ASSIMILATION AND ACCOMMODATION



What is assimilation

Two adjacent consonants within a word or at word boundaries often influence each other in such a way that the articulation of one sound becomes similar to or even identical with the articulation of the other one



TYPES OF ASSIMILATION

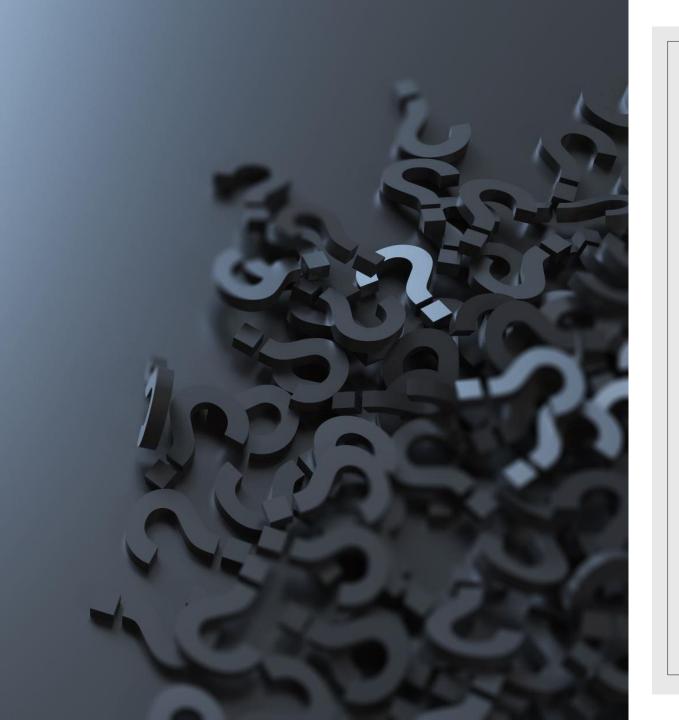
Historical Assimilation

If the present-day pronunciation of a word is the result of an assimilation which took place at an earlier stage in the history of the language we have the so-called historical assimilation

Thus, a regular series of assimilations took place in the English language in words where the consonants /s/, /z/, and /t/ were followed by /j/ provided these consonant combinations occurred in unstressed syllables. Reciprocal assimilation which took place in the combinations of /sj/, / zj / and /tj/ changed them into /ʃ/, /dʒ/ and /tf/ respectively

CONTEXTUAL ASSIMILATIONS

- When putting words together to form a compound word, a phrase or a sentence, a different type of assimilation takes place
- → contextual assimilation
- In contextual assimilation a word comes to have a pronunciation different from that which it has when said by itself
- E.g.: 1. horse shoe /hɔ:s $\int u$:/ \rightarrow [hɔ: $\int u$:]
 - 2. does she $/d \wedge z \int i : /$ \rightarrow $[d \wedge \int i :]$



Degrees of Assimilation

Assimilation can be of three degrees:

- □complete,
- partial
- and intermediate

DEGREE OF ASSIMILATIONS

□ Assimilation can be said to be complete when the articulation of the assimilated consonant coincides with that of the assimilating one,

E.g.: horse shoe /hɔ:s $\int u:/\rightarrow$ [hɔ: $\int u:$]

□ Assimilation is said to be partial when the assimilated consonant retains its main phonetic features and becomes only partly similar in some feature of articulation to the assimilating one.

For example, when the consonants /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/ or /z/ are followed by the dental consonant / θ / or / δ /, the main features of the alveolar consonants are retained, but the point of articulation is changed, and they are replaced by the dentalised variants of the alveolar phonemes under the influenced of the dental consonants / θ / or / δ /. Thus, we have dentalised alveolar consonants: [\underline{t}], [\underline{d}], [\underline{n}], [\underline{l}], [\underline{s}] or [\underline{z}]

DEGREE OF ASSIMILATIONS

□ The degree of assimilation is said to be intermediate between complete and partial when the assimilated consonant changes into a different sound, but does not coincide with the assimilating consonant.

E.g.:

- 1. gooseberry /ˈgʊzbəri /, where /s/ in goose is replaced by /z/ under the influence of /b/ in berry;
- 2. Congress /kɔŋres/ where /n/ is replaced by /ŋ/ under the influence of /g/.
- 3. That's all right [ðæts ɔ:lrait], [s] has replaced [z] under the influence of [j].

The Direction of Assimilation

Assimilation is called progressive when the sound that comes first affects the sound that comes after it

In reciprocal, or double, assimilation two adjacent consonants influence each other

THE DIRECTION OF ASSIMILATION

- □ Assimilation is of three types as far as the direction is concerned: **progressive**, **regressive** and **double** (or **reciprocal**).
- ☐ Assimilation is called **progressive** when the sound that comes first affects the sound that comes after it.

Examples are the noun plural forms /s/, /z/ and /iz/

Assimilation is regressive when the sound that comes first is affected by the sound that comes after it, examples of which are the different forms II-, Im-, II- of the same morpheme meaning not. Other examples are when the consonants /t/, /d/, /n/, /l/, /s/ or /z/ are followed by [δ] or [θ] and replaced by dentalised alveolar consonants: [t], [t], [t], [t], [t] or [t].

THE DIRECTION OF ASSIMILATION

- ☐ In reciprocal, or double, assimilation two adjacent consonants influence each other.
- When [t] as in *don't* is immediately followed by [j] as in *you*, the consonant [t] devoces [j] and under the influence of this the devoiced [j] acquires tongue-front coarticulation and thus changes into [tf].

Examples are $don't you \rightarrow [dount]v$, $can't you \rightarrow [ka:nt]v$].

- When [j] is preceded by [d] the former disappears giving [d] tongue-front coarticulation. As a result, [dj] is replaced by [dʒ].

Examples are $Did you \rightarrow [didzv],$ Could $you \rightarrow [kvdzv]$

Assimilation of Place, of Manner, and of Voicing

Assimilation of place is most clearly observable in some cases where a final consonant with alveolar place of articulation is followed by an initial consonant with a place of articulation that is not alveolar.

For example, the final consonant in *that* is alveolar [t]. In rapid, casual speech the [t] will become [p] before a bilabial consonant, as in *that person* [ðæp pɜ:snˌ]; *light blue* [laip blu:]; *meat pie* [mi:p pai]. Before a dental consonant, [t] will change to a dental plosive, for which the symbol is [t], as in *that thing* [t θiŋ]; *get those* [get ðəʊz].

Assimilation of Place, of Manner, and of Voicing

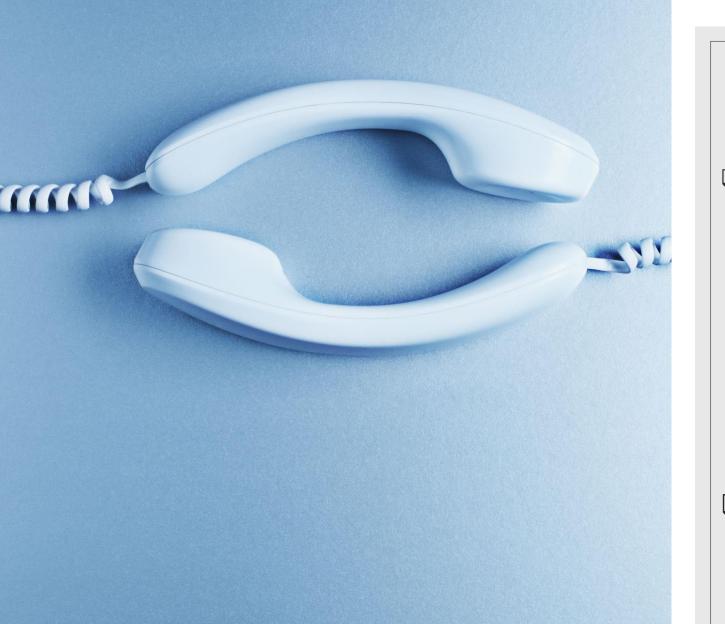
Assimilation of manner is much less noticeable and is only found in the most rapid and casual speech; generally speaking, the tendency is again for regressive assimilation and the change in manner is most likely to be towards an easier consonant – one which makes less obstruction to the airflow. It is possible to find cases where a final plosive becomes a fricative or nasal,

E.g.: that side [ðæs said]; good night [gun nait].

Assimilation of Place, of Manner, and of Voicing

☐ **Assimilation of voice** is also found, but again only in a limited way.

An example is *I like that black dog* [I laik ðæt blæk dog]. It is typical of many foreign learners of English to allow regressive assimilation of voicing to change the final k of *like* to [g], the final t of *that* to [d] and the final k of *black* to [g]



Accommodation

- In accommodation the accommodated sound does not change its main phonemic features and is pronounced as a variant of the same phoneme slightly modified under the influence of a neighboring sound.
- ☐ In modern English there are three main types of accommodation.

ACCOMMODATION

□ An unrounded variant of a consonant phoneme is replaced by its rounded variant under the influence of a following rounded vowel phoneme, as at the beginning of the following words:

Unrounded variants of

consonant phonemes

[ti:] tea

[les] less

[n_An] none

Rounded variants of

consonant phonemes

[tu:] too

[lu:s] loose

[nu:n] noon

ACCOMMODATION

□ A fully back variant of a back vowel phoneme is replaced by its slightly advanced (fronted) variant under the influence of the preceding mediolingual phoneme [j], Cf.

Fully back variant of [u:]

Fronted variant of [u:]

['bu:ti] booty

['bju:ti] beauty

[mu:n] moon

['mju:zik] music

ACCOMMODATION

□ A vowel phoneme is represented by its slightly more open variant before the dark [ł] under the influence of the latter's back secondary focus. Thus, the vowel sound in bell, tell is slightly more open than the vowel in bed, ten.

What is Elision?

The nature of elision may be stated quite simply: under certain circumstances sounds disappear; one might express this in more technical language by saying that in certain circumstances a phoneme may be realized as zero, or have zero realization or be deleted

As with assimilation, elision is typical of rapid, casual speech; the process of change in phoneme realizations produced by changing the speed and casualness of speech is sometimes called gradation

Producing elisions is something which foreign learners do not need to learn to do, but it is important for them to be aware that when native speakers of English talk to each other, quite a number of phonemes that the foreigner might expect to hear are not actually pronounced

Types of Elision

Loss of weak vowel after p, t, k

In words like potato, tomato, canary, perhaps, today, the vowel in the first syllable may disappear; the aspiration of the initial plosive takes up the whole of the middle portion of the syllable, resulting in these pronunciations (where h indicates aspirations):

E.g: e.g. [p h teitəυ], [t hma:təυ], [khnæri], [phhæps], [thdei]

■ Weak vowel +n, l or r becomes syllabic consonant

E.g.: e.g. tonight →[tṇait]; police →[pli:s]; correct →[kṛekt]

Types of Elision

Avoidance of complex consonant clusters

E.g.: looks backs \rightarrow [lok bæk]; acts \rightarrow [æks]

□ Loss of final v in "of" before consonants

E.g. lots of them \rightarrow [lots \Rightarrow ð \Rightarrow m]; waist of money \rightarrow [weist \Rightarrow m \wedge ni]

□ Contractions

E.g.: I would \rightarrow I'd; He is \rightarrow He's



 \square Some accents of English are described as **rhotic**, which means that when the leter r appears in the written word after a vowel (as in car or carve), the r phoneme is used in the pronunciation of the word (as in [ka:r] and [ka:rv]. Examples are most of dialects of American English, Irish English and certain British regional accents.

Other accents are non-rhotic, and do not pronounce the /r/, so we get [ka:] and [ka:]. RP (Received Pronunciation) is non-rhotic. When, however, there is a written r at the end of a word and it occurs between two vowel sounds, speakers with non-rhotic accents often use the phoneme /r/ to link the preceding vowel to a following one.

Linking /r/

Her English is excellent. (/r/ is pronounced).

Her German is absolutely awful, though!. (/r/ is not pronounced)

My brother lives in London. (/r/ is not pronounced)

My brother always phones at the wrong time. (/r/ is pronounced).

Intrusive /r/

□ Where two vowel sounds meet and there is no written letter /r/, speakers with non-rhotic accent still often introduce the /r/ phoneme in order to ease the transition. This happens when the first word ends in /∂/, /a:/ or /ɔ:/. Speakers with rhotic accents tend not to do this.

E.g.:

- 1. Princess Diana was a victim of media exploitation. ([∂re])
- 2. The media are to blame. ([∂ra:])
- 3. It's a question of law and order. ([\mathfrak{z} :r ∂n]).
- 4. I saw it happen. ([5:ri])

Some speakers also let an /r/ intrude within words like *drawing* (pronouncing it as /drɔ:riŋ/)

LINKING /J/

- ☐ When a word ends in /i:/, or a diphthong which finishes with /i/, speakers often introduce a /j/ to ease the transition to a following vowel sound:

 E.g.:
- 1. I agree, wholeheartedly. ([aijə])
- 2. I think; therefore, I am (Descartes) [aijæm]
- \rightarrow This happens because in order to form /i:/ and /ɪ/, the mouth is in more or less the same position as it is for the start of the semi-vowel /j/.

LINKING/W/

 \square When a word ends in /u:/, or a diphthong which finishes with / σ /, speakers often introduce a / w / to ease the transition to a following vowel sound: E.g.:

- 1. Go on! Go in! ([gəʊwən], [gəʊwin])
- 2. Are you inside, or are you outside? ([ju:win], [ju: waot])

 \rightarrow This happens because in order to form /u:/ and / σ /, the mouth is in more or less the same position as it is for a start of the semi-vowel /w/.

WEAK FORMS

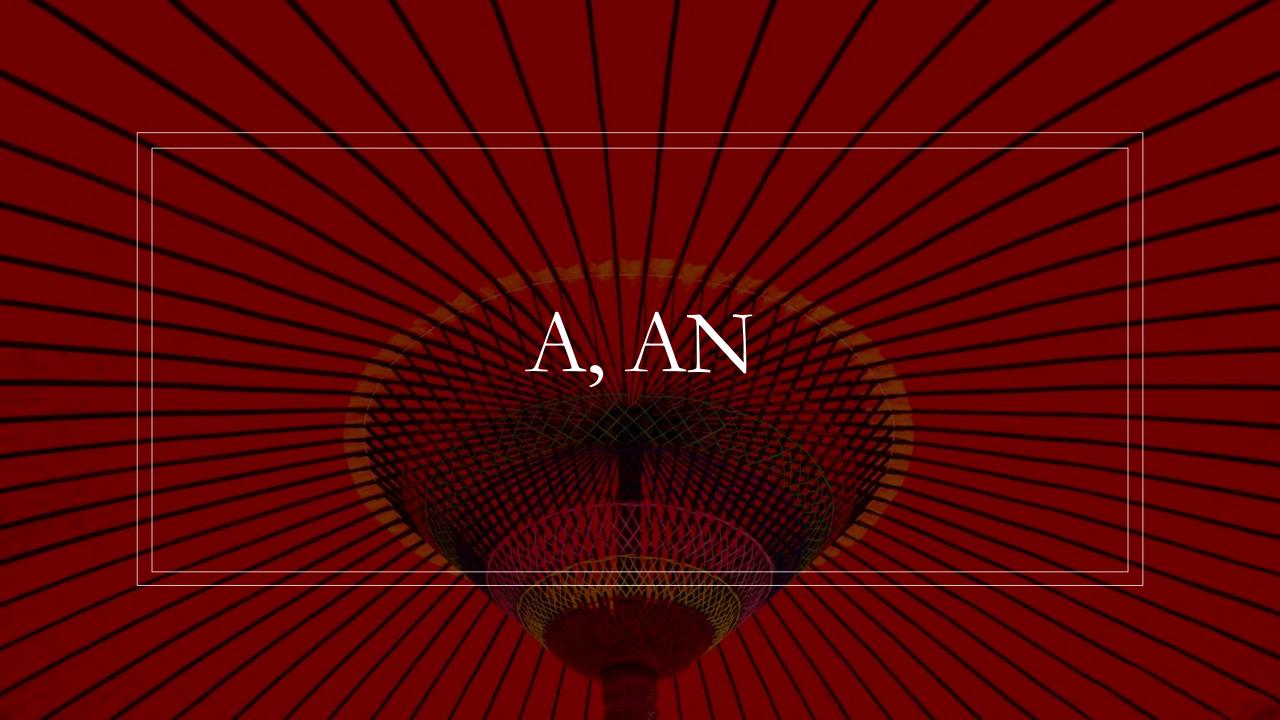
- ☐ In English speech, there are certain words which have two forms of pronunciation: a strong (or full form) and b-weak (or reduced form).
 - e.g. can [kæn] (strong form) [kən] [kn] (weak form)
- Almost all the words which have both a strong and weak form belong to a category that may be called function words words that do not have a dictionary meaning in the way that we normally expect nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs to have. These function words are words such as auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, etc., all of which are in certain circumstances pronounced in their strong forms but which are more frequently pronounced in their weak forms. It is important to remember that there are certain contexts where only the strong form is acceptable, and others where the weak form is the normal pronunciation.

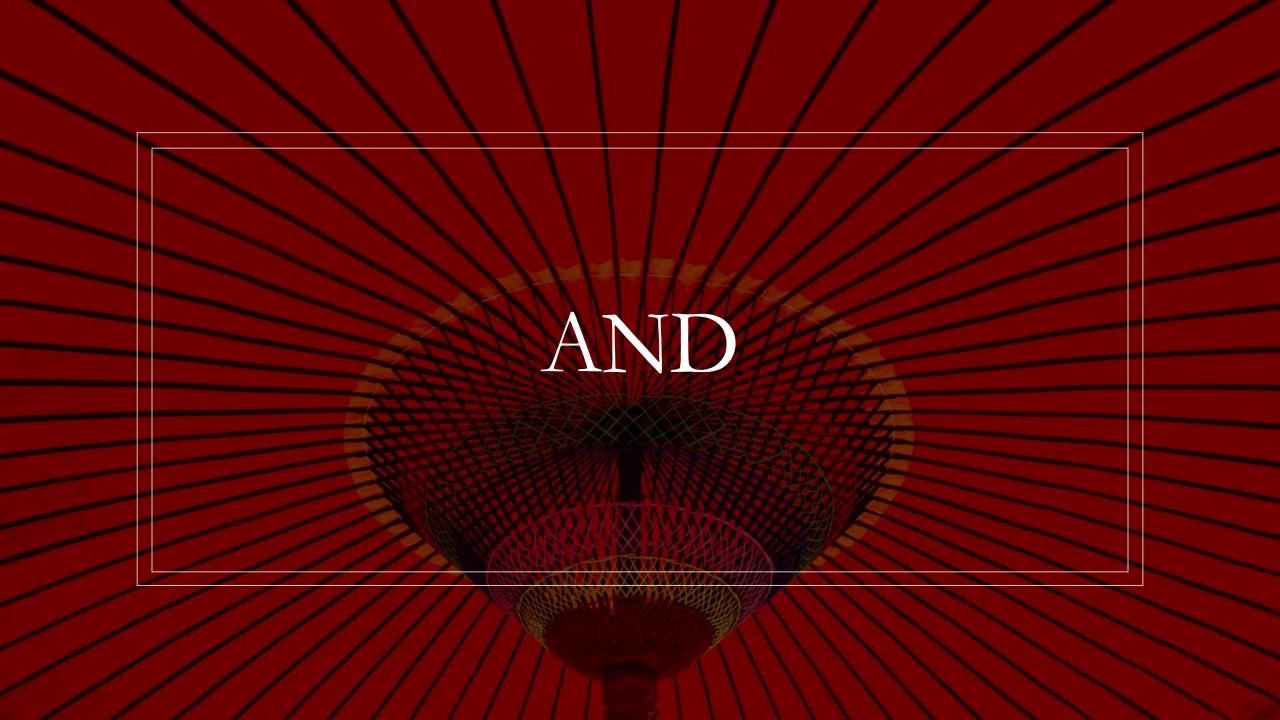
□For many weak-form words, when they occur at the end of a sentence.
For example, the word "of" has the weak form av in the following sentence:
E.g.: I'm fond of ([əv]) chips
But when it comes at the end of the sentence, as in the following example, it has the strong form pv:
E.g.: Chips are what I'm fond of [pv]
☐ When a weak-form word is being contrasted with another word.
E.g.: The letter's from [from] him, not to [tu:] him.
☐ When a weak-form word is given stress for the purpose of emphasis.
E.g.: You must [mʌst] give me more money.
☐ When a weak-form word is being "cited" or "quoted":
Eg: You should put "and" [ænd] at the end of a sentence.

COMMONWEAK FORMWORDS

signature







BUT

THAT

THAN

HIS

THAN

HER



SHE, HE, WE, YOU

HIM

Leave him alone





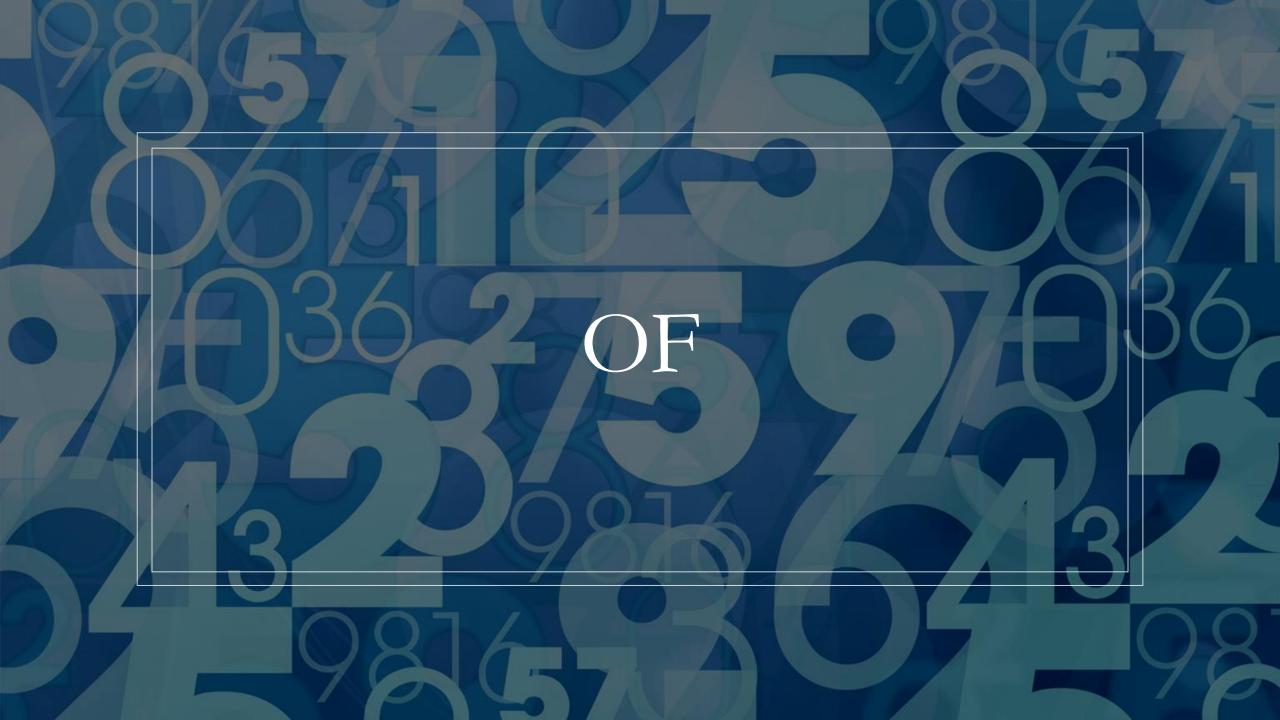




AT



FROM





AS



This word is used in two different ways





In one sense it has strong form E.g.: I think some animal broke it



It is also used before uncountable noun, and before other nouns in the plural, in such uses it has the weak form.





HAVE, HAS, HAD

Which has been best?

Most had gone home

- Yes, I have
 - I think she has
 - I thought we had





MUST

 This word is sometimes used with the sense of forming a conclusion or deduction



AM, ARE, WAS, WERE

- I know the Smiths are
 - The last record was
 - They weren't as cold as we were

