# Theoretical Phonology: Suprasegmental Phonology Natural Classes and Distinctive Features

#### Charalambos Themistocleous

Department of English Studies University of Cyprus

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## Outline

- Phoneme
- ② Distribution
- Allophones
  - Aspiration in English
  - Palatalization in German and in Greek
  - Flapping
  - Glottal Stop
- Formalising Allophony



#### Introduction

Today we will begin our quest to the basic generalisations, questions, and methods in phonology. Phonology aims to identify (3) types of generalisations (see Kenstowicz 1994:57):

- the language's inventory of phonological elements: vowels, consonants, syllables, tones etc.
- 2 the distribution of these elements in the language's representations: e.g., initial, medial, or final positions in the word, stressed or unstressed syllables, if an element of type *a* follows/precedes an element of type *b*, etc.
- the alternations in the shapes of morphemes composed of these elements within the word and variant pronunciations of words within the sentence.





## Contrast

A thing without oppositions *ipso facto* does not exist.

Charles Sanders Peirce Collected Papers, 1.457



#### Consonants:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{bill} - \text{pill} - \text{vill} - \text{fill} - \text{mill} - \text{dill} - \text{till} - \text{thill} - \text{sill} - \text{nill} - \text{gill} - \text{kill} - \text{chill} - \\ & \text{hill} - \text{ill} - \text{vill} - \text{will} \end{array}$$

In this list<sup>1</sup>, I included the word ill as well. We can claim that ill begins with a zero phoneme (represented with  $\oslash$ ):







#### **Greek Vowels:**

$$\pi \alpha \zeta$$
 /e/ -  $\pi \epsilon \zeta$  /\(\epsilon \)/ -  $\pi \epsilon \zeta$  /s/ -  $\pi \epsilon \zeta$  /u/ -





- The difference between /d/ and [t] in <do> and <two> is contrastive (also termed distinctive), since this difference (i.e., voicing) forms the sole basis for distinguishing different words (and thus, [t] and [d] contrast).
- We call /t/ and /d. phonemes.
- The phonemes are the sounds that comprise the phonemic inventory of English, Greek, Spanish, etc. and when they alternate in the same context they change word meaning.
- $\bullet$  Nevertheless, a phoneme (e.g., /t/ and /d/) by itself does not have a meaning.



## Contrastive Distribution

Phonemes are in contrastive distribution that is when they are found in the same environment a change of meaning occurs.





# Complementary Distribution

**Complementary distribution** is the distribution of phones such that one phone cannot occur in the same phonetic environment as the other (see palatalization in German and Greek).

>-> When two allophones are in complementary distribution, we can predict their occurrence if we know their environment.





## Free Variation

Speakers pronounce sounds differently because of their physiology, sociolinguistic properties, the setting etc. In other, words there are different variations of sounds which occur in the same the same environment—unlike allophones—but without triggering a change in meaning—unlike phonemes—, these sounds are said to be in Free Variation. Nevertheless, free variation is not so free but there are social constraints imposed on variation. The task of sociolinguistics and sociophonetics has been to describe the social constraints of variation.





## Distribution

Another important aspect of the phonemes distribution is that they do not occur in the same places within a word. For example, a p sound occurs both at the beginning and the end of a word but an [h] does not occur at the end of a word in English.





## Distribution

Positions in phonological strings constraint the distribution of sounds. To put in probability terms, not all sounds have the same probability after certain positions; for example the beginning of a syllable (syllable onset position) or at the end of a syllable (syllable coda position).

- Cin: pin tin kin, sin bin din gin lin min etc.
- 2 sCin: spin \*stin, \*ssin, \*sbin, \*sgin \*slin \*smin<sup>2</sup>.



 $<sup>^2</sup>$ I use here the star symbol to show that the word does not occur in the language 9

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# Aspiration in English

Word	IPA	Word	IPA
pen	[ˈpʰɛn]	spin	[ˈspɪn]
ten	[ˈtʰɛn]	stay	[ˈsteɪ]
ken	[ˈkʰɛn]	skin	[ˈskɪn]
kill	[ˈkʰɪɫ]	skill	[ˈskɪɫ]
kent	[ˈkʰɛnt]	school	[ˈskuːt]
text	[ˈtʰɛkst]	stress	[ˈstɹɛs]
coin	[ˈkʰɔɪn]	ski	[ˈskiː]
play	[ˈpʰleɪ]/[pl̪eɪ]	split	[ˈsplɪt]
pray	[ˈbʰɹeɪ]/[bʰae]	spray	[ˈspɹeɪ]
pool	[ˈpʰuːɫ]	spot	[ˈspɒt]
apply	[əˈpʰlʌɪ]/[əpl̥ʌɪ]	respect	[ɹɪˈspεkt]
account	[əˈkʰʌʊnt]	stay	[ˈsteɪ]





# Aspiration in English

Voiceless / p t k / are aspirated when initial in an accented syllable or at beginning of a word:

- pen [p<sup>h</sup>εn]
- can [k<sup>h</sup>an]
- tin [thin]

See however spin [spin], spoon [spu:n], stop [stop], score [skɔ:]. It is clear that in English there is no contrast between a hypothetical [pɛn] and [pʰɛn]. Therefore, aspirated variants are not phonemes in English.





Compare these with the Cypriot Greek minimal pair  $(\tau ov)$   $\pi\pi\alpha\rho\dot{\alpha}$   $[p^h:a'ra]$  'money' vs.  $\pi\alpha\rho\dot{\alpha}$  [pa'ra] 'despite'). The aspirated and non aspirated stops are allophones in English but they are phonemes in Cypriot Greek.





# Aspiration in English

$$/p/=\left\{egin{array}{c} [p^h] \\ [p] \end{array}
ight.$$

- /p/ is a phoneme whereas [p] and  $[p^h]$  are its allophones.
- The phonemes are enclosed in slanted brackets whereas the allophones in square brackets<sup>3</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This notational distinction is no longer systematically enforced (Kenstowicz, 🎌 University of Cyprus 



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## Palatalization in German<sup>4</sup>

[x]	•	[ç]	•
Buch	'book'	mich	'me'
hoch	'high'	Pech	'pitch'
noch	'still'	horch	'hark'
Bach	'stream'	China	'China'



## Palatalization in Greek

Velar			Palatal		
κάπως	[ˈkɐpɔs]	'somehow'	κήπος	[ˈcipɔs]	'garden'
κόπος	[ˈkɔpɔs]	'effort'	Καίτη	[ˈcɛti]	'kate'
κούπα	[ˈkupe]	'mug'			
γόνος	[ˈɣɔnɔs]	'offspring'	γίδα	[ˈjiðe]	'goat'
γούνα	[ˈɣuna]	'fur'	γέλα	['ϳελο]	'smile'
γάλα	[ˈɣele]	'milk'			
χαρά	[xe're]	'pleasure'	χέρι	[ˈçɛɾi]	'hand'
χορός	[xɔˈrɔs]	'dance'	χήρα	[ˈçira]	'widow'
χουρμάς	[xur'mas]	'date'			





## Palatalisation in German and in Greek

Palatalisation takes place both in German and Greek:

$$/x/=\left\{egin{array}{c} [x] \\ [c] \end{array}
ight.$$

/x/ is a phoneme which has two allophones a velar [x] and palatal [ $\varsigma$ ] occurring in complementary distribution (see *Slide* 10).

Nevertheless, the application of palatalisation differs in the two languages: In German, it is the preceding vowel that triggers palatalisation whereas in Greek it is the following vowel that triggers palatalisation. Therefore, the environment is of utmost importance for the application of palatalisation.





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# **Flapping**

The standard pronunciations of the word *water* is [wɔ:tə], yet in most North American Dialects [t] and [d] are pronounced as [r], namely as ['waral.

- water [ˈwarɹ̞] (Received Pronunciation (RP) [wɔːtə])
  - atom ['arm̩] (Received Pronunciation (RP) ['atəm])
- sit ['sit] sitting ['hiriŋ]
  - set ['sεt] setting ['sεrιŋ]





# Flapping

alveolar stop  $\longrightarrow$  flap / vocoid  $\_\_$  unstressed syllabic

when an alveolar stop is followed by an unstressed syllabic and it is preceded by a vocoid (vowel or glide), it becomes a flap (see Odden 2013:23).



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# Glottal Stop

When /t/ is preceded by a vowel and followed by a syllabic  $[\eta]$ , they /t/ is pronounced as a glottal stop.

## Example

```
button ['b\wedge?\eta]
bit ['bit] \longrightarrowbitten [bi?\eta]
```





# Allophones

An American English /t/ has at least 8 allophones<sup>5</sup>:

```
plain
               stem
aspirated
               ten
retroflexed
               strip
flapped
               atom.
nasal flapp
               panty
glottalized
               htit
glottal stop
               bottle
               pants
zero
```



# Allophones in Greek

In Greek, nasal /n/6 has the following variants:<sup>7</sup>

```
plain
                                   ['ana]
[n]
                        Άννα
                                              Anna
                                  [anˈθos]
[n]
     dental
                        άνθος
                                              flower
[n]
                                  ['pensa]
     retracted alveolar
                        πένσα
                                              pliers
[n]
     palatal
                        εννιά
                                   [e'na]
                                              nine
[ŋ]
     velar
                        πάγκος
                                   ['pangos]
                                              bench
```



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>see also the discussion on 'Greek Prenasalisation' in your textbook.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>see Arvaniti, 2007:13.

#### Introduction

#### Phonology has to explain

- How do abstract linguistic constituents map to acoustic representation? What processes (e.g., assimilation, elision, deletion, insertion, etc.) take place.
- What is the optimal way to explain the phonological procedures?





# Formalising the Rules: A First Attempt

$$\begin{bmatrix} k \\ y \\ x \\ n \\ l \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} c \\ j \\ c \\ n \\ k \end{bmatrix} / \underline{\qquad} \begin{bmatrix} i \\ \epsilon \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure: Palatalization in Standard Modern Greek





# Reading rule formulations

The rule portrayed on slide 31 is interpreted as follows:

- The left side of the arrow constitutes the *focus*, which is essentially the input of the rule.
- The right side of the arrow constitutes the structural change (SC) introduced by the rule.
- The part after the constituent slash constitutes the environment, where the rule takes place.
- The dash *environment dash* \_\_\_ specifies the focus relative to the *conditioning context* (CC), (which in slide 31 coincides with the vowel matrix).



## Summary

- The Phonemes comprise a language's phonemic inventory.
- The Phonemes change word meaning when they contrast in the same environment.
- Allophones are different realisations of a phoneme.
- Allophonic realisations depend on the segmental environment; hence allophones cannot contrast in the same environment.
- We have seen our first rules in phonology.
- In the following week,
  - We will see that phones can be further analysed into smaller constituents or features.
  - We will see better ways to formalise rules.





# For Further Reading I

- Ashby, M. and Maidment, J. (2005). Introducing Phonetic Science. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Hayes, B. (2009). Introductory Phonology. Blackwell.
- Hyman, L. (1975). Phonology. Theory and Analysis. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York.
- Laver, J. (1994).

  Principles of Phonetics.

  Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.





# For Further Reading II



Odden, D. (2013).

Introducing Phonology.

Cambdridge University Press, Cambridge, second edition edition.



