# INTD0112 <br> Introduction to Linguistics 

Lecture \#5
Sept 21 ${ }^{\text {st, }} 2009$

## Goals of linguistic theory

- Linguists are mainly concerned with two main questions:
a. What is it that we know when we know a language?
b. How does this knowledge arise in the mind of the native speaker?


## Announcements

- If interested in more discussion of language modularity, you may want to have a look to Fodor's 1983 book The Modularity of Mind.
- Also, Pinker’s The Language Instinct is a good source.
- As is Jackendoff's Patterns in the Mind, of which we read the first three chapters.
- Looks like no Mr. D. Advocate today. Nice!


## Grammar is a "mental" entity

- The answer to the first question is to study language as a system of knowledge, or to use a familiar term, though in a rather different way, a grammar.
- Linguists typically break down a grammar into subcomponents and work on each:


## Components of a mental grammar

- Phonetics: The study of the articulation and perception of speech sounds.
- Phonology: The study of the sound system in a language.
- Morphology: The study of word structure.
- Syntax: The study of sentence structure.
- Semantics: The study of meaning of words and sentences.


## Other subfields within linguistics

- The answer to the second question is the study of first language acquisition.
- But linguists also raise questions for the mutability of linguistic knowledge, i.e., the fact that language changes over time. This is the domain for historical linguistics.
- Linguists also raise questions for how we come to use language in social contexts and how people's forms of speech vary (the so-called dialects). This is the domain for sociolinguistics.


## Other subfields within linguistics

- Psycholinguistics, on the other hand, studies the cognitive processes that we engage in the production and perception of language.
- Neurolinguistics deals with how language is physiologically represented in the brain.
- Computational linguistics is concerned with ways to model natural languages so they can be used by machines.


## Course plan henceforward

- We will cover most of these (check the online syllabus), though you have to remember this is a course in the "formal" study of language, so all of the first half of the semester and some part of the second half will be devoted to the study of the five main components of linguistic knowledge.
- Importantly, though, understanding these is crucial to understanding other areas of linguistics as well.


## Phonetics

## Phonetics

- Phonetics is the study of speech sounds in human language, which are technically known as phones.
- In this class we'll be mainly concerned with articulatory phonetics.


## Spelling and speech

The one-l lama,
He's a priest.
The two-l llama, He's a beast.

And I will bet
A silk pajama
There isn't any
Three-l lllama.

## Spelling and speech

- Even though alphabetic spelling is meant to represent the pronunciation of words, it is not always reliable in figuring out how a word is pronounced for the following reasons:
- Different letters may represent the same sound:
to too two through threw clue shoe


## Spelling and speech

- A single letter may represent different sounds: dagme dad father call village many.
- A combination of letters may represent a single sound:
shoot character physics rough plain
- Some letters have no sound at all in certain words:
knot resign lamb sword


## Spelling and speech

- Spelling may also fail to represent sounds that occur:
cute futility university
- Also, one letter may represent two sounds: box Xerox
- Remember also that the majority of human languages do not have a writing system, which makes spelling completely irrelevant for pronunciation in these languages.


## Spelling and speech

- Because we cannot rely on spelling, linguists rely instead on a special alphabet to represent speech sounds in human language. This is the so-called International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), see p. 31 in your textbook for the IPA charts. There is also a Link and fun website for the IPA chart on the class website.
- The IPA represents speech in the form of individual phones like [p], [s], [a], etc.


## The vocal tract

- There are two major types of phones in human language: consonants and vowels.
- As it turns out, a phone can be described in terms of a number of individual articulatory features.
- Before we do that, however, let's look at the human vocal tract first:



## Consonants and vowels

- The vocal tract produces both consonants and vowels, but how are these different?
- In terms of articulation, consonants are produced when the airflow is obstructed in the vocal tract, while vowels are produced with relative free flow of the airstream in the vocal tract.


## Articulation of consonants

- Consonant sounds can be characterized according to three main phonetic properties:
a) place of articulation,
b) manner of articulation, and
c) voicing.


## Places of articulation

- Labial consonants: These are produced with closure or near-closure of the lips.
- If both lips are involved, the consonant is said to be "bilabial", e.g., [p], [b], and [m].
- If the upper teeth and lower lip are involved, the consonant is said to be "labiodental", e.g., [f] and [v].


## Places of articulation

- Dental consonants: These are produced with the tongue placed against or near the teeth, e.g., the initial sounds in French words temps, dire, and zizi.
- English has interdental consonants, though. These are the initial sounds in words like thorn and there. They are phonetically represented as [ $\theta$ ] and [ $ð$ ].


## Places of articulation

- Alveolar consonants: These are produced by raising the front part of the tongue to the alveolar ridge, e.g. [t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [1], and [r].
- Alveopalatal consonants: These are produced when the front part of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge and then the hard palate (that part of the mouth which is just behind the alveolar ridge), e.g. $\left[\int\right]$ as in shoe, $[3]$ as in vision, $[\mathrm{t} 5]$ as in choose, and [d3] as in jam.
- If the consonant is produced at the palate, then it is a palatal sound, e.g., $[j]$ as the initial sound in yes.


## Manners of articulation

- Speech sounds are also differentiated by the way the airflow is affected as it travels from the lungs up and out of the mouth and nose. This is referred to as the manner of articulation for the sound.


## Stops (aka plosives)

- Stops: These are produced by a complete obstruction of the airflow in the mouth, e.g. [b], [p], [t], [d], [k], and [g]. English also has a glottal stop, transcribed as [?] as in uh-oh.
- When the air escapes through the nasal, rather than the oral, cavity, nasal stops are produced, e.g., [m], [n], and [ n$]$. Recall the last symbol stands for the final sound in words like king.


## Fricatives and affricates

- Fricatives: These are produced by a partial obstruction of the airflow, where the passage in the mouth through which the air escapes is very narrow, causing friction, e.g. [f], [v], [s], [z], [ $\theta$ ], [ð], [J], [3], and [h].
- Affricates: These are produced by a stop closure followed immediately by a slow release of the closure characteristic of the fricative, e.g. [ t$]$ ] as in church, and [d3] as in jump.


## Fricatives and affricates

- Acoustically, fricatives and affricates can be divided into two types based on their relative loudness. The noisier ones are called stridents (aka as sibilants): [s], [z], [ $\left.\int\right],[3],[\mathrm{t}]$ ], and [d3]), whereas the quieter ones are called ([ $\theta$ ] and [ð]) are nonstridents.


## Liquids (aka Approximants)

- Liquids: In the production of these sounds, there is some obstruction of the airflow in the mouth, but not enough to cause any real constriction or friction, e.g. "l" and "r".
- [l] is called a lateral sound, because the air escapes through the sides of the tongue.


## Liquids (aka Approximants)

- There are several varieties of " r " in the world's languages. The " r " could be a trill, as in Spanish perro (="dog"), in which case it is transcribed as [r].
- The " $r$ " could also be a retroflex, as the case is in American and Canadian English, and is transcribed as [ I].
- Another sound commonly identified with " r " is the flap, which occurs in North American English in words like butter and better. This sound is transcribed as [r].


## Glides (aka Semi-vowels)

- Glides: These are produced with little or no obstruction of the air in the mouth, e.g. [j] as in yes and [w] as in wood.
- When occurring in a word, they must always be either followed or preceded by a vowel, and in their articulation the tongue moves rapidly in a gliding fashion either toward or away from a neighboring vowel.
- Some English speakers produce a voiceless glide at the beginning of words like when, which, and where. It is transcribed as [ $M$ ].


## Voicing

- Consonant sounds may be produced either with or without a vibration of vocal cords. If the vocal cords are apart when the airstream is pushed from the lungs, the air is not obstructed at the glottis and it passes freely into the supraglottal cavities. The sounds produced this way are characterized as voiceless, e.g. [p], [t], and [s].
- By contrast, if the vocal cords are together, the airstream forces its way through and causes them to vibrate. Such sounds are voiced sounds, e.g. [b], [d], and [z].


## Describing consonants

- A consonant can thus be described in terms of these three parameters: place of articulation, manner of articulation, and voicing.
- For example, [p] is a bilabial, voiceless stop, whereas $[z]$ is an alveolar, voiced fricative.
- Now, describe [f], [m], and [w].



## Next class agenda

- Vowels.
- Prosodic features.
- Syllable structure.
- Speech production and coarticulation.

