



# THE LINGUISTICS ENCYCLOPEDIA

EDITED BY
KIRSTEN MALMKJÆR

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North American Consultant Editor James M. Anderson



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## **Preface**

You are reading something, or listening to a lecture, or taking part in a conversation about language. You notice an unfamiliar term or realize that you don't know enough about what is being said to understand. At this point, you should seek out this encyclopedia. Strategies for the use of encyclopedias differ, but this one is designed to allow you to proceed in one of three ways:

- 1 You can consult the Index where you will find the term or subject in question appearing in its alphabetically determined place, with a page reference, or several, which will tell you where in the main body of the work it is defined, described and/or discussed.
- 2 If you are looking for a major field of linguistic study, you can consult the Subject List where the entries and other major subjects are listed in alphabetical order.
- 3 You can simply dive into the body of the work.

The entries are designed to be informative and easy of access. They do not provide as much information as you will find in a full book on any given topic, but they contain sufficient information to enable you to understand the basics, and to decide whether you need more. They end by listing some suggestions for further reading. The entries draw on many more works than those listed as further reading. These are mentioned in the text by author and year of publication, and a full reference can be found in the Bibliography at the end of the book.

Since linguistics does not come neatly divided into completely autonomous areas, almost all the entries contain cross-references to other entries. In spite of their interconnectedness, entries are kept separate for reasons of speed of reference and because it is usually possible to draw a line between the areas with which they deal. There is a division of labour within linguistics as within all other disciplines, and within its subdisciplines. In some cases, this division has been so prolific that it is hardly possible to cover all the sub-areas in one entry. For example, sociolinguistics is now such a wide field that I thought it best to treat its sub-areas separately. Similarly, there are so many varieties of syntactic theory, that a single entry on 'grammar' or 'syntax' seemed more likely to confuse than enlighten. Other areas, such as historical linguistics and psycholinguistics still seem sufficiently unified to be manageable as one.

This volume demonstrates the many-faceted face of linguistics. Its history begins longer ago than we know, along with its very subject matter, and will continue for as long as that subject matter remains. Having language is probably concomitant with wondering about language, and so, if there is one thing that sets linguistics apart from other disciplines, it is the fact that its subject matter must be used in the description. There is no metalanguage for language that is not translatable into language, and a metalanguage is, in any case, also a language.

According to some, language is literally all that there is. According to others, it reflects, more or less adequately, what there is. What seems certain is that we use it prolifically in creating and changing our momentary values and that in seeking to understand language, we are seeking to understand the cornerstone of the human mentality.

Kirsten Malmkjær Cambridge, 1991

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K.M.

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# Acoustic phonetics

Acoustic phonetics deals with the properties of sound as represented in variations of air pressure. A sound, whether its source is articulation of a word or an exploding cannon ball, disturbs the surrounding air molecules at equilibrium, much as a shove by a person in a crowded bus disturbs the standing passengers. The sensation of these air pressure variations as picked up by our hearing mechanisms and decoded in the brain constitutes what we call sound (see also AUDITORY PHONETICS). The question whether there was a sound when a tree fell in a jungle is therefore a moot one; there definitely were airmolecule variations generated by the fall of the tree, but unless there was an ear to register them, there was no sound.

The analogy between air molecules and bus passengers above is rather misleading, since the movements of the molecules are rapid and regular. Rapid in the sense that they oscillate at the rate of hundreds and thousands of times per second, and regular in the sense that the oscillation takes the form of a swing or a pendulum. That is, a disturbed air molecule oscillates much as a pushed pendulum swings back and forth.

Let us now compare air molecules to a pendulum. Due to gravity, a pushed pendulum will stop after travelling a certain distance, depending on the force of the push; will then begin to return to the original rest position, but instead of stopping

at this position, will pass it to the opposite direction due to inertia; will stop after travelling about the same distance as the initial displacement; again will try to return to the initial rest position; but will again pass this point to the other direction, etc., until the original energy completely dissipates and the pendulum comes to a full stop.

Imagine now that attached at the end of the pendulum is a pencil and that a strip of paper in contact with the pencil is being pulled at a uniform speed. One can imagine that the pendulum will draw a wavy line on the paper, a line that is very regular in its ups and downs. If we disregard for the moment the effect of gravity, each cycle, one complete back and forth movement of the pendulum, would be exactly the same as the next cycle. Now if we plot the position of the pendulum, the distance of displacement from the original rest position, against time, then we will have Figure 1, in which the y-ordinate represents the distance of displacement and the x-abscissa the time, both units representing arbitrary units. Since a wave form such as the one given in Figure 1 is generatable with the sine function in trigonometry, it is called a sine wave or a sinusoidal wave. Such a wave can tell us several things:

First, the shorter the time of duration of a cycle, the greater (the more frequent) the number

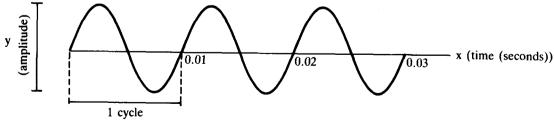


Figure 1 A sine wave whose cycle is one-hundredth of a second, thus having the frequency of 100 Hz

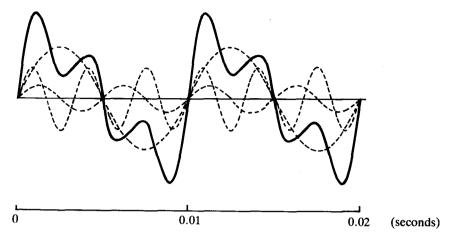


Figure 2 A complex wave formed with a combination of 100 Hz, 200 Hz, and 300 Hz component waves

of such cycles in a given unit of time. For example, a cycle having the duration of one hundredth of a second would have a frequency of 100 cycles per second (cps). This unit is now represented as Hz (named after a German physicist, Heinrich Hertz, 1857–94). A male speaking voice has on average 100–50 Hz, while a woman's voice is twice as high. The note A above the middle C is fixed at 440 Hz.

Secondly, since the y-axis represents the distance of displacement of a pendulum from the rest position, the higher the peak of the wave, the greater the displacement. This is called **amplitude**, and translates into the degree of loudness of a sound. The unit here is **dB** (decibel, in honour of Alexander Graham Bell, 1847–1922). A normal conversation has a value of of 50–60 dB, a whisper half this value, and rock music about twice the value (110–20 dB). However, since the dB scale is logarithmic, doubling a dB value represents sound intensity which is ten times greater.

In nature, sounds that generate the sinusoidal waves are not common. Well-designed tuning forks, whistles, sirens are some examples. Most sounds in nature have complex wave forms. This can be illustrated in the following way. Suppose that we add three waves together having the frequencies of 100 Hz, 200 Hz, and 300 Hz, with the amplitude of x, y, and z, respectively, as in

Figure 2. What would be the resulting wave form? If we liken the situation to three people pushing a pendulum in the same direction, the first person pushing it with the force z at every beat, the second person with the force y at every second beat, and the third person with the force x at every third beat, then the position of the pendulum at any given moment would be equal to the displacement which is the sum of the forces x, y, and z. This is also what happens when the simultaneous wave forms having different frequencies and amplitudes are added together. In Figure 2, the dark unbroken line is the resulting complex wave.

Again, there are a few things to be noted here. First, note that the recurrence of the complex wave is at the same frequency as the highest common factor of the component frequencies, i.e. 100 Hz. This is called fundamental frequency. Note secondly that the frequencies of the component waves are whole-number multiples of the fundamental frequency. They are called harmonics or overtones. An octave is a relation between two harmonics whose frequencies are either twice or one-half of the other.

There is another way to represent the frequency and amplitude of the component waves, more succinct and legible than Figure 2, namely by transposing them into a graph as in Figure 3. Since the component waves are represented in

terms of lines, a graph like Figure 3 is called **line** spectrum.

Recall that the frequencies of the component waves in Figure 2 are all whole-number multiples of the lowest frequency. What if the component waves do not have such a property, that is, what if the frequencies are closer to one another, say, 90 Hz, 100 Hz, and 110 Hz? The complex wave that these component waves generate is shown in Figure 4.

Compared to Figure 2, the amplitude of the complex wave of Figure 4 decays rapidly. This is called **damping**. It turns out that the more the number of component waves whose frequencies are close to one another, the more rapid the rate of damping. Try now to represent such a wave in a line spectrum, a wave whose component waves have frequencies, say 91 Hz, 92 Hz, 93 Hz, etc. to 110 Hz. We can do this as in Figure 5.

What if we add more component waves between

any two lines in Figure 5, say ten or twenty more? Try as we might by sharpening our pencils, it would be impossible to draw in all the components. It would be unnecessary also if we take the 'roof' formed by the lines as the envelope of the amplitude under which there is a component wave at that frequency with that amplitude, as in Figure 6. To contrast with the line spectrum in Figure 3, the spectrum in Figure 6b is called envelope spectrum or simply spectrum.

What is the significance of the difference in the two kinds of spectra, Figure 3 and Figure 6b? It turns out that, if we divide sound into two kinds, melody and noise, melody has the quality of the forms, i.e. it has regular, recurrent wave forms, while noise has the latter quality, i.e. irregular non-recurrent wave forms.

Before turning to speech acoustics, it is worth noting that every object, when struck, vibrates at a certain 'built-in' frequency. This frequency, called natural resonance frequency, is dependent

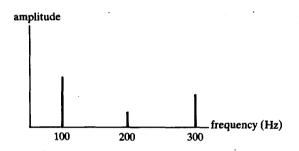


Figure 3 A line spectrum

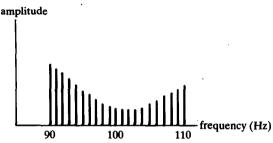


Figure 5 A line spectrum showing relative amplitudes and frequencies from 90, 91, 92... to 110 Hz of the component waves

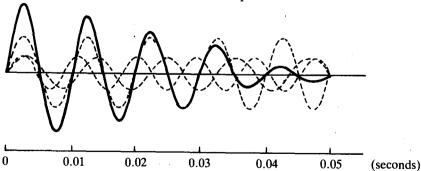
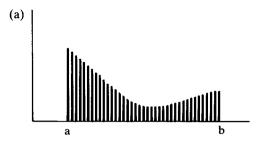


Figure 4 A 'decaying' complex wave formed with a combination of 90 Hz, 100 Hz, and 110 Hz component waves



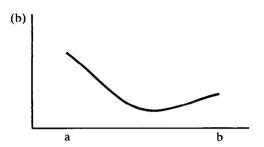


Figure 6 (a) A line spectrum with an infinite number of component waves whose frequencies range from a to b; (b) An envelope spectrum which is an equivalent of the line spectrum in Figure 6a

upon the object's size, density, material, etc. But in general, the larger the size, the lower the frequency (compare a tuba with a trumpet, a bass cello with a violin, or longer piano strings with shorter ones) and the more tense or compact the material, the higher the frequency (compare glass with carpet, and consider how one tunes a guitar or a violin).

#### ACOUSTICS OF SPEECH

#### **VOWELS**

A pair of vocal folds can be likened to a pair of hands or wood blocks clapping each other. As such, the sound it generates is, strictly speaking, a noise. This noise, however, is modified as it travels through the pharyngeal and oral (sometimes nasal) cavities, much as the sound generated by a vibrating reed in an oboe or a clarinet is modified. Thus what comes out of the mouth is not the same as the pure unmodified vocal tone. And to extend the analogy, just as the pitch of a

wind instrument is regulated by changing the effective length or size of the resonating tube with various stops, the quality of sounds passing through the supraglottal cavities is regulated by changing the cavity sizes with such 'stops' as the tongue, the velum, and the lips. It is immediately obvious that one cannot articulate the vowels [i], [a], and [u] without varying the size of the oral cavity (see also ARTICULATORY PHONETICS). What does this mean acoustically?

For the sake of illustration, let us assume that a tube consisting of the joined oral and pharyngeal cavities is a resonating acoustic tube, much like an organ pipe. The most uniform 'pipe' or tube one can assume is the one formed when producing the neutral vowel [ə] (see Figure 7). Without going into much detail, the natural resonance frequency of such a tube can be calculated with the following formula:

$$f = (2n - 1) \frac{v}{4I}$$

Where f = frequency, v = velocity of sound, and l = length of the vocal tract

Since v is 340 m per second, and l is 17 cm in an average male, f is about 500 Hz when n = 1, 1,500 Hz when n = 2, 2,500 Hz when n = 3, etc. What

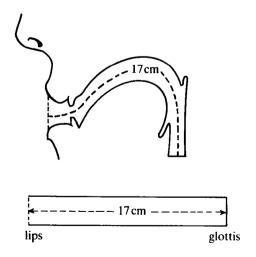


Figure 7 The vocal-tract shape and an idealized tube model of the tract for the most neutral vowel