external relationships, namely, in the speech of intimate friends or well-acquainted people. Since this is the kind of English everyone makes use of every day, it is the most useful and least artificial kind of English to teach foreign students as a means of everyday communication.

Generally speaking, conversational style, unlike other styles, allows the occurrence of the entire range of intonation patterns existing in English. Relatively unexcited conversational situations are characterised by stepping scales and simple low falling or rising tones. Monosyllabic response utterances display standardised, narrowed pitch patterns. Degrees of increasing intensity of excitement correlate with increased pitch height. As a result, widened pitch patterns with the high falling nuclear tone are typical of more excited situation. Besides, there is high frequency of compound tones. There is also the occasional completely unexpected placement of nuclear tone.

Analysing most important characteristics of a spoken spontaneous text we should the expression he has chosen, because he is simultaneously planning what he is going to say next and also monitoring what he is saying. The wording is taking place simultaneously with pronouncing. Consequently, the speaker hesitates. He hesitates to remember a further piece of information, to choose a correct word, a correct grammar structure and so on. This hesitation phenomenon breaks the regularity and evenness of phonetic form. There appear micropauses, pauses of different length and quality which seldom occur at the syntactic juncture; lengthening of sounds within the words and in the word in final positions.

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