Západočeská univerzita v Plzni

Fakulta filozofická

Bakalářská práce

Suprasegmentální jednotky v soudobé angličtině: přízvuk, intonace, akcenty lokální i národní

Kateřina Ježková

Plzeň 2014

Západočeská univerzita v Plzni

Fakulta filozofická

Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury

Studijní program Filologie

Studijní obor Cizí jazyky pro komerční praxi

Kombinace angličtina – němčina

Bakalářská práce

Suprasegmentální jednotky v soudobé angličtině: přízvuk, intonace, akcenty lokální i národní

Kateřina Ježková

Vedoucí práce:

PhDr. Robert Vorel, CSc.

Katedra anglického jazyka a literatury

Fakulta filozofická Západočeské univerzity v Plzni

Plzeň 2014

Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracovala samostatně a použila jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

Plzeň, duben 2014   ………………………

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank PhDr. Robert Vorel, CSc. from West Bohemian University for provided materials and valuable advices.

Table of Contents

1. INTRODUCTION

This theme is not so contained in Czech textbooks and we can also hardly find it in teaching plans. That is why I chose this topic. I would like to introduce and summarize suprasegmental units not only in English, but also in Czech and Asia Languages. This part will not be simple, because there are a few Czech scientific works. On the other hand we have many sources about English language. That refer to Czech language is suprasegmentally simple. Czech has fixed stress, no word intonation and sentence intonation is used only to express basic functions – question, amazement, simple statement. Because of that can Czech seems to English speakers so monotonous and Czech speakers tend to speak English monotonous too. In my opinion Czech studies do no pay attention to suprasegmental units in general linguistic literature. Exception could be studies about Moravian Silesian dialects with consideration on Polish influence. Stress is on penultima (the next to the last syllable in a word) and there is influencing of dialects, for example standard Ostavian. Suprasegmental units can we in Czech also describe as shortening all vowels for example in Prague Czech (*knedlík- knedlik; trpaslík – trpaslik*) or on the other hand lengthening all vowels in West Bohemian Czech (*tři kluci – tří klucí*).

The goal of my thesis is to show suprasegmental importance mainly in English, describe vowel system in some English varieties and explain the most important terms. I hope this work will be useful for students of linguistic and possibly for other researches who are interested about this theme.

For my thesis I will mostly use Dictionary of language and linguistics (Hartmnan, Stork) to explain all terms related to the topic.

2. ENGLISH TERMINOLOGY

2.1 Suprasegmental units

"The same phonological data might be analysed segmentally or suprasegmentally, depending on one's particular theory of phonology. The term "suprasegmental" is used to refer to phonological and grammatical units larger than the segment."[1]

Suprasegmental units belong to the phonetic features. Suprasegmental units can be also called prosodic. They can be divided into two groups: essential and marginal. Essential are: Tone, Stress, Intonation, Juncture, and marginal: Accent, Duration, Pitch and Transition. [2]

This work will be focused on the basic suprasegmentals: Stress, tone and duration. For these three suprasegmentals also other terms can be used. Prosodic features, Prominence or Vowel harmony and nasalization.

2.2. The Stress (also called 'intensity')

Stress is greater force exerted in the articulation of one part of an utterance compared with another, thus accentuating a certain part of the utterance, giving it more prominence. A stressed syllable is associated with what is called a reinforced → chest pulse, i.e. a chest pulse produced with extra energy. In phonology two types of stress are distinguished: Sentence stress: where extra prominence is given to a word in a sentence for the sake of emphasis: e.g. **I** saw it (you didn't see it, **I** saw it) and Word stress: where the stress pattern is part of the phonological structure of a word, e.g. permit (verb) as opposed to permit (noun). Some language have fixed stress (or bound accent or fixed accent) where the stress always occurs in the same place in relation to the word boundary, e.g. Hungarian, Czech, whereas other languages, e.g. English and Russian, have free stress (or movable stress) where the

---

[1] Avaliable from: <http://udel.edu/~heinz/classes/2013/607/materials/readings/Hyman-Phonological-Theory-and-Analysis/6-Suprasegmental%20Phonology%20pp186-238.pdf> [online] [2014-02-05]

[2] VOREL, R.: Lexikologie angličtiny v 77 otázkách a odpovědích. pg. 9. Plzeň : Aleš Čeněk, 2006.

position of the stress can vary from word to word. Different degrees of stress can be abstracted as suprasegmental phonemes or prosodies. One type of analysis of English establishes four such degrees: 1) primary stress (primary accent or heavy stress) the strongest, 2) secondary stress weaker than primary but stronger than tertiary, 3) tertiary stress is weaker than secondary, 4) weak stress or minimal stress the weakest degree of stress. The phrase *elevator operator* is often quoted as containing all four degrees of stress.[3]

The Stress has the most established usage in the literature. We can divide the stress into two viewpoints: linguistic and phonetic.

2.2.1. Linguistic function of the stress

Stress has a culminative function *(="serving to indicate the number of independent words or the important points in an utterance by assigning prominence to one syllable in each word or close-knitt group of words")[4], that* means, that only one syllable in each word take the importance (prominence). This includes all stress languages. In this context we must mention free and fixed stress. Free (or variable or demarcative) stress takes intension on different syllables – first, second, last, penultimate, antepenult and so on, according to the word. These languages are for example: English, Russian or German. In this type of stress depends on the position of stress. It can change meaning. For example in German there are mainly by verbs with separable and inseparable prefix (**um**stellen – přestavit, přemístit x um**stellen** – obestoupit, postavit se kolem, obklíčit; **über**fahren – převážet, převézt koho co x über**fahren** – přejet, zajet koho, jet dál; **über**gehen – přejít na druhou stranu, přetékat, proměnit se x über**gehen** – prohlédnout, přehlédnout, nedbat, nevšimnout si). Stress in English may differ between dialects (EngEng or AmEng). By compound nouns stress can change the meaning (paper **bag** – a bag made of paper x **paper** bag – bag for newspapers). Stress can also cause the part of speech changes (record as a verb *ri 'ko:d* – zapsat, zaznamenat, nahrát, zaregistrovat x as a noun or adjective *'rek o:d* – záznam, zápis, nahrávka, gramofonová deska, pověst, reputace, minulost)

---

[3] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 220, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

[4] Available at: <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/culminative> [online] [2014-04-02]

Fixed (nonphonemic, predictable) stress restricts the place of intension to one particular syllable. That includes for example languages: Czech, Finnish, Icelandic, Hungarian (first syllable), Quechua, Polish (penultimate/second from end syllable), Macedonian (antepenult/ third syllable from the end), French, Turkish (last syllable). In these languages is stress assigned according to grammatical or phonological factors. As grammatical factor we can count the word boundary (spaces between words) and as a phonological the syllable weight.

2.2.2. Phonetic function of the stress

Stress has no phonetic function in English language. Here we talk about heavy weight and lower weight of syllable. The lower weight leads to the creation of the mixed vowels, complete reduction of the full value of vowels.

2.3. The Tone (also called 'pitch')

Use of the tone is very limited in English. On the other hand it is often used in tonal languages such as Vietnamese and Chinese. Tone expresses emotional information and emphasis. In the case of English we can say, that tone is type of intonation. Tonal languages are common in East Asia, Africa, Australia and Central America. Tonal language is language, where pitch is on each syllable and is important in sense of meaning.

> Pitch – In acoustics, pitch is measured in cycles per second, i.e. the number of times a vibrating body vibrates in one second. The → vocal cords vibrating rapidly produce a high-pitched sound, and conversely a slow vibration produces a low-pitched sound. The phonetician is concerned with the way differences in pitch are perceived by the ear and brain as an auditory category. Not all the changes in pitch made by a human voice during an utterance are distinctive, however, and in phonology relative pitch levels which are distinctive can be abstracted as Suprasegmental phonemes. In one type of analysis of English, four pitch levels are abstracted: 1) low, 2) mid, 3) high, 4) extra high, which act as

structural signals in the intonation pattern to distinguish such utterances as [2]What [4]are you [2]doing[1]? and [2]What are you [3]doing[1]?[5]

We can split tones into phonological (lexical) or grammatical.

2.3.1. Phonological (lexical) tones

Phonological tones can change the meaning. It is important to distinguish the tone height. For Chinese (Mandarin) there are 4 tones: high, high-rising, falling-rising and high falling.

/mã /	mother	high
/má/	hemp	high-rising
/mâ/	horse	falling-rising
/mà/	scold	high-falling
/bã/	be anxious for something	high
/bá/	pluck	high-rising
/bâ/	hold tight	falling-rising
/bà/	stop	high-falling[6]

2.3.2. Grammatical tones

The grammatical function of tones is for example types of clauses changing. By this feature we can distinguish for example between main and relative clause, negative and positive meaning of clause or also can make different verb tenses – different tones can change the tense from past to present tense and other.

For example Shona language, here the tone distinguishes between a main and a relative clause.

mwàná ákàwúáthe   Child came.

[5] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 117, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

[6] VOREL, Robert. *Lexikologoie angličtiny v 77 otázkách a odpovědích.* Plzeň: Aleš Čeněk, 2005, pg. 20, ISBN 80-86898-67-9

mwàná àkáwùyà	The child who came.

Mandarin Chinese:

[ì mà]	I show.
[í mà]	I am showing.
[ì má]	I showed.
[ì hrùlè̱]	I run.
[í hrùlé̱]	I am running.
[ì hrúlè̱]	I ran. [7]

2.4. Intonation

We can split intonation in three categories: sentence intonation, word intonation and syllable intonation. We can also term intonation melodic stress. "The intonation is used to a much greater extent in other languages like Swedish, Norwegian, Latvian, etc. It covers a unit of two and more syllables and it fits well on the lexical level". [8]

> Intonation is a melodic pattern produced by the variation in pitch of the voice during the speech. In English and many other languages (intonation languages) these melodic patterns convey information about the speaker whether he is angry, surprised, polite etc., and often indicate whether a sentence is a question, a statement or a command. Sometimes intonation carries other information: this in response to the statement *John has a new girlfriend,* the question *Who?* with rising intonation requires the answer *John*, but *Who?* with a falling intonation is asking for further information about the new girlfriend. The situation is different in a tone language where words, meanings and/or

---

[7]Avaliable from: http:// www.phon.oc.ac.uk/jcoleman/PROSODY.htm

[8] ADÁMKOVÁ Lenka, GOLČÁKOVÁ Bohuslava, MIŠTEROVÁ Ivona, POTMĚŠILOVÁ Hana a kolektiv. J*anua linguarum reserata.*Západočeská univerzita v Plzni 2009, pg. 10, ISBN 978-80-7043-886-2

grammatical categories may be distinguished by pitch features which are as much a part of the structure of words as the segmental speech sounds. [9]

2.4.1. Sentence intonation

Sentence – a makrosegment is the group of words that express some idea or statement. The sentence intonation is representing by many marks. The components of sentence are marked by a numbers, the intonation than by the arrows. [10]

Indicative sentence:

(ještě nepřišel)

```
4        3        2        1
-
            -
                -
                    -
```
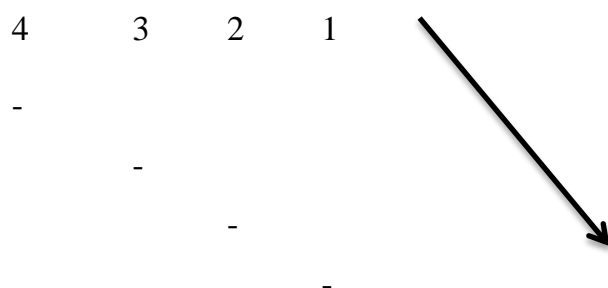
Interrogative sentence:

(ještě nepřišel)

```
2        2        1        1        3        (4)
                    -
-            -
            -        -
```
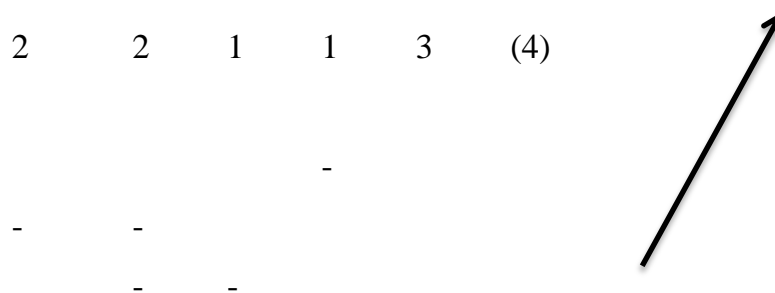
In Czech, as in many other Indo-European languages, there are only two basic sentence intonations - falling and rising intonation. The differentiation of the indicative and interrogative sentence by using falling and rising intonation is

---

[9] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 118, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

[10] ERHART Adolf. *Základy jazykovědy.* Státní pedagogické nakladatelství Praha1982, pg. 53

in every language the same. So that is simple for listener to determine if it is question or simple statement.

2.4.2. The word intonation

The word – a mezosegment – is a combination of sounds that has meaning. Word intonation is more explained below and in chapter 2.2.1.

2.4.3. The syllable intonation

The syllable – mikrosegment – is a unit of spoken language, that consist of one or more vowel sounds alone or of a syllabic consonant alone or of either with one or more consonant sounds preceding or following. In the Indo-European languages the syllable intonation is not so important – cannot change the meaning, but by the Asia languages (Chinese, Vietnamese, Thai, Burmese etc.) there can. These languages are called a tonal language.

Syllable – although the syllable is an intuitively easily recognisable unit there is no single definition which can account for all aspects of the term's usage. A syllable can be defined in various ways, but essentially from three basic points of view:

1) Physical or motor definition – which usually characterises it as an utterance occurring during one chest pulse, i.e. one contraction of the intercostal muscles during exhalation of air from the lungs. In this sense the syllable is the minimum utterance since at least one such chest pulse must be involved, no matter how short an utterance we make.

2) In articulatory phonetics a syllable is defined as a stretch of utterance containing one peak of sonority occurring between two structures characterised by lack of sonority.

3) In structural or phonological definitions the syllable is considered as a structure consisting of a sequence of phonemes or a single phoneme, e.g. /n/ in English [bʌtn̩] is a single phoneme but constitutes a syllable nucleus, together with other features such as length or stress. There is usually considerable

correspondence between syllables established phonetically and syllables established phonologically, but there is not always complete agreement. For example in the case of an intervocalic consonant VCV (where V = any vowel and C = any consonant – the usual notation for describing syllabic structure) phonetically the syllable boundary would probably occur during the articulation of the C element since this is where the greatest degree of stricture and the minimum of sonority occurs. A phonological decision, however, usually assigns the c to the following syllable. This decision is based on the fact that CV, i.e. a syllable ending in a vowel, called an Open syllable, or Free syllable, is universal to all known languages and hence more common than any other syllable structure. Except for the structure CV above which is universal, all languages have their own rules with regard to syllable structure. Other structures VC, CVC, V, do not occur in all languages. Some languages, e.g. Fijian, permit no syllables ending in a consonant (also called 'Blocked syllables' or 'Checked syllables'). Arabic, for example, only permits syllables beginning with a consonant. English and German both permit a good deal of consonant clustering both at the beginning and at the end of the syllable, but where consonant clusters are permitted the rules describing which phonemes are allowed to cluster at which point in the syllable differ for each language and constitute an important feature of the phonemic structure of a language. A phonological syllable is usually divided into three parts: onset – the initial sound or sounds occurring before the nucleus – the central part, coinciding with the phonetic peak of sonority, and the coda – the final sound or sounds occurring after the nucleus. The terms 'Marginal elements or slopes' are sometimes used to refer to onset and coda collectively. It follows from what was said above that not all syllables in all languages possess all three elements and the only compulsory element is the nucleus, the distribution of onset and coda depending on the phonological structure of a particular language.

2.5. The Duration (also called 'length')

Duration is feature of sounds that have distinctively extended duration compared with other sounds. It is the length of pronunciation of single phoneme

which can change the meaning. The length can be distinguished in written form by using different numbers of same vowels. For example meet x met, bee x be.

Duration is the length of time given to the articulation of a speech sound. Some sounds such as flaps are essentially momentary, but other types of sounds can vary in their duration, e.g. stops can be held as long as breath can be held, a trill can be prolonged as long as the air stream can be kept moving. Duration is a phonetic concept, but it is exploited phonologically in many languages where it it usually referred to as length, e.g. German uses the distinction between long and short vowels to distinguish *Rum* 'rum' from *Ruhm* 'glory'. In phonology a distinction must be made between long consonants (or long vowels) and double consonants (or double vowels). The duration of a long segment (consonant of vowel) is restricted to a single syllable, e.g. *l* in Italian *bello* 'beautiful' or [i:] in English *bead*, whereas the duration of a double segment (consonant or vowel) extends over two syllables, e.g. *l* in English *wholly*, or [ll] in one possible pronunciation of English *pitying*. [11]

2.6. Accent

Accent − the phonological feature of relatively high − stress − pitch or − duration. It is alternative term for diacritic mark; a variety of a language differing from the standard, particularly in pronunciation, e.g. in regional or social dialects or in the speech of foreigners.[12]

2.7. Juncture

Juncture is the relationship between two consecutive words or between two successive syllables in speech. It is a phonemic indication by which listener can distinguish between two otherwise equal sequences of sounds that have different meaning.

---

[11] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 74, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

[12] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 2, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

Juncture is a significant – intonation pattern marking the joining of one phrase of clause with another or with silence. Three types of terminal juncture are distinguished by most linguistics:

1) Sustained juncture – represented in transcription by an arrow [→]or a single line [/] and often called a single-bar juncture, which occurs when the pitch of the voice is sustained or rises very slightly, e.g. when words are in apposition as in *Mr Smith, / the gardener, / is out*.

2) Rising juncture, represented in transcription by a rising arrow [↗] or a double line [//] and often called a double-bar juncture, which occurs when the pitch of the voice rises before a pause, e.g in counting of listing items or at the end of questions such as *Are you going*? //.

3) Falling juncture, represented in transcription by falling arrow [↙] or a double cross [#] and often called double- cross juncture or fading juncture, which occurs when there is a drop in pitch as the voice fades into silence, e.g. ath the end of an utterance. [13]

2.8. Transition

Transition is a phonological feature relating to the way in which sounds are joined together. Two types of transition are distinguished by most linguists:

1) Open transition (open juncture) represented in transcription by means of [+] and often called plus juncture, which occurs at the word boundary and distinguishes, e.g. [ən + eim] *an aim* from [ə neim] *a name*. An open transition between speech sounds within a word, e.g. in *co-operative,* is called internal open juncture or internal hiatus.

2) Close transition (close juncture), represented in transcription by writing symbols in sequence without a space, which occurs in the normal unbroken sequence of a one sound to the next, e.g. /k/, /a/, /t/ > /kat/. Some linguists use the term juncture where others use the term transition, but this use of the term juncture must be distinguished from its use In the sense of terminal juncture.[14]

---

[13] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 121, ISBN 0 85334 534 1
[14] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 241, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

3. THE CZECH OVERVIEW

According to Erhart (we can find many more theories about the division of monemes, but I think Earhart's is the easiest acceptable) can we phonematical units split into two types: segmental and suprasegmental. He also defines the difference between phoneme and prosodeme. Thus the phonological system has units of four types:

Segmental phoneme	Segmental prosodeme
Suprasegmental phoneme	Suprasegmental prosodeme

"Phoneme is the basic unit of the audio system. It is minimal sound unit of language plan, used to create a distinction between meaning units of language – morphemes and words."[15]

3.1. Segmental phoneme (real, usual phonemes, sound)

Phoneme is the smallest unit of phonology. The concept of the phoneme arose out of the awareness that the precise phonetic realisation of a particular sound is not so important as its function within the sound system of a particular language. The phonetic realisation of a phoneme may vary: its phonetic variants are called allophones. Each language has its own arrangement of phonemes and allophones i.e. its own phonemic structure, and two sounds which may be variants of a single phoneme in one language may represent different phonemes in another. The English word *room* for example may be pronounced [rum] or [ru:m], in which case [u] and [u:] are allophones of the phoneme /u/, but in German [u] and [u:] are not interchangeable in the same environment without affecting the meaning: [rum] *Rum* 'rum' but [ru:m] *Ruhm* 'fame'. In German, therefore, [u] and [u:] are realisations of separate phonemes. The precise definition of the term phoneme has been the subject of much discussion among linguists and there are two major points of view. The first is the 'classification'

---

[15] ERHART Adolf. *Základy jazykovědy.* Státní pedagogické nakladatelství Praha1982, pg. 33

theory developed by D. Jones which considers the phoneme to be a group or family of related sounds, e.g. /p/ in English consisting of [p^h], [p], etc. or /u/ consisting of [u:], [u], etc. The second or 'distinctive feature' theory developed by N. S. Tubetzkoy and the Prague School considers a phoneme to be a bundle of distinctive features, e.g. /p/ in English is considered to be made up of bilabial + stop + voiceless (aspiration is therefore not distinctive and thus the allophones [p^h], [p] above are allowed for). The distinctive feature theory has gained impetus from the worked of R. Jakobson and M. Halle in acoustic phonetics. Whatever the many theoretical differences in the two approaches mentioned, the practical result can be seen to be the same: the analysis of the continuum of speech into significant segments, hence the alternative term Segmental phoneme or Linear phoneme. A phonemic analysis of this type is useful for reducing a language to writing by means of a phonemic alphabet (phonetic transcription) which uses one symbol per phoneme, ignoring allophones. Some features of the spoken language, however, such as pitch, stress, intonation, etc. cannot be satisfactorily reduced into segments; to accommodate these the original phoneme theory was adapted to include such features under the heading of suprasegmental phonemes. [16]

Allophone is a speech sound which is one of a number of variants of a phoneme. The occurrence of a particular allophone may be determined by its environment of it may be in free variation. An example of allophones determined by environment is the use of two different allophones of the same phoneme /l/, the so-called 'front' or 'clear' [l] as in *lamp* or *light* occurring before vowels, and the so-called 'back' or 'dark' [ɫ] as in old and table occurring before consonants and at the end of words. An example of allophones occurring in free variation is the Southern British English /r/ between vowels, as in very, which can occur either as a flap [ɾ] or fricative [ɹ]. [17]

Segmental phonemes are all phonemes which belong to register of particular language. This feature is specific of its quantity.

In the table is the quantity of phonemes in different languages.

---

[16] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 170, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

[17] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 10, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

Table 1

Language	Consonants	Vowels	Type of language
Hawaiian	8	5	62,5% - vowel
Finnish	14	8	57,1% - vowel
French	18	13	72,2% - vowel
Korean	19	10	52,6% - vowel
German	21	7	33,3% – vowel
Turkish	24	8	33,3% - vowel
English	24	9	37,5% - vowel
Czech	25	10	40% - vowel
Arabic	28	6	21,4% - consonant
Polish	33	7	21,2% - consonant
Russian	35	5	14,3% - consonant

Languages, which has more than 30 percent vowels of the total number of phonemes are named "vowel languages" and the other – where are less than 30 percent vowels of the total number of phonemes – are called "consonant languages". Czech, as seen, is the vowel language

"Segmental phoneme is the basic unit. We can depict them in by the diagram."[18]

---

[18] ERHART Adolf. *Základy jazykovědy.* Státní pedagogické nakladatelství Praha1982, pg. 38

SEGMENTAL PHONEMS

CONSONANTS   VOWELS
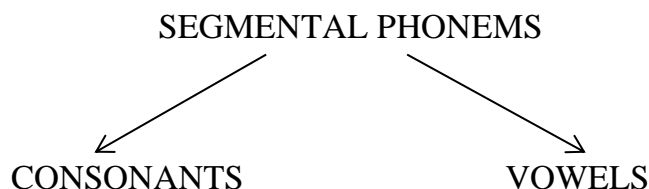
The consonants than we can split into:

- nasal

- fricative

- labial (bilabial, labiodental)

- coronal (dental, alveolar)

- dorsal (velar, uvular)

In some north-American languages (f.e. Seneca, Cherokee) exist just one nasal phoneme. Other languages – for example Hawaiian, Georgian, Latin or Turkish distinguish labial /m/ and non-labial /n/ nasal consonant. The third nasal phoneme is either palatal /ň/ or velar /N/. Palatal occur in Czech or French and velar in German or English.

For the phonological representation of Czech is here used a binary system. Binary theory is simplified theory of phonological contrasts.

3.2. Segmental prosodeme (glottal stop, word intonation, glottal catch, hard attack, in Czech "ráz")

Prosodeme is a distinctive prosodic feature, e.g. stress, intonation, juncture, often represented in conventional writing by punctuation.

Prosodeme analysis is a method of phonological analysis based on a theory originally put forward by J.R. Firth (1890-1960) and developed by other linguists since then. Some of the weaknesses of phonemic analysis based entirely on the division of the continuum of speech into segments, i.e. phonemes, had been recognised and partially overcome by the development of the concept of suprasegmental phonemes, but Firth insisted on the separation of the requirements of transcription from the requirements of understanding the structure of a phonological system. Prosodic analysis establishes two types of unit: Phonematic

unit and Prosody. Both of which refer to a phonetic feature or group of phonetic features of an utterance. Phonematic units are segments which are ordered serially, such as consonants and vowels. Prosodies refer to phonetic features which either extends over the whole or major part of a structure, e.g. intonation patterns, or are limited in position in such a way as to delimit or demarcate it, e.g. stress or juncture. At first sight phonematic units and prosodies seem to be equivalent to segmental and suprasegmental phonemes of the traditional phonemic analysis, but in a prosodic analysis, features which would be assigned to segmental phonemes in a phonemic analysis are sometimes assigned to prosodies, e.g. such features as palatalization, nasalisation or lip rounding. With its emphasis on the relevance of structures such as syllable, word, sentence, prosodic analysis attempts to link phonology and grammar. In a prosodic analysis different phonological systems can be set up for different structures of different places in structures (e.g features which can occur at the beginning of a syllable may not be the same as the features which can occur at the end of a syllable in a given language), and so prosodic analysis is also called 'Polysystematic phonology' or 'Multidimensional phonology' as opposed to the essentiality monosystematic nature of phonemic analysis, where a phonological system is set up for the language as a whole without reference to grammatical or lexical structure.[19]

We distinguish languages with fixed and free stress. It is the unitary opposite 1 x 0 (there just is or not). For example in Czech, where is the fixed stress, is this opposite rare cancelled, just in case before the word is the preposition, which takes stress to itself. This phenomenon can be word-forming. For example the Czech word *například.* Here is the word formed by preposition *na* and noun *příklad*. The preposition taken the stress so hardly, that new word was created. That means if the fixed stress will freed can be formed new word.

Segmental prosodeme is segmental because we can exactly localize it in the word. Most often is the stress on first or second syllable, or on third or fourth syllable. On the fifth or sixths syllable is exception.

For example words:

---

[19] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 187, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

| import | [imˈpoːt] - dovážet | [impoːt] - dovoz |
| record | [riˈkoːd] – zapsat, zaznamenat | [rekoːd] – záznam, nahrávka |

Segmental prosodeme is the word accent. In English is not syllable accent that cause the strong vocal reduction. For example the word *comfortable* where the vowels are not preserve and became mixed vowels. In Czech there are all vowels preserved.

3.3. Suprasegmental phoneme (tones)

Suprasegmental phonemes are units that contain the whole word or syllable, of course with distinctive meaningful functions like for example: four tonal Mandarin Chinese system. There are just 1 – 8 tones. We have about more than standard eight tonal languages no evidence for the present. Although they might exist, they are not presented commonly.

Distinctive feature is any feature which distinguishes one linguistic unit from another. The term is very common in phonology where phonemes may be defined in terms of distinctive features. Thus [d] and [t] in English are both alveolar sops but are distinguished by the feature of voice which is present in [d] but lacking in [t]. In Prague School phonology, developed to a large extent by N. Trubetzkoy, phonemes are defined as bundles of distinctive features, e.g. /d/ is alveolar + stop + voice. In the phonological theories of the 1950s, particularly in the work of R. Jakobson and M. Halle, distinctive features are based on acoustic criteria which can be read from a spectrogram. There are three classes of this type of distinctive feature:

1) Sonority features including such contrasts as vocalic versus non-vocalic, consonantal versus non-consonantal, nasal versus oral, compact versus diffuse, abrupt versus continuant, strident versus mellow, checked versus unchecked, voice versus voiceless.

2) Protensity features with the contrast tense versus lax

3) Tonality features with the contrasts grave versus acute, flat versus plain (non-flat), sharp versus non-sharp. In more recent work on generative phonology, particularly by N. Chomsky and M. Halle, these features have been extensively modified and placed into categories such as Major class features relating to such features as sonorant versus non-sonorant, vocalic; Cavity features relating to the shape of the oral cavity and the point of articulation with such features as coronal versus non-coronal, anterior versus non-anterior, etc.; Manner of articulation features such as continuant versus non-continuant, tense versus lax; Source features such as voice versus voiceless, strident versus mellow, and prosodic features such as stress, pitch, etc. [20]

3.4. Suprasegmental prosodeme (word intonation, stress)

The sources are different in placing word stress, someone can call it segmental quantity, in Erharts concept we can find it as suprasegmental units. It is about meaning of position this unit in word.

Suprasegmental prosodeme equals or covers the whole word and it is expressed in the opposition "existence x non-existence" (logically 1 x 0). Intonation covers the whole word as in Swedish, Norwegian, the Bolted languages and others.

Example from Swedish:

"BUREN"   [buren] x [buren]   přinesený, donesený x ta klec

"STEGEN"   [stegen] x [stegen]   vyzdvihnutý, vystouplý x ty schody

Under the expression Suprasegmental prosodeme we can understand the stress (accent) or word intonation. It can highlight some of the segmental units of

---

lower degree. This function is used to structure the utterance (from logical, morphological and rhythmical point of view).

Bearer of the stress can be:

- word as a part of sentence – sentence stress
- morpheme as a constituent of compound – word stress
- syllable as a part of word – word stress
- phone as a part of syllable – syllable stress
- phone as a part of syllable top – syllable stress[21]

3.4.1. The sentence stress

It can also be called as a logical stress. Stress is put on the word in sentence, in which the speaker wants give emphasis. For the speaker is this word the core of sentence, he must it highlight. This function may have any part of speech.

3.4.2. The word stress

The word stress emphasizes the syllables which constitute a part of word. We can define the fixed and the free stress.

3.4.3. The syllable stress

In accordance with A. Erhart we can define a syllable from two points of view. From phonetic point of view we can say that syllable is a regular changing of segments of different sonority. We have long segments – which are vowels and they have longer duration. Then there are short segments – with shorter duration – consonants. By the spoken form of the language there is important to arrange for audience's attention. For this purpose is suitable to form the speech of the same quantity of long and short segments. It is more comfortable to the

---

[21] ERHART Adolf. *Základy jazykovědy.* Státní pedagogické nakladatelství Praha1982, pg. 55

listener but for the speaker too. Long segments give speech a volume but informative value of both segments is the same.

From phonological point of view we can a syllable define as a minimal syntagmatic unit, functioned as a bearer of suprasegmental units.

This stress is crucial mainly in South-eastern Asia languages.

3.5. Historical overview

Suprasegmental languages (Chinese, Vietnamese, Cantonese etc.) have the tonal oppositions. These tones have preserved throughout the history. While the so called suprasegmental intonational languages (Scandinavian, Baltic etc.) have preserved their suprasegmental prosodemic functions or not. As typical example we can introduce the Scandinavian family, where some members Swedish and Norwegian have fully preserved their suprasegmental prosodemic structure, in Danish the prosodeme had been changed into prosodemic segmental opposition. In Icelandic and Faroese that had been lost completely. In conclusion concerning the opposition between suprasegmental phonemes and prosodemes we can mention the historical aspect of real existence of prosodemy in languages like Swedish, Norwegian it is substitutional change into the segmental prosodemic opposition stress x zero in modern Danish or it is total destruction in Icelandic and Faroese. The reason why this has happened is still unclear and very probably it will never be find.

4. PRAGUE LINGUISTIC CIRCLE

Prague School is a group of linguists associated with the Linguistic Circle of Prague in the late 1920s. Influenced by the ideas of Swiss and Russian linguists, these scholars stressed the need for a functional approach to linguistic analysis, regarding language as a system of mutually related units. At the field of phonology, great progress was made by defining the phoneme in opposition to other phonemes in terms of distinctive features, e.g. /d/ as 'alveolar' + 'stop' + 'voice'. Phonological units are realised differently in different positions (neutralisation), and in connected speech the grammatical function of sound unit is

important, e.g. as boundary signals. The Praguists also stressed the extralinguistic features of language, taking into account the social background of the speaker, the subject matter that is communicated, the differences between the written and the spoken mode and many others. Synchronic studies of the contemporary forms of language had priority over diachronic ones, and in historical-comparative works the emphasis shifted from genetic affiliations to geographical and dialect affinities (e.g. language alliances in the Balkan area). After World War II the Prague Linguistic Circle was revived, and research concentrated on English and Slavonic linguistics. [22]

The Prague Linguistic Circle or Prague school (Czech: Pražský lingvistický kroužek) was informally established in 6. October 1926 and officially in 1930. There were just 5 founding members of this linguistics group: V. Mathesius (see appendix 1), B. Havránek, R. Jakobson, Jan Rypka and B. Trnka. It was an influential group of literary critics and linguists who came with the common desire to create a new approach to linguistics. They made up a new method of studying the function of speech sounds. It is based on that „the Prague Circle sees language as a synchronic and dynamic system. The functionality of elements of language and the importance of its social function have been key aspects of its research program. "[23]

The first president of this group was Vilém Mathesius (August 3, 1882 – April 12, 1945). He lived and worked in Prague and became in 1912 a first professor of anglistics at Karlo-Ferdinandova Univerzita v Praze. He graduate from Germanic and romance studies at Faculty of Arts of the University of Prague. He laid the foundations of the functional sentence perspective (FSP). His book – *Obsahový rozbor současné angličtiny na základě obecně lingvistickém* is an introduction to studying of english. It was translated to english by Libuše Dušková (January 27, 1930) – *A Functional Analysis of Present Day English on a General Linguistic Basis*.

---

[22] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 181, ISBN 0 85334 534 1
[23] Avaliable from: http://www.newworldencyclopedia.org/entry/Prague_Linguistic_Circle [2014-3-6]

4.1. FSP

Functional sentence perspective (Czech: aktuální členění větné) is the study of word order in sentence. According to Mathesius every sentence has two main elements:

1) The theme – some new information

2) The rheme – something what was already said

Theme and Rheme constituents of a sentence similar to those of topic and comment. The theme is the first element in the sentence and states what is being talked about, thus giving the starting point for the information given in the remainder of the sentence. Whereas topic and comment are restricted to clause and sentence structure, theme and rheme are more concerned with information structure. [24]

Depending on this we can have sentences with subjective order (where the rheme is on the first place) and objective order (where the theme is on the first place).

---

[24] HARTMANN R. R. K, STORK F. C.. *Dictionary of language and linguistics*. Applied science published Ltd. Reprinted 1973, pg. 237, ISBN 0 85334 534 1

5. ENGLISH VARIETIES

The English language is according to the World Almanac second most often used language in the world (in 2005 514 million people) as far as native speaker are considered, while in the intonational context it is the dominating number one. So it is obvious that English is used in many countries. Originally it was spoken only in England and south-eastern Scotland. Than it was exported in the mediaeval times in southern Ireland, in 17th and 18th century in North America and in northern areas of Ireland, in 18th and 19th century in South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. Therefore we have many difference pronunciations and variations of English. We have 'English' types of English (England, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa and Welsh) and 'American' types of English (North America and Canada).

5.1 British English

English is a West Germanic language and was brought to England by Germanic settlers. In British English there are dialects too, as in other areas, according to local organization. We have southern English dialects, West Country dialects, East and West Midlands English, and Northern English. For his research is determinant Received Pronunciation mentioned below and in whole thesis too.

5.1.1. The Received Pronunciation vowel system

Table 2

/ɪ/	bid, very, mirror, wanted, horses, honest
/ɛ/	bed, merry
/æ/	bad, marry
/ɒ/	pot, long, cough, horrid
/ʌ/	putt, hurry
/ʊ/	put
/iː/	bee
/ei/	bay
/ai/	buy
/ɔi/	boy
/uː/	boot
/ou/	boat
/ɑu/	bout
/ɪə/	peer, idea
/ɛə/	pair, Mary
/ʊə/	poor
/ɔə/	pore
/ɔː/	paw, port, talk boring
/ɑː/	bard, path, dance, half, banana, father, calm
/ɛː/	bird, furry
/ə/	about, sofa, butter
/aiə/	fire
/ɑuə/	tower[25]

5.2 American English

English has been developing in US and Canada due to British colonization in 17th century its relatively special way forming the present-day status of

[25] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg 10, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

American and Canadian English. In Australian and New Zealand due to the lack of foreign language influence English has preserved its British face.

In Australia the English colonists tried hard to wipe out the native aboriginal languages and in New Zealand the Maori language had never been a real competitor.

English is in United States due to British colonization. The first settlers arrived in 17th century and since then is English influenced to countries in United States. English is the official language of United States courts.

The American English is used by educated speakers in the United States of America and Canada. The pronunciation is fairly different from the EngEng and has no standard pronunciation. It is an accent "employed by some educated white middle-class speakers from the central east-coast region." [26]

---

[26] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg 32, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

5.2.1. American Pronunciation

Table 3

/ɪ/	bid, mirror, wanted
/ɛ/	bed, merry
/æ/	bad, marry, path, dance, half, banana
/ɑ/	pot, bard*, father, calm, horrid
/ʌ/	putt*, hurry
/ʊ/	put
/i/	bee, very, peer*
/ei/	bay, pair, Mary
/ai/	buy, fire, night, ride
/ɔi/	boy
/u/	boot, tour
/ou/	boat
/ɑu/	bout, loud, tower
/ɔ/	paw, port, talk, boring, long, pore
/ə/	about, sofa, bird, furry, butter[27]

*bard – poet

*putt – golf strike into the hole

*peer – look carefully

5.2.2. Phonological difference

/i/ rather than /ɪ/ in v*ery*

The Received Pronunciation's vowels /ɒ/, /æ/ and /ɒ:/ correspond in American English only to /ɑ/ and /æ/. This causes difference in vowel distribution in many words and so different pronunciation by these words.

Table 4

Word	English pronunciation	American Pronunciation
aunt	ɑ:nt	ænt
barber	ˈbɑ:b ə	ˈbɑ:rb ᵊr
benchmark	ˈbentʃ mɑ:k	ˈbentʃ mɑ:rk
born	bɔ:n	bɔrn
caff è	ˈkæf eI	kæ ˈfeI
caramel	ˈkær ə mel	ˈkær əm ᵊl
cartel	kɑ: ˈtel	kɑ:r ˈtel
cemetery	ˈsem ətri	ˈsem ə teri
death-watch	ˈdeθ wɒtʃ	ˈdeeθ wɑ:tʃ
deciduous	di ˈsId ju ‿əs	dI ˈsIdʒ u ‿əs
deckchair	ˈdek tʃeə	ˈdek tʃer
demijohn	ˈdem i dʒɒn	ˈdem i dʒɑ:n
democracy	di ˈmɒk rəsi	di ˈmɑ:k rəsi
demonstrable	di ˈmɒnᵗs trəb ᵊl	dI ˈmɑ:nᵗs trəb ᵊl
ecological	ˌi:k ə ˈlɒdʒ Ik ᵊl	ˌi:k ə ˈlɑ:dʒ Ik ᵊl
electronic	ˌel ek ˈtrɒn Ik	I ˌlek ˈtrɑ:n Ik
February	ˈfeb ru ‿ər i	ˈfeb ju er i
forest	ˈfɒr Ist	ˈfɔ:r əst

global	ˈɡləʊb ᵊl	ˈɡloʊb ᵊl
graph	ɡrɑːf	ɡræf
harass	ˈhær əs	hə ˈræs
hero	ˈhɪər əʊ	ˈhiː roʊ
immaturity	ˌɪm ə ˈtjʊər et i	ˌɪm ə ˈtʊr eʈ i

5.3. Scottish English

English has been spoken in the south-east of Scotland for as long as it has been spoken in England. In the south-west of Scotland it dates from the middle Ages. In the Highlands and Islands of northern and western Scotland, English has been spoken for only 200 years or so, and indeed Gaelic is still the native language of several tens of thousands of speakers from these areas.[28]

The standardized form of Scottish varieties is called Scots and has been used until the Scottish Reformation in 1560. Since then this variety of Scottish has been used by writers and less and less often by everyday speakers. It was popularized by Robert Burns – Scottish poet and lyrics.

5.3.1. Robert Burns

Robert Burns (25 January 1759 – 21 July 1796) in Scotland also known as The Bard is the national poet and is considered as a pioneer of the Romantic Movement. Because of his most famous piece of work – *Address to a Haggis* is in Scotland to this day celebrated a "Burns Night". "Burns Night" is observed 25 January. The whole family meets for dinner and by the song of bagpipes is serve up the Haggis. Robert Burns was in 2009 named as a "The Greatest Scot" and until now he inspired many of writers to write by Scots. (See appendix 2)

---

[28] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg82, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

Educated Scottish write and speak from grammatical point of view a form of Standard English like in England, but their accent is Scottish – which is different from English accent. "Especially in rural areas still resemble Scots in many respects and are radically different from most other varieties used in the English-speaking world." [29]

5.3.2. Scottish Pronunciation

Scottish pronunciation clearly shows the Celtic substrate influence. The substrate influence is more evident in Scottish English rather than in Irish English. In Scotland it even led to the creation of the Scots language in the 17th century. Nothing of that kind is at hand in Ireland.

Typical Scottish English pronunciation:

[29] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg 82, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

Table 5

/i/	bee,peer
/e/	bay,pair
/ɛ/	bed, merry, fern
/ɪ/	bid, bird
/ʌ/	putt, hurry, fur
/a/	bad, marry, bard, path, father, calm
/u/	put, boot, poor
/o/	boat
/ɔ/	pot, long, coughs, fork, paw
/ai/	buy
/au/	bout
/ɔi/	boy

5.3.3. Differences between Received Pronunciation and Scottish English

The most obvious difference from other dialects is the pronunciation of /r/. In Received Pronunciation we have /Iə/, /ɛə/, / Ʊə/ and /ɜ:/.

Table 6

beer	/bir/
bear	/ber/
fern	/fɛrn/
bird	/bIrd/
hurt	/hʌrt/
bard	/bard/
moor	/mur/
roar	/ror/
pork	/pɔrk/

30

In Scottish English there is not distinction between /æ/ and /a:/ , there is just /a/ for vowel of *bad, marry, bard, path, father, calm.* For this reason are words *Pam* and *palm (/pam/)* homonyms.

Distinction between /Ʊ/ and /u:/ does not exist too, there is just /u/ for vowel of *put, boot, poor.* Here can be homonyms for example words pool and pull (/pul/).

5.3.4. Scottish English Vocabulary

The Scottish vocabulary is very different form Standard English, but differs much less in its vocabulary from other varieties of English. Here are some examples of Scottish slang too. I added this chapter here because of interestingness of some word differences and to show, how can sometimes be hard to understand English in just other variety.

Table 7

Scottish English	English English
bairn	baby
barry	splendid
belter	something good
bevvy, dram*	beverage, dring
boggin	disgusting
bonnie	nice, pretty
crabit	crabby, grumpy
dour	never smiles, glum
druth	thirsty
fusty	mouldy
greeting	crying
gurne	sulk
guttered	drunk
houghin	revolting

manky	filthy
messages	groceries
pus	mouth
schoogle	wobbly
scran	food
shunky	toilet
sleekit	sly, cunning
wee	little
wido	obnoxious, arrogant
ya dancer	luck

*Dram is usually used with reference to whisky. [31]

5.4. Irish English

English is in Ireland spoken since 17th century. Irish can be also called Gaelic and it is the first official language of the Republic of Ireland. Now is Irish spoken by few of inhabitants, especially in rural areas of the south-west, west and north-west of Ireland. Nevertheless Irish is still taught in schools.

5.4.1. Differences between Received Pronunciation and Irish English

Typical Irish English pronunciation

[31] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg 88, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

Table 8

/ɪ/	[ɪ]	bid
/ɛ/	[ɛ]	bed
/æ/	[a]	bad
/ɒ/	[ɑ]	pot
/ʌ/	[ɔ⊣]	putt, nurse
/ʊ/	[ʊ]	put
/i:/	[i:]	bee, peer, very
/ei/	[e:]	bay, pair
/ai/	[ɜɪ]	buy
/ɔi/	[ɔɪ]	boy
/u:/	[ʉ:]	boot, tour
/ou/	[o:]	boat, hoarse
/ɑu/	[ɜʉ]	bout
/ɑ:/	[a:]	path, calm, bard
/ɔ:/	[ɑ:]	paw, talk, port
/ə/	[ə]	sofa, wanted, horses

32

The consonant /r/ is always pronounced. English English has two varieties of pronunciation of /l/ - here can be front *(lovely, lemon)* or back *(cattle, bottle)*, but in Irish English there is only one variety – all /l/ are front. /ou/ is often pronounced by /ɔ:/ in words *hoarse, mourning*.

5.4.2. Irish English vocabulary

As in chapter above, I show some examples of differences in vocabulary only to comparing these varieties. Some words are borrowing from Irish and create slang words.

Table 9

Irish English	English English
auld wan	girlfriend/boyfriend
biy	boy
bold	naughty
cheers	thanks
delph	crockery
gaff	house
gowl	ugly
jacks/jax	toilet
mint	savage
shifting/shift	kissing/kiss
yoke	thing

6. STANDARTIZATION

English has two standards which are taught in every school all over the world. It is the Britain type of English and American. Both varieties are commonly used in media. In television (there are news, commercials and films) and in radio broadcasts (there are news and commercials too). In this way is English spread to awareness mainly by listeners with foreign mother language. People who study or learn English as a foreign language can hear from TV and radio just the standard versions of English and because of that is number of Received Pronunciation and General American speakers still increasing.

6.1. Received Pronunciation

Standard English has two main varieties. First of all, the 'English' English (hereinafter EngEng) is used in writing and spoken by 'educated' speakers of the language. It is referring to as 'British English'. This is normally used in England, Wales, Scotland, Northern Ireland, The Republic of Ireland, New Zealand and South Africa. This variety can be also called as a 'Received Pronunciation Accent', "which speaks only 3 to 5 per cent of the population of England".[33] Received Pronunciation is defined in the Concrise Oxford English Dictionary as "the standard accent of English as spoken in the south of England". This is a social accent, not the regional[34]. That means origin of that is man-made accent, which is used by BBC, the Public Schools in England and by upper-middle and upper classes in England. "It is considered a prestigious accent in the whole of the British Isles and British Commonwealth, but it is for the most part an accent associated only with England."*[35]*

When somebody is using Received Pronunciation, is not clear in which area of Britain they live. This has an advantage – people understand each other in the

---

[33] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg2, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7
[34] We can also say class dialect because is taught in schools all over the world.
[35] TRUDGILL Peter, HANNAH Jean. *International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English.* Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, second edition 1985, pg 2, ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

whole area, and speakers are identified by the accent (jazykové zabarvení) only. On the other hand this pronunciation has disadvantages, too. As mentioned above – it is used only by 3 to 5 per cent of the population. That means it is difficult for students arriving in England to understand other groups of people who do not use Received Pronunciation, because they had been studying only this norm of English. Not only students have problems with understanding, but people from other regions too.

The term 'Received Pronunciation' is not the only which is used. This term is known due to Daniel Jones (1881 – 1967). He was British phonetician and studied also in Germany where he speaks about phonetics for the first time. He was member of the International Phonetic Association. This term was used in his book *Pronunciation of English* from year 1909 and since then was spread in to the general awareness. After that he transcribed all words of Received Pronunciation in *English Pronouncing Dictionary*. This dictionary is still reedited. There are two more main dictionaries, used to transcription: *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* and *Oxford Dictionary of Pronunciation for Current English*.

However in these days is this term seen to be too old-fashioned, curious or on top of that archaic. Because of that is this term gradually replaced by formulation 'BBC English'.

6.2. General American

General American, also called Network American English or Standard American English is used by people in United States, mainly in North-East and South and in Canada too. That is very large area, thus is obvious, that with General American is spoken more than with Received Pronunciation (in percentage in proportion of population). That shows, that General American is less formal than Received Pronunciation and is not only used by the high-class.

7. MEANING DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH ENGLISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

Differences between EngEng and AmEng are sometimes marginal. It is necessary to learn these words to avoid the misunderstanding. We can split the differences in vocabulary into five categories: Same word, different meaning; Same word, additional meaning in one variety; Same word, difference in style, connotation, frequency of use; Same concept or item, different word; Words that differ in particular semantic spheres. [36]

I show here just the most interesting and significant differences.

Table 10

Word	English meaning	American meaning
fag	cigarette	homosexual
joint	roast beef	marihuana
table	set discuss on the desk	set aside
pants	underpants	trousers

---

8. CONCLUSION

The aim of my thesis was to describe and explain main terms related to the suprasegmental units. I used mostly English written sources and because of that was quite hard to write about the Czech overview. The Czech tradition shows, how suprasegmental units have fundamentally different function in comparison with other languages as for example Mandarin Chinese. Suprasegmental units cannot have meaning-changing function in Czech; we can just distinguish types of sentences by the suprasegmentals.

The thesis consist of four main parts: Describing all useful terms, system in Czech, history of suprasegmentalism and differences among English varieties. Research revealed what I mentioned in introduction – Czech suprasegmentals unlike English have not meaning-changing function. In English have, because of that is for foreigners perceive these subtle differences. That is why I think it is valuable for students who want to study English thoroughly and want to pronounce all words in correct way.

I demonstrated here also the differences between English English and American English. The differences in pronunciation, also in vocabulary are sometimes cardinal. For me was the most surprising the meaning difference word *joint*. The meanings are so distinct and one who do not know English very well can easily make a mistake.

My research was based on reading pronunciation dictionaries and find differences in pronunciation between English English and American English. I was also watching videos where people spoke with different accents and I noticed also differences in vocabulary.

I think this work will be useful considering to the future researches. This topic can be extended either as direct issues, so subsequent issue.

9. BIBLIOGRAPHY

ADÁMKOVÁ L., GOLČÁKOVÁ B., MIŠTEROVÁ I., POTMĚŠILOVÁ H. a kol.: Janua linguarum reserata. Plzeň : Západočeská univerzita v Plzni, 2009. ISBN 978-80-7043-886-2

CRYSTAL, D.: The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language. Cambrdige : Cabridge university press, 2003. ISBN 9780521530330

ERHART, A.: Základy jazykovědy. Praha : Státní pedagogické nakladatelství n. p. 1984. ISBN 14-397-84

FORREST, R. A. D.: The Chinese language. London : Faber and Faber, 1973. ISBN 0 571 04815 3

HARTMANN R. R. K., STORK F. C.: Dictionary of language and linguistics. London : Applied science publishers Ltd, 1973. ISBN 0 85334 534 1

KOLEKTIV AUTORŮ: Anglisko-český, česko-anglický slovník. Praha : FIN Publishing, 2006. ISBN 80-86002-79-9

KOLEKTIV AUTORŮ: Němecsko-český, česko-německý slovník. Praha : FIN Publishing, 2005. ISBN 80-86002-74-8

TRUDGILL P., HANNAH J.: International English: A Guide to Varieties of Standard English. Second edition. England : Edward Arnold (Publishers) Ltd, 1985. ISBN 0-7131-6441-7

VOREL, R.: Lexikologie angličtiny v 77 otázkách a odpovědích. Plzeň : Aleš Čeněk, 2006. ISBN 80-86898-67-9

WELLS, J. C.: Longman Pronunciation Dictionary. England : Pearson Education Limited, 2008 . ISBN9781405881173

INTERNET SOURCES

Varieties of English [online] [cit. 2014-04-23] Available at WWW <https://www.uni-due.de/SVE/VARS_Intro.htm>

Wikipedia – the free encyclopedia [online] [cit. 2014-04-15] Available at: WWW <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Irish_language>

Slideshare [online] [cit. 2014-04-15] Available at WWW <http://www.slideshare.net/nicolaswankie/50-weird-scottish-words>

YouTube [online] [cit. 2014-04-15] Available at WWW <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6JXbdkM6lUg>

YouTube [online] [cit. 2014-04-15] Available at WWW <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_FSWlfcg6oA>

YouTube [online] [cit. 2014-04-15] Available at WWW <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4PxYftlhXbg>

Wikipedia – the free encyclopedia [online] [cit. 2014-04-14] Available at: WWW < http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Robert_Burns>

University of deleware [online] [cit. 2014-04-01] Available at: WWW <http://udel.edu/~heinz/classes/2013/607/materials/readings/Hyman-Phonological-Theory-and-Analysis/6-Suprasegmental%20Phonology%20pp186-238.pdf>

Dicitionary.com [online] [cit. 2014-04-02] Available at: WWW <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/culminative>

10. ABSTRACT

Suprasegmental units as stress or intonation plays big role in English language. It is important to pay attention to these features by studying English. There are plenty words in English, where the suprasegmentals can change meaning and that is why we have to learn these subtle differences. These differences are not so heavy as for example in Mandarin Chinese, where we have four meanings for one word, which we distinguish by different pronunciation and we use for that suprasegmental units like stress and intonation. In Czech suprasegmentals are not meaning-changing, but plays its own role to. We can distinguish by them type of sentences.

11. RESUME

Suprasegmentální jednotky, jako jsou akcent nebo intonace, hrají v anglickém jazyce velkou roli. Při studiu angličtiny je důležité věnovat těmto znakům pozornost. V angličtině je mnoho slov, u kterých můžou suprasegmentální jednotky měnit význam, a proto bychom se měli naučit rozlišovat tyto jemné rozdíly ve výslovnosti. Tyto rozdíly ale nejsou tak velké jako například v mandarínské čínštině, kde máme čtyři významy pro jedno slovo, které rozlišujeme pomocí různé výslovnosti a používáme při tom suprasegmentální jednotky akcent a intonaci. V češtině suprasegmentální jednotky význam nemění, ale určitou roli hrají. Pomocí nich můžeme rozlišovat různé typy vět.
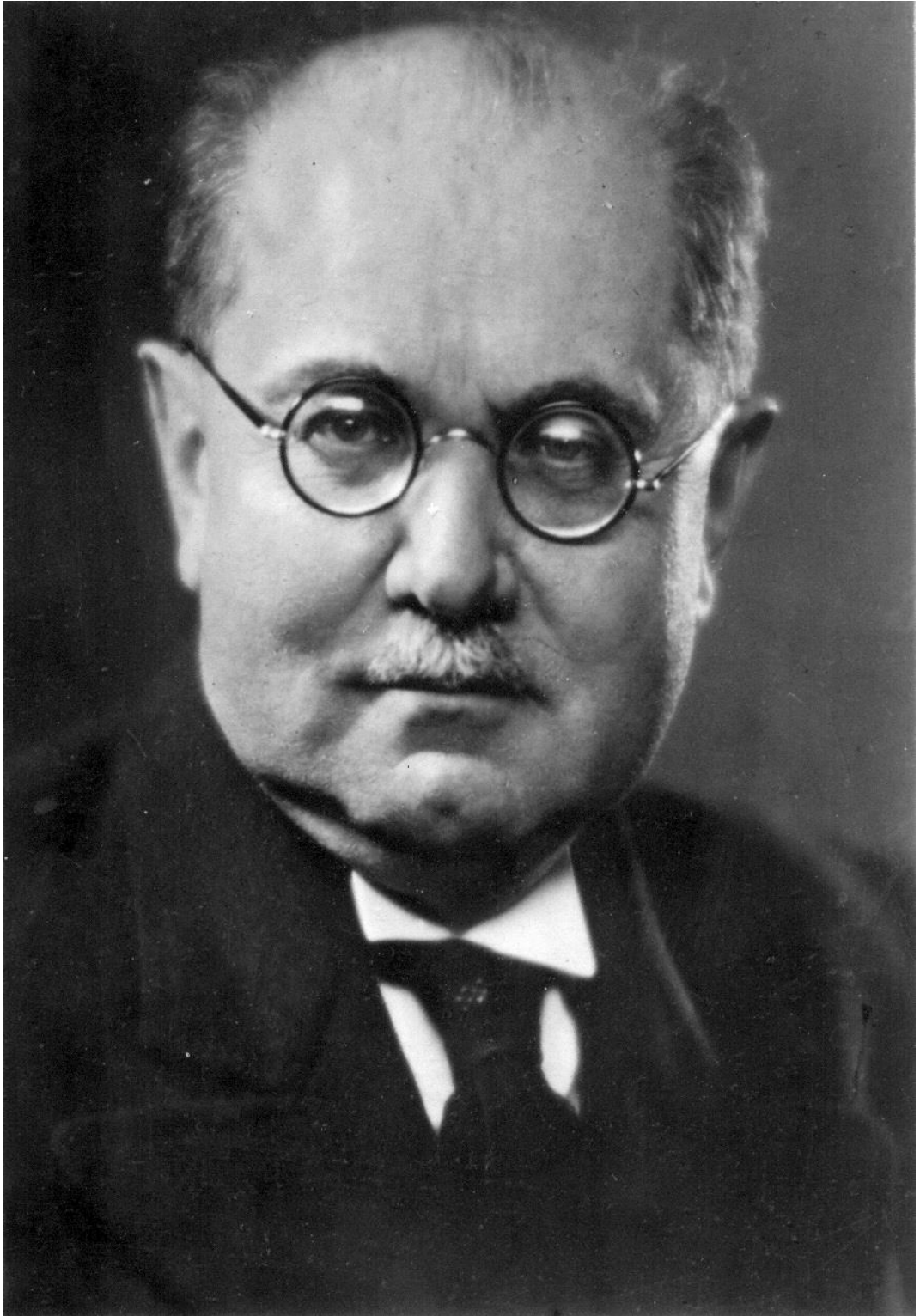
12. APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Vilém Mathesius picture
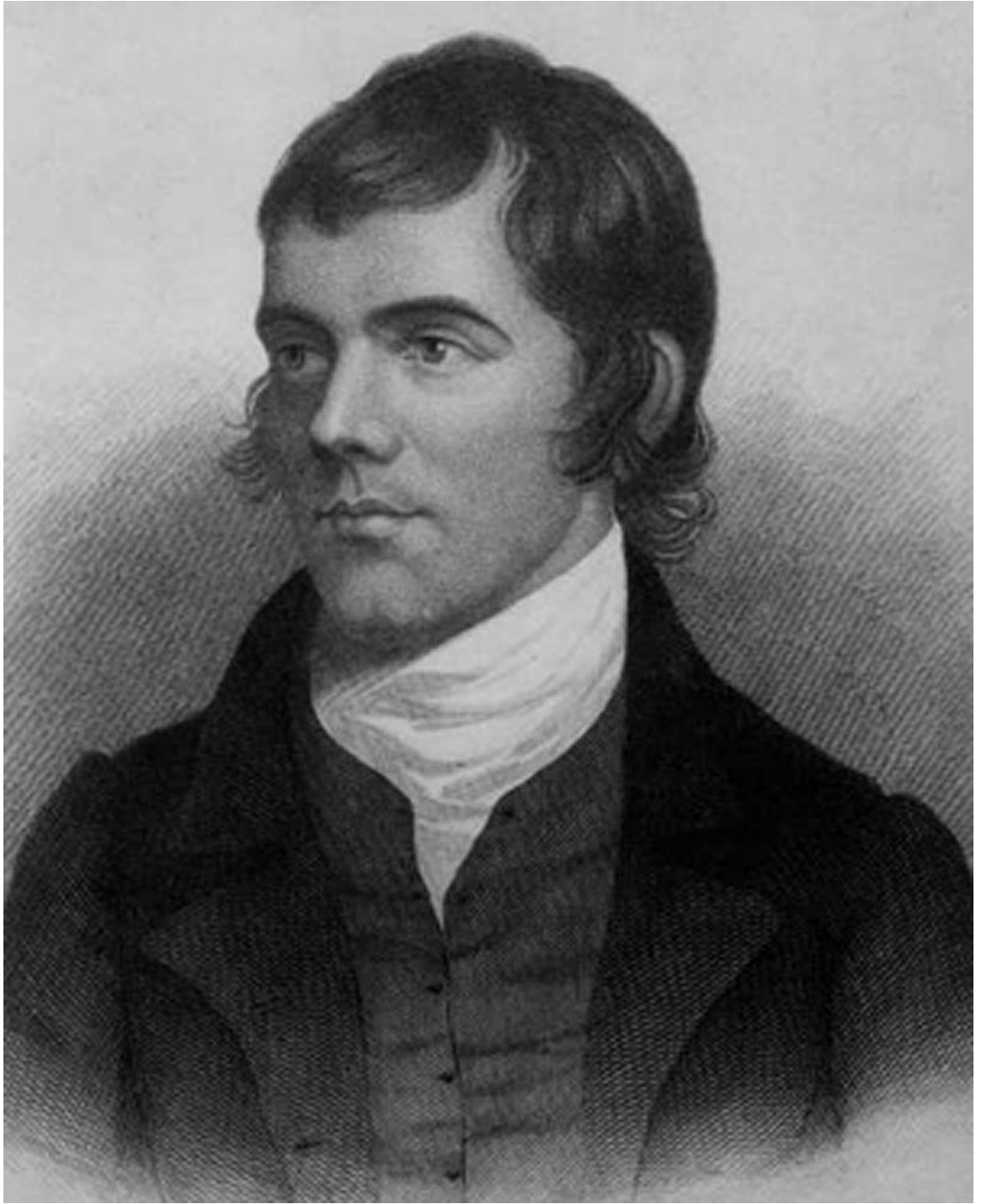
Forum – časopis Univerzity Karlovy [online] [2014-4-24] Available at WWW <http://iforum.cuni.cz/IFORUM-12982.html>, by prof. PhDr. Aleš Klégr

Appendix 2: Robert Burns picture

Los Angeles – I 'm yours [online] [2014-4-24] Available at WWW <http://www.laimyours.com/8553/drinking-on-robert-burns-day/>, by Kyle Fitzpatrick

Appendix 1

Appendix 2