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# English PronunciationS <br> The Pronunciation of English around the World 

 Geo-social Applications of the Natural Phonetics \& Tonetics Method1. International, American \& British neutral Accents

Part 4. Macrostructures

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# 36. Prominence, rhythm \& pauses 

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## Prominence

36.1. The degree in which a syllable stands out among adjoining syllables in an utterance is defined prominence. It is the result of different combinations of four fundamental elements: the timbre of the phones, which form a syllable (ie their relative intrinsic perceptibility, determined by articulatory characteristics), stress, or strength of realization, relative PITCH, and LeNGTH (or duration).

For practical purposes, it is better to analyze the four elements separately ( $c f(G$ 12 of NPT), even if their result is just prominence. In a word such as visibility, the most prominent syllable is the third one, -bil-, while the next prominent syllable is the first, vis-. The other syllables are much weaker, especially the second and fourth ones, $-i$ - and $-i$. Of course, all this is better treated by using phonetic transcriptions, while a phonemic transcription would only show the primary stress:


## Rhythm \& rhythm groups

36.2. Every language has its own particular rhythm, deriving from the structures of its syllables and rhythm groups. Rнутнм is the result of regular occurrences of prominent syllables in the speech chain. Generally, the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables is fundamental. In English, stressed syllables are longer, as well, but not necessarily on a higher pitch (as it is often said and written).

To all this, English also adds a considerable reduction in the duration $\%$ r timbre of the phones of unstressed syllables (indeed some of the expected phones, often, drop completely):
${ }^{i}$ [phəliis; phliis] a ${ }^{\prime b}$ [phəlıis; philis]/pəliis/ police
 university.
36.3. RHYTHM GROUPS (or stress groups) are formed by -at least- one syllable with strong stress. Usually, a stressed syllable is accompanied by other syllables, with secondary (or mid), weak, or reduced (or weakened) stresses. Furthermore, the
rhythm groups show considerable internal cohesion, not only on the phonetic and prosodic level, but also on the semantic one; which means that they have a precise global meaning.

English may have quite long sequences of strong syllables, when lexical monosyllables occur in a sentence; while it can even have sequences of weak or weakened (or reduced) syllables (with shortened phones and attenuated timbres). Here are some examples:




And there was a large crowd of people waiting for them.
${ }^{i}$ [aemgənə'hheuk ' $\sigma \cdot l ə \partial \mathrm{~m}:$ : əəðəрәı'fo'mmənsəz:]



I'm gonna take all of them to the performances.
36.4. For a useful comparison of rhythm, prominence, and segment qualities, let us now consider these two sentences as spoken with a marked Italian accent. The result is quite another thing from the original model:
*[Ender'wa: zalar:d3** 'krau dov'pipol:: 'weitim for'd $\varepsilon$ m:.]
*[aij'gonna teikə lofd $\varepsilon$ m:: tu,deperfor:mansis.].

## Pauses

36.5. A pause is a momentary break in speech, which takes place for various reasons: physiological (ie breathing), semantic (ie meaning), logical (ie connection), psychological (ie attitudes), and pragmatic (ie communicative strategies).

It is possible to measure pauses in reference to the number of syllables which could fill the time of their duration (resulting from an average of both stressed and unstressed syllables). Therefore, we speak of short, mid, and long pauses, of about 3, 6, and 9 syllables respectively, or rather of about $2-4,5-7,8-10$ mean phono-syllables: [|, ||, |||].

If a short pause is not certain, or may be missing, it is indicated by [:] and is better defined as a potential pause. Sometimes, above all for psycholinguistic or behavioral purposes, it may be necessary to indicate pauses in a more precise way: in hundredths of a second; especially when they differ from expected 'normal' ones.
36.6. Usually, in pause groups (ie what is included between two pauses), normal speech uses two or more rhythm groups, which are linked to convey a fuller sense.

Sometimes, a pause group coincides with one rhythm group; at other times, combinations of rhythm groups in different pause groups change the meaning of similar utterances, often much more than the presence or absence of intonemes within the utterance itself, as in:
 ı'nao.」/ You may go now, quite different from:
 'goo 'naб./ You may: go now, again different from:
 'met.| 'goo. 'naб./ You may. Go, now.

# 37. Pitch, rate \& phono-texts 

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## Pitch \& intonation groups

37.1. fig 37 schematically shows the relationship between the three fundamental types of voices: male (м), female ( F ) and $\operatorname{infant(ile)~(~} \mathrm{I}$ ); the grey band helps to realize that the same absolute pitch corresponds to quite different relative pitch levels. Of course, among the three groups, there is a fairly gradual transition, since -for each one- we can easily find more or less high/low voices, in addition to those representing the average of each group.

When two or more pause groups are linked together, their meanings are co-ordinated as well; therefore, they are combined into something wider and more coherent, thanks to a particular intonation contour. Thus we get intonation GROUPS, which may even coincide with one rhythm group, or one word, possibly formed by one syllable, again: Yes? or Here.
fig 37. Relationship between male, female, and infant(ile) voices.


## Paragraph \& text

37.2. When one or more speakers continue on the same subject, with semantic cohesion, a sequence of intonation groups is technically called a paragraph. From a prosodic point of view, a paragraph is usually characterized by given rhythm and intonation features, which determine their internal cohesion, in contrast to other paragraphs, within the same text.

Generally, a paragraph ends with a greater pitch lowering (compared to normal pitch), which is marked with [o] at the end. Likewise, a paragraph may begin at a slightly higher pitch, marked by [ ${ }^{\circ}$ ] at the beginning. This guarantees internal unity and coherence, in contrast with other paragraphs. A simple kind of paragraph is constituted by sayings:




```
\({ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}\) wen ðə'kæts ə'wet; ðə'maes wt \({ }^{\prime}\) 'plet.ol
When the cat's away, the mice will play.
```

37.3. A text may be constituted by a speech, a lesson, a (university or public) lecture, a news bulletin, a sermon, a soliloquy, a joke, \&c. A paragraph may be constituted by the sentences of different speakers, when the text (presenting semantic and pragmatic cohesion) is a conversation, a phone call, an oral examination, an interview, a quarrel, \&c.

A text is not necessarily long: even Here? -Yes may be a text, supposing that the two speakers share certain presuppositions:

Here? - Yes.

## Rate

37.4. Languages (and speakers) have different rates of uttering. rate can be measured in words per minute (100-200 on average), in phono-syllables per second (2-5), or in phones per second (6-20).

In general the number of words and syllables varies according to their structures and extensions; the number of phones varies according to their (phonetic and phonemic) duration.

Moreover, the rate varies according to particular semantic, social, and pragmatic factors. Conversation itself can be classified in at least three different types: slow, normal, and quick. Consequently, the numbers given above tend to move towards the limits indicated, or even to slightly exceed them.
37.5. Pause incidence is connected with rate, too. Indeed, there is a limit beyond which phones cannot be shortened or lengthened without becoming incomprehensible, or ridiculously intolerable. Therefore, the quicker/slower the rate is, the more the duration and number of pauses will be reduced/increased.

In a normal conversation, pauses take almost a quarter of the total duration of a text. But the time taken by pauses can be longer: up to half of the total duration. There are cases (or particular moments) where pauses can even take three quarters of the total time (without falling into pathology); but such cases fall within the aims of paraphonic analysis.

On the contrary, anyone happens to know some speakers who talk very quickly and, practically, make 'no pauses' (and hardly use conclusive intonemes)... Fairly understandably, most listeners cannot stand such speakers!

# 38．A first approach to intonation 

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38．1．We will now concisely introduce the bare essentials of intonation．In fact， all languages have their own intonation system，and phonetics should therefore not be treated without examining intonation as well，by means of tonetics．

Unfortunately，intonation is often left out entirely，even in descriptions of par－ ticular languages or in transcriptions of sentences or passages！A notably bad ex－ ample of this omission is given by the recent＇official manual＇of the International Phonetic Association：Handbook of the International Phonetic Association：A Guide to the Use of the International Phonetic Alphabet（found in the bibliography）．

38．2．Of course，we will follow the natural tonetics method，since we find it to be the most objective and unbiased of all，and the fittest one for actual compar－ isons between languages．It is a fair combination of auditory impressions and acoustic analyses，expressed in a clear diagrammatic way，by means of tonograms and signs which are derived from those of the British school．

As a matter of fact，the British approach has been among the few to have some practical use；but sometimes its diagrams are decidedly excessive．In fact，for［．＇．．］ or $[\cdot \cdot \cdot]$（cffig 38．1），it gives diagrams like $\bar{\square}$ or $\bar{\Omega}$ when there is only one short voiced element：for example，［ l$]$ in Dick．If the result were truly as extended as their dia－ grams show，it would rather sound like a police siren！

These are not the only differences between these two methods，as it will appear below．However，for the time being，we will deal only with British English into－ nation，because it is also the most widely described one，and because it is better not to introduce other accents，which might complicate things．

Of course，the International and American systems will be given soon after，in order to compare them appropriately（ G 41 ）．

38．3．In every language the three marked intonemes（／．？；／）and the unmarked preintoneme（the normal one，／／，without a special symbol）should be clearly in－ fig 38．1．The four neutral intonemes of British English．

conclusive ｜．｜［．＇．．］〈》

interrogative ｜？｜［．1．•］〈＇〉

suspensive
｜；／［ $\cdot 1].\langle\lambda\rangle$

continuative $1, \mid$［ $\cdot 1 \cdot]\langle\prime\rangle$
dicated with appropriate symbols (both on a phonetic, or -rather-tonetic level, and on a phonemic, or tonemic one).

The intoneme involves the final stressed syllable of an utterance and the syllables around it (cf fig 38.1), while the preintoneme is what is found before the intoneme in the same intonation group (cffig 38.2). In the example his cousin's name is Bartholomew /hzzkeznz 'neum uzbasi' ©lamjuu/, the intoneme is constituted by the full name of Bartholomew, while the preintoneme is everything prior to it: his cousin's name is...
38.4. The example of Bartholomew is particularly interesting because it allows us to consider the four ideal components of an intoneme: the pretonic syllable (Bar-), the tonic syllable (-thol-), and the two post-tonic ones (-omew).

The pronunciation of this example normally provides a reasonably adequate realization of the schematic tonal movements shown in fig 38.1-2 (which besides the unmarked preintoneme and the three marked intonemes, give the important interrogative preintoneme, $/ \dot{d} /$, which is marked, and the continuative intoneme, $/, /$ - which is unmarked).
38.5. If the example were his cousin's name is Dick /huzkeznz 'neum uzduk/, the intoneme would be is Dick. The tonic and post-tonic syllables would consist of only one syllable (Dick). In consequence, the ideal movement shown in the diagrams (for the case with four syllables) would be compressed, not just horizontally, but inevitably in terms of the vertical range as well.

When only one syllable is present (as in the answer to a question like what is his cousin's name? - Dick), the result is a fusion of the expected pitch patterns which maintains the characteristic movements, but in an attenuated form.
38.6. The preintoneme and the intoneme taken together are usefully called an intonation group. We use examples such as My favorite dictionary, or That patient thinks he's Giuseppe Verdi, to show that the parts of an intonation group do not necessarily respect word boundaries. In fact, the intonemes in these utterances are,

 'sEp/ (My favo- and That patient thinks he's Giusep-). The full examples are: /'Jxईs

38.7. It will be seen that our transcriptions are not subdivided (pedantically, or pseudo-pedagogically) along word boundaries. That practice is still quite common (in the best case, motivated by hopes of helping the reader). It is much more useful to subdivide transcriptions into rhythm groups, as we have done, instead of giving things like '/'Zæt iz 'mar 'fervrət 'drkJən(e)ri/', or '/'Zæt 'perfnt ' $\theta$ Inks hizz ḑus'sepi 'vez(r)di $/$ ', where the stresses and some unreduced forms (for current 'weak forms') are even unnatural (ie in the cases of ' 1 rz 'mar/' in the first example and '/hizz/', at least, in the second, which are weakened in normal speech, both articulatorily and prosodically).
fig 38.2. Two neutral preintonemes of British English.

interrogative $\mid \dot{C} /[\dot{j}\langle\dot{c}\rangle$
38.8. fig 38.3 will be a useful explanatory tool in order to understand more explicitly the use of tonograms (given that we are not all musicians or singers, for whom the analogy with a musical score is obvious). Let us observe, then, the graphemic text, to which we have given the form of the intonation curve. Normally this curve is shown with the lines and dots of tonograms, but here we have used a more 'intuitive' first approach. We show just four examples, based on the segment see you on Saturday (in neutral British pronunciation expressly to compare them with $\bar{\varrho}$ and $\overline{\bar{J}}$, seen above). These examples contrast pairwise: a conclusive utterance is contrasted with an interrogative one (of a total question), and a suspensive utterance with a continuative one.
fig 38.3. An iconic way to introduce people to intonation.

38.9. In the case of the last two sentences, the semantic importance of what follows (given in parentheses) is fundamental, whether it is expressed out loud, or instead remains implicit.

In any case, the suspensive intoneme is characterized by decidedly greater and more immediate anticipation, while this is lacking with the continuative one.

This difference, and certainly not their syntax, explains the difference in intonation between the third and fourth examples.
38.10.1. Applying the movements of the three intonemes to a slightly different example, we see that in neutral (better than 'standard') British English, the conclusive intoneme is falling (/./ [ $\left.\cdot^{\prime}.\right]$ ), of the type shown in fig 38.1 (and also in three examples in fig 38.3):
${ }^{b}[$ kh.ııstfən..] /kııstfən./ Christian.
38.10.2. The interrogative intoneme is rising (/?/ [ [ ' • $]$ ), as in the question:

38.10.3. The third intoneme, the suspensive, is used to create a sort of anticipation, or 'suspense'. In neutral British pronunciation, it is falling-rising, /;/ [. '. .]:
$b$ [kh.tıstfən.] /'kustfən;/ Although his name's Christian, he's no good Christian at all.
38.11. In fig 38.2 (as well as in the second example of fig 38.3), we have the interrogative preintoneme, $/ \dot{\delta} /$, as well. This preintoneme is a modification of the normal preintoneme, and it anticipates on the rhythmic-group syllables of the preintoneme the characteristic movement of the interrogative intoneme (although in an attenuated form).

Obviously, in the part specifically dedicated to the topic, we will be more explicit and more exhaustive (cf $\operatorname{G} 40-46$ ). Here, we remark only that the interrogative preintoneme is the same in all types of questions, whether these are total questions, like Is his cousin's name Christian?, or partial ones (containing a question word, such as why, when, who, how...), such as Why is his cousin's name Christian?
38.12. Thus, we must warn the reader that, contrary to what grammar books and writing-based teaching imply, not all questions have an interrogative intoneme, nor should they. In fact, partial questions, in order to sound truly natural and authentic, should be pronounced with a conclusive intoneme (or at most, with the unmarked continuative intoneme, with pitch in the mid band, which will be seen in greater detail later on):


fig 38.4. Difference between total questions (1) and partial questions (2).

| 1 | (Will they) |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | see you on Satur day? |
|  |  |

# 39. A second step towards intonation 

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39.1. We already know that intonation is constituted by the relative pitch of syllables forming (more or less long) sequences of connected speech.

These sequences are called intonation groups and can consist of different pause groups (which, in turn, consist of rhythm groups); but they can even consist in a single word - which can even be monosyllabic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { /'noo./ /¿'noa?/ /i'noo./ /'noo,/ /'noo;/ } \\
& \text { No. - No? - No! - No, - No... }
\end{aligned}
$$

39.2. What is essential is that pitch -through given differences- adds (or, rather, gives) different pragmasemantic nuances -such as 'statement, question, command', \&c- to phonic sequences which could otherwise be identical.

Thus the difference obtained is not merely semantic, conceptual, as in the case of tone languages, such as Chinese. However, by using the same principles and the same symbols of syllabic-tone notation, we can accurately (and without too many problems) transcribe the characteristics of pitch and strength of the syllables of a whole utterance.

In fact, stress-tonal signs show both the relative pitch and stress-degrees of the syllables before which they are put.
39.3. The whole pitch extension of an utterance is called an intonation group (cffig 39, fig 43.1-2, $\S 40.1-2 \& f i g 38.3$ - perhaps it is better to avoid a possible unitary term as 'tuning'). It is divided into a preintoneme and an intoneme (again, we
fig 39. The intonation group and its parts.

avoid possible -Greek and Latin-terms such as 'protune' and [the risky] 'tune', as well). Here we anticipate that a general intoneme consists of three parts: a pretonic syllable, the tonic (ie the stressed) one, and (two) post-tonic syllables.

A preintoneme consists of one or more stressed and unstressed syllables (which are classically called 'protonic' and 'intertonic' syllables, respectively).

Sometimes, it could be important to refer explicitly to the first or last 'protonic' syllable, in the description of certain languages with particular preintonemes. That is the case of British English preintonemes, which have the first protonic syllable high, $\left[^{-}\right]$, as we have already seen in the examples in G 36. Currently, the first protonic can be preceded by some 'antetonic' (ie initial unstressed) syllables.
39.4. In anticipation of what will be dealt with presently (from G 40 onwards), we may say that there is a 'normal' preintoneme, for statements, which has no particular symbol since it is the unmarked one: / /.

There are, then, three marked preintonemes: interrogative ( $/ \dot{\delta} /$ ), imperative $(/ / /)$, and emphatic $(/ \dot{i} /)$. A blank before the second slash can help realize (in such concise indications) that we are dealing with pre-intonemes ( $/ \dot{\delta} /,|i /,| \dot{\lambda} /$ ), not with intonemes, which will follow shortly.

We must make it clear at once that written sentences are one thing, while the spoken language is quite another reality, often very different indeed.

Naturally, in the spoken language, intonemes are much more numerous than 'simple sentences' of grammar and syntax, as will be seen below.
39.5. But let us consider the intonemes. As we have already said, generally, they are formed by the tonic syllable (ie the stressed one, which is also the last strong syllable in an utterance, in a sense), the pretonic (ie the possible unstressed syllable before it), and the post-tonic syllables (ie the possible unstressed syllables after it).

In the tonetic diagrams (or rather tonograms), two post-tonic syllables are indicated (ie internal and terminal); sometimes it is useful to refer to one of them clearly, in order to highlight typical movements more clearly, above all to distinguish interrogative intonemes of the rising type $([\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot])$, from those of the falling type ([ $\left.\cdot^{\prime} \cdot\right]$ ).

In any case, the term postintoneme may be used to refer to both syllables, collectively.
39.6. We will now consider, concisely (and by looking closely at fig 40.2), the three marked intonemes (of neutral British English): conclusive (|./), interrogative (/?/), suspensive (/;/), and the unmarked: continuative (/,/):-

$b$ [¿⿰亻
$b$ [pn'sæว

This phonemic transcription is actually of a diaphonemic type, from which either British or American, or International pronunciation can be obtained.
39.7. As we already know, the best way of dealing with the intonation of a language consists in presenting its structures through appropriate and clear diagrams (ie tonograms), with clear examples and a simple and sufficiently complete notational system (not a cumbersome and useless one).

First of all, we must repeat that the use and choice of intonation patterns do not depend on syntax at all, but on semantics and pragmatics, and above all on communicative goals.

In fact, even if the syntactic formulation is, in the end, the most evident linguistic rendering (for those who are used to reading and writing), in actual fact it is nothing but a more or less faithful representation of the pragma-semantic way to express concepts and thoughts, peculiar to every language.
39.8. If, for instance, we write (and beforehand say):

I've been -looking for' this for 'ages,
the superficial formulation at hand is only the inevitable result of the mental and linguistic processes that produce, in English, the sentence just seen, although with slight possible variations.

In actual fact, it results from the juxtaposition of different concepts (each one indicated by $|\cdot|$, or [ $\cdot{ }^{\prime}$. .], or $\left.\rangle\rangle\right)$ in a single syntactic string, seemingly simple and straightforward, but actually very complex, as is obvious from its prosodic structure, if supported by an appropriate intonation pattern, as indicated by the small but precious signs used.
39.9. In the next chapters, we will examine the intonation structure of neutral British English, for which we must always keep in mind the general scheme which enables us to really see its characteristics.

Thus fig 39 gives the diagram of intonation groups. It shows the use we make -when speaking normally- of pitch heights of the various syllables forming the different possible utterances in a given language.

# 40. On preintonemes $\&$ intonemes 

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## Intonation groups

40.1. An intonation group consists (as already seen, of (T 39 \& fig 39) of a preintoneme (in our example I am tran ${ }^{-1}$ scribing the following example [aэmth.æn-
 this case, we have a normal preintoneme and a conclusive intoneme (even if we could certainly utter that sentence as I am tran'scribing the following example
 tonemes, three of them continuative- in order to highlight each part).

The conclusive intoneme is represented, tonemically (in a theoretic way) by $/ . /$, and tonetically (in a more realistic way) by [ $\left.\cdot{ }^{\prime} ..\right]$, which varies according to each accent considered (or by $\rangle$, in a graphemic text, which must use different signs, because they follow a partially different criterion, that is more like traditional British intonation practice).

The number of syllables in the example has been calculated on purpose in order to have full correspondence between the tonogram and the syllables of the sentence, to be able to show the characteristics more clearly.
40.2. Of course, in normal speech, it is unlikely to find sentences with the same number of syllables; however, the usefulness of the tonogram is not compromised. The actual syllables available (whether more or less than 14) share pitch heights in a fair way. So they may either compress the movement of several syllables into only one or two, or expand it over a larger number of syllables:

Yes, we do - or Our aim is to pass on ideas, techniques, and practical activities, which we know work in the classroom (even if this last example, more realistically, will be divided into more parts, with the addition of the respective intonemes, mostly continuative):


Our -aim is to , pass, on i'deas, tech'niques, and "practical ac'tivities, which we -know 'work in the , classroom.

## Preintonemes

40.3. fig 40.1 shows the four preintonemes (of neutral British English): one is unmarked, or normal, and has no symbol; three are marked: interrogative $/ \dot{\Sigma} /[\dot{¿}]$, imperative $/_{i} /\left[{ }_{i}\right]$, for instance: Pay attention!, and emphatic $/_{i} /\left[_{i}\right]$ : We have to check everything very carefully!:
[; ${ }^{-}$pheri $\partial^{\prime}$ 'henenn..] Pay attention! (imperative)

We have to check everything very carefully! (emphatic).
fig 40.1 shows, on the left, sketchy tonograms; on the right, they are given in a more realistic way. Actually, the schematic diagrams are sufficient indeed, since these tonograms necessarily generalize and normalize the data, allowing slight differences of realization as well.

For teaching and learning purposes, these schematic tonograms are decidedly more useful, making comparisons with those of other languages possible. On the contrary, single and peculiar acoustic tracings, or too formal and abstract notations turn out to be useless.
fig 40.1. The preintonemes of neutral British English.

fig 40.2. The intonemes of neutral British English.

conclusive |./ [-' ..] $\langle\rangle$

interrogative /?/ [ • ' $\left.{ }^{\circ}\right]\left\langle{ }^{\prime}\right\rangle$

suspensive $/ ; /[\cdot \cdot . \cdot]\langle$,



## Intonemes

40.4. fig 40.2 shows the three marked intonemes (of neutral British pronunciation, again both schematically and realistically) - conclusive |.| ${ }^{b}\left[\cdot^{\prime} ..\right]$ or $\rangle$, should
we need or want to use them inserted in current orthography, instead of in transcriptions, interrogative /?/ $[\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot]\rangle$, and suspensive $| ;[[\cdot \cdot].\langle \rangle\rangle-$ in addition to the unmarked one, continuative $\left\lvert\,, /\left[\begin{array}{c}-1 \cdot]\end{array}\right.$ ' $\left.^{\prime}\right\rangle\right.$.

The marked intonemes have a functional charge, which is crucial for communication, as they oppose one another distinctively. The unmarked intoneme -the continuative one- may be considered as the neutralization of the three marked ones (since each of them would be inappropriate in certain -less important- contexts, being too specific and having very definite functions).
40.5. The aim of the continuative intoneme, above all, is to oppose a theoretical 'zero' intoneme. It is quite different from a straightforward and progressive flow of enunciation, without the slightest variations (or breaks), even theoretical or potential. Its only purpose is to slightly highlight a word, compared to a complete non-occurrence of intonemes (as happens within a preintoneme).

 ter, of course, six is more prominent than in the former, since it has its own intoneme ('six /'skss,/ ['skss]), instead of being a part of the same preintoneme (,six /'skss/ ['skss]); while I 'saw 'six men /aE'so: 'stks. 'men./ ${ }^{b}$ [a9-sos' stks.. 'mens.], with two conclusive intonemes, would be still more prominent.
40.6. In $\S 40.1-2$, we have already seen that a syntactic string does not generally correspond to just one intoneme; in fact, more or less numerous continuative intonemes occur, otherwise the sentence would not sound spontaneous and convincing.

At first, one does not fully realize this internal subdivision, which is completely natural. Its appropriate use goes entirely unnoticed; whereas, its absence would not pass unnoticed at all (as happens in unprofessional reading or recitation).

For instance, if we consider an utterance such as Look: the imprints of a bear, we realize that it can be said in many ways - apart from actual and paraphonic considerations such as the fright taken at the sight, or the delight expressed by naturalists, or the satisfaction felt by hideous poachers... (all of them are rendered with different nuances, clear and easy to interpret).

Of course, this is different from a unitary sentence such as Look at the imprints of a bear, in just one intonation group:
b[-1okut ði'mp_tunts əvə'be's.]
/lokət ði'tmp.ınts əvə'bear./
Look at the imprints of a bear (1).
40.7. Thus, if we go back to the original utterance, what we find is something closer to a natural exposition:

> /lok. đi'mp.ınts əvə'bea.!./
> Look: the imprints of a bear (2).

In fact, in the same sentence, there are two pragmatic concepts: the imprints and its sighting.
40.8. If we then divide it into three parts (of course, with three intonemes), the nuances expressed are more detailed:
${ }^{b}$ [lok.. ði'mp.tıunts.. әvə'běз..]
/lok. ði'ımp.ınts. əvə'beə...|
Look: the imprints, of a bear (3).
In this way, we can manage to separate, conceptually too, imprints of different shapes.
40.9. After all, it is possible to use some continuative intonemes (ie unmarked $\mid, /$ as already seen in previous sections), and this will add something to elocution (in opposition to a unitary utterance, although this is not for emphasis, of course). It is only a way to make enunciation a little more effective and natural: Look at the imprints of a bear - Look: the imprints of a bear (and variations).
40.10. By considering an example like You must read further books on this particular subject, again, we can easily see that there are several ways of saying it. Apart from a quite flat realization in a single intonation group, as:


You must read further books on this particular subject.
40.11. We can actually have:






40.12. We could even have:


(with more and more numerous nuances and implications).
40.13. A conclusive intoneme is necessarily used whenever a given concept is completed in the speaker's mind. Thus, besides the words which form the sentences, it concerns communicative functions as well, as if, in saying It's raining cats and dogs, we added 'I am stating' - so:
${ }^{b}$ [tss ${ }^{-}$Emnıり khæts ən'do'gz..]

It's raining, cats and 'dogs.
40.14. Each intoneme has a specific function: the interrogative communicates 'I am asking':

/¿ızけ'IEınıy 'kæfs ən'dpgz?/
¿Is it 'raining, cats and 'dogs?
40.15. The suspensive one communicates 'I am underlining':


If it's 'raining, cats and ,dogs... (itit's a ca'lamity!)
40.16. The continuative intoneme, instead, simply communicates 'I have not finished':


It's 'raining, cats and 'dogs (but I don't 'care).
40.17. It is possible to have a series of conclusive intonemes:
 аяł ${ }^{-}$g3º u'we't.]
 aef'goo ə'wer./
-Yesterday it rained. To-day it's 'raining. To'morrow it'll pour. I'm sick and 'tired. I'll 'go a way!
40.18. However, a suspensive intoneme is very likely for:


To'morrow it'll, pour.
40.19. Too often, current writing (which is not at all sophisticated) uses only commas:

Yesterday it rained, today it is raining, tomorrow it'll pour, I am sick and tired, I'll go away.
40.20. Thus, with the guilty complicity of schools, one is led to a kind of 'child--like' reading, which makes people utter things like:
 '†haэəd...。 ${ }^{\circ}$ äf $^{-}$groo $^{\circ}$ u'we'r.. $^{\circ}{ }_{\circ}$ ].
40.21. The small rings show the additional pitch movement which is typical of 'bookish intonation', which must be kept well apart from normal (ie conversational) intonation, and even from the typical intonation of text exposition (even if done mentally), as we will see in G 45 .
40.22. A further example to show that, normally, writing and punctuation are just miserable devices with syntactical functions, and not very helpful for reading:

/aem'feıəbli 'buzi. ae'kænt kem.| aełletju 'noo. ${ }^{\prime}$ 'q $\sigma \omega n(\dagger)$ bilkıp̣s./
I'm terribly busy: I can't come; I'll let you know; don't be cross.
40.23. Even the example I've been looking for this for 'ages shows this characteristic:
$b_{\text {[aэvbin-lokıŋ fa'dıs.. f fl'eidzız..] }}$

I've been looking for this for ages.
40.24. Contrary to what grammars keep on repeating, a comma does not necessarily indicate a short pause, as a semicolon does not indicate a pause which is half-way between the 'short' one of commas and the 'long' one of full stops (as it is absurdly 'prescribed').

However, these are the results achieved by schools, ie unhappily rigorous and monotonous pauses, which are not able to convey appropriate meaning to sentences (especially when they are read).

And all those who today abuse punctuation, by omitting it almost completely, will they ever pause?

# 41. The intonation of the three neutral accents 

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41.1. As we have seen in the previous chapters (G 38-40), technically, we talk about intonation groups (or tone groups, for short), which are generally composed of a first part, the preintoneme, and a second, the intoneme. The latter is the most important for conveying pragmatic meanings, such as statement, question, \&c.

It is common knowledge that these structures depend on orthology (ie expressive speech) and semantics; while syntax is nothing but the necessary linear disposition of these more important parts of language.
41.2. These will produce particular effects, but always within usual primary intonation patterns, which are flexible, though systematic.

An added 'complication' is paraphonics (which marks attitudes, moods, feelings and social roles, as well as physical or mental states, as we will see later on).

All this is typical of any common messages, even in every-day simple conversation.
41.3. fig 41.1-3 show the preintonemes and intonemes of the neutral International, American, and (again) British English accents.

These tonograms should be observed and compared very closely, in order to be able to find and actually catch all their nuances, no matter how slight they can be.

Of course, bigger differences are most important, although subtle ones are not at all negligible.
41.4. Here are some simple, but important, examples, which must be seen very carefully:



/aev'djest 'bo:t ə'nj̣uu 'dıkfñ..ii./
I've just bought a new dictionary.



¿¿dja'spiik'ıgglı 'weł?/
Do you speak English well?
fig 41.1. International English intonation.

fig 41.2. American English intonation.

fig 41.3. British English intonation.




 You can have strawberries or blueberries.
41.5. There are several and quite varied question tags (or tag questions), in English, while, other languages generally have fixed formulas.

In the English language, they are morphologically determined (by modifying auxiliary and modal verbs and changing their positive/negative polarity).

They have two different functions: confirmations of somebody's suppositions
(by means of conclusive intonemes), or actual questions, to really ask something, for lack of any certainty (by means of interrogative intonemes).

Let us see a few examples: It's cold today, isn't it? or You're American, aren't you? or They aren't well, are they?
41.6. For confirmation, we will have:




It's cold today, isn't it?
${ }^{i}$ [jəəə'meıəə


/jəəə'meıəəইən. c'の"ب̣ntju./
You're American, aren't you?

a [ðer'qunt 'weľ. e'quðerr.]
${ }^{6}$ [Әеі"ant 'wełt. c'arӘet.]

They aren't well, are they?
41.7. While, for information, we will have:




It's cold today, isn't it?



/jəəə'me..วkən. e'ه’ب̣ntju?/
You're American, aren't you?




They aren't well, are they?

## 42. Questions

[© Luciano Canepari, 2010, Venice University, Italy]
42.1. An important point, to always keep in mind, is that an interrogative intoneme need not be used whenever there is a question mark at the end of a sentence! Unfortunately, this is another real mistake taught in schools.

It is important to clearly distinguish the different kinds of questions. Among the more recurrent and normal types, only total questions (or 'yes-no questions') request interrogative intonemes. These questions are answered by Yes or No (or, possibly, by Perbaps, I don't know, It depends, \&c); but, above all, they do not include interrogative words:

¿Did you'see?

¿Is it 'interesting?
${ }^{6}$ [¿kuñ,j $\mu$ u'hımi•]
¿Can you'hear me?
42.2. It is important to pay due attention to cases where there is a 'given' element (book, music, John, here, hereabouts in the following examples), which is less important and thus less stressed, being already 'known', since previously mentioned, or 'expected', as present in a particular communicative situation, because it can be visible, or implied, or inevitable, from social or cultural experience:


```
¿Have you'read this, book?
```



```
¿Do you 'like , music?
```



```
¿Do you'know where 'John is?
```



```
¿Is the station, far a'way from, here?
```



```
¿Is there a 'library, near here?
```

42.3. In the examples just seen, the structure is $/ \dot{d} ? /+/ \dot{C}, /$ with attenuation of the sentence-internal interrogative intoneme. Thus, strictly speaking we have: $\mid \dot{c} ? \circ /+/ \dot{c}, /$, as will be seen shortly, with modifications of the intonemes (cf G 43 ).

Indeed, internal attenuation is automatic, so it need not be explicitly marked: $[\dot{C} \cdot]^{\circ}+[\dot{C} \cdot]$, for $\left[\dot{C}_{\dot{C}} \cdot \circ \rrbracket+[\dot{C} \cdot]\right.$. In fact, that utterance is formed by two intonemes, not just one; and this is significant to show the difference between written and spoken codings. The former is too sketchy, due to its excessively limited graphic possibilities, but it should not in the least restrict the varied phonic possibilities, which are typical of spontaneous and qualified speech.
42.4. This is the reason why punctuation should be more careful and accurate, still without introducing new -though desirable- signs, as for instance ' $\cdot$ ' -no longer as an 'epigraphic dot', but as an 'orthological (raised) dot', followed by a space- in particular in those cases where Western Grammar is not allowed to separate a subject from its verb (and the like).

However, in Turkish, for instance, it is indeed more than 'correct' to write:
 is in Ankara'.
42.5. With orthological structures as the following, we would have quite different meanings from those given above (though pragmatically less probable indeed):


```
¿Have you 'read this 'book?
\({ }^{6}\) [¿d(ә)j \(\mu\)-lask 'muuzık•]
¿Do you like 'music?
```



```
¿Do you 'know where 'John is?
```



```
¿Is the -station far a, way from 'here?
```



```
¿Is there a library, near 'here?
```

42.6. On the contrary, partial questions (or wh-questions) include specific (interrogative) words, such as who, what, which, when, where, why, whose, how, how much, how long... Clearly enough, the answers regard the part of the questions where the interrogative word occurs, since the rest of the questions themselves is already known, or shared, or implicit. If somebody asks you:

¿How many \anguages do you speak? it is obvious that they know you happen to speak some languages; and if you say:

$$
b\left[e^{-h} \mu{ }^{\prime} u \text { 'thoołd } \mu_{,}, \partial æ 1 . .\right]
$$

$¿^{-W}$ Who told you that? or:
${ }^{\text {b }}$ [¿ha`o dj $\mu$ 'nзº..]
¿'How do you 'know? that piece of information is something known, or 'given'.
42.7. Therefore, the voice falls at the end, as for a conclusive sentence. Indeed, the questions just seen could even be formulated as: I'd like to know how many languages you speak, and You must say who told you that, and Tell me how you know.

However, even if in partial questions the conclusive intoneme has to be used (which is falling just as in statements), there is certainly some pitch difference (apart from an obvious syntactic one) between a question like When will they buy a new computer? and a statement like When they buy a new computer. The difference is in the preintoneme.
42.8. As a matter of fact, all kinds of questions have something in common, ie the interrogative preintoneme, $/ \dot{\delta} /[\dot{\delta}]$, which, as can be seen in fig 38.2 (or fig 40.1, or fig 41.1-3), has a partially different pitch contour from the one used in normal preintonemes.

This difference consists in modifying the usual pitch movement, through the anticipation of the typical interrogative curve (/?/ [ • • • ] ), which in neutral British English pronunciation is rising - from mid to high pitch.
42.9. This anticipation, however, does not exhibit the actual change from mid to high, but reproduces it on a small scale, by distributing pitch heights among the stressed and unstressed syllables. Thus, it modifies the usual contour of the unmarked preintoneme only partially.

Nevertheless, this is quite sufficient to make the difference perceptible, right from the beginning, ie on the very first syllable(s). So, the difference is surely there already on When, and increases on the auxiliar (and so on, often combined with a different degree of stress). But the symbol $/ \dot{\delta} /[\dot{\dot{c}}]$ alone is sufficient to indicate the pitch difference that the ear clearly hears:

¿-When will they 'buy a new computer? and:

-When they, buy a new com'puter.
42.10. Besides, as all of the partial questions, these too can be said with a continuative intoneme (which renders them less categorical), or by attenuating the intoneme (cf G 43).

The question about the computer already shows that the plan of buying a new machine (hopefully a new Mac) was 'known', or 'given', not a 'new' fact. Equally, we have a parenthesis as soon as an example like When are you leaving? becomes a known fact as far as the departure is concerned:

```
\({ }^{6}\) [¿ंWEn: əj \(\mu\) lıivıŋ..]
¿When are you leaving? (new)
```



```
¿When are you leaving? (known).
```

42.11. Usually, this also happens -for pragmasemantic reasons- in sentences like ¿How 'much does it, cost? whereas realizations such as ¿How 'much does it 'cost? are to be found only in 'teaching' recordings, and, unfortunately, what we actually hear, in too many of these recordings, is indeed as in the last example that follows:

¿How 'much does it, cost? (normal, textual, and communicative)
$b$ [¿hao ${ }^{-\mathrm{met}}$ d dzzkikhost..]
¿How - much does it 'cost? (neither normal nor communicative)
$b$ [¿hao ${ }^{-}$met $\int$ dəzukikhost ${ }^{\circ}$ ]
¿How 'much does it 'cost? (unnatural and absurd).
42.12. Let us briefly move back to the kind of intonation used at school, which makes people say ¿ $_{\dot{-}}$-When will they, buy a new com'puter? whose meaning, strictly speaking, would be closer to 'Would you mind repeating that? I didn't quite catch what you said. Did you ask about when they're going to buy a new computer?':

*¿-When will they, buy a, new com'puter? ('school intonation')

$¿^{-}$When will they, buy a new com'puter? ? ${ }^{\circ}$ (where ${ }^{\circ}$ indicates a higher pitch raising, which is typical of questions asking for a repeat).
42.13. In actual fact, there is a big difference, since the classic 'bookish question' (as we will see presently, in $\S 42.15-18 \& \$ 45.1-2$ ) is:
*b['wem wıłðer'ba'و ə'nj $\mu^{\prime} u$ kum'phj $\left.\mu^{\prime} u \not{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} . .^{\circ}\right]$ ('bookish question').
42.14. That is, an interrogative intoneme is added at the end of conclusive intonemes $\left([]+.\left[\circ^{\circ}\right]\right)$, as if it were not real communication, but rather a kind of drill in order to 'identify' a question, and by 'concluding' it -only at the end- with what is thought to be expected (according to the 'rules', ie with an interrogative intoneme).

However, this operation goes against the rules of real communication completely; and practically without distinguishing between total and partial questions. Indeed, even a question like *-What's your "name $\circ^{\circ}$ ? is a classic example, instead of -What's your 'name?:

*-What's your "name $\circ^{\circ}$ ? ('bookish question')
$b\left[\right.$ ¿ $^{-}$wots jo'ne'rm..]
-What's your name? (correct question).
42.15. There is even a difference between ¿-How many 'times shall I say that? a normal partial question, and $\dot{¿}=H o w$ many "times shall I "say that? -a rhetorical
(partial) question, which certainly does not ask for information about the number of times, but instead communicates a meaning like 'Will you obey me at last?' (please, note the emphatic stresses):

¿-How many 'times shall I say that? (normal partial question)

¿=How many "times shall I "say that?! (rhetorical partial question).
42.16. In addition, there can even be a polite partial question ¿-How many times shall I say that? - which uses the unmarked continuative intoneme (after say that) in order to make the question less brusque, as in $\dot{\dot{C}}$-What's the time? - decidedly more suitable, above all with strangers, than $\dot{c}^{-}$What's the time? or ${ }_{\mathrm{c}}{ }^{-W}$ Who is it?:

¿-How many 'times shall I say that? (polite question)

$\dot{c}^{- \text {WWhat's the time? (polite question) }}$
${ }^{6}$ [ e'h $^{-h} \mu \mathrm{u}$ ' 'zut $\cdot$ • [-lur]
$\mathrm{c}^{- \text {Who is it? (polite question) }}$

$\dot{¿}^{-W}$ What's the time? (normal partial question)
${ }^{b}\left[e^{-h} h \mu^{\prime}\right.$ 'zzut..] [-ur..]
$d^{-W}$ Who is it? (normal partial question).
42.17. All this demonstrates that syntactical punctuation and word order are not at all sufficient to determine which kind of intonation is the most appropriate for a given sentence. Besides, if people ask ¿Can you hear me? - their intention is certainly not to check whether their listener's hearing is (still) good, but rather whether it is possible or not to ask them for something, talking normally:

```
b[¿kunju'hımi..]
¿Can you hear me?
```

42.18. Obviously, there are many nuances which can be detected in the various kinds of questions that -every day- we can produce or hear. These questions may be participating, polite, inquisitive, formal, detached, ironic, sarcastic, and so on.

In all these cases, the paraphonic component, with its varied facets, highly modifies canonical intonation patterns, which are -so to say- 'expected', producing mixtures of preintonemes and intonemes, too.

# 43. Intoneme modifications 

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43.1. Even a sentence like Put it on the table can be said with different intentions. In fact, with the conclusive intoneme, it can sound too brusque and impolite, or too familiar and friendly; these nuances are not explained by syntax, but rather by pragmasemantics.

Therefore, often attenuation may be introduced, which can be shown by placing an empty dot at mid height [ 0 ]:


43.2. We have seen above that, for repetition (or incredulity) questions, the intoneme is accentuated. At the end of a conclusive utterance, and especially at the end of a text paragraph, it is frequent and normal to use the accentuation of the conclusive intoneme, too:

43.3. Often, again for pragmasemantic reasons, utterances are specified, when their communicative highlighting -or sentence highlighting- is not on the final part of an utterance (as generally happens), as we have already seen in some previously presented questions. For instance we find a 'normal' intonation group expected according to the tonogram:

43.4. However, one may have to say (possibly even with some emphasis) as an answer to a rather doubtful question about somebody's efficiency or memory:
$b$ [aэv'bo‘t.. „ðə'†hıkıts fəðu'khvnsə†...]
I've 'bought the , tickets for the , concert
$b$ [aэv"bot.. 引əə'†hıkıts fəðurkhonsə†...]
I've "bought the , tickets for the ,concert.
43.5. From a pragmasemantic point of view -for a question like Have you bought the tickets for the concert?- the most likely intonation pattern is:

¿Have you 'bought the , tickets for the ,concert?

This is contrary to school performances and, unfortunately, to most recordings in various teaching courses too, which instead foist absurdities such as:


* ¿Have you -bought the, tickets for the 'concert?

Strictly speaking, a sentence pronounced like that would really mean something like 'Why did you buy the tickets for the concert, you silly idiot!'.
43.6. The best way to attract (much) attention to what somebody is going to say is to use a suspensive intoneme:

If they haven't under,stood, I really don't, know, what to 'do a bout it!

And 'when at, last I 'came, round the ,corner, they were al'ready there.
43.7. Or else to clearly separate the parts of an utterance:

$¿$ ¿Are you going by ,bus, or 'walking?
Or to announce in advance the end of a complete list of items:

'Apples, pears, ,strawberries, 'cherries.
43.8. A suspensive intoneme can even occur at the end of particular incomplete utterances:


43.9. Of course, 'intermediate' degrees are possible:


(with attenuated suspensive intonemes),

$b$ [juvł¹sri wen'qE'ı $\sigma^{\prime} \not \imath^{\prime}$ 'neðr.] You'll 'see one , day or a'nother...
(with continuative intonemes), or:


(with attenuated conclusive intonemes), and:
${ }^{b}$ [a9 ${ }^{-}$durd 'th.faro..] I -did 'try

(with no attenuation of conclusive intonemes).
43.10. Obviously, these examples present different communicative nuances, which are fairly easy to imagine. In addition, some particular words can receive emphasis. Here we will not enter the field of paraphonics, which adds further nuances, ie emotional (eg sadness, shyness, threat...), and social as well (eg skill, supremacy, arrogance...).

Certainly, these characteristics are real and present, in actual communication, but they are even more complex to analyze, describe, and transcribe. This means that it is important both to develop full awareness and to succeed in using a notation system which is fairly appropriate, but obviously not too simple. However, see Part 5 (G 47-49, on Superstructures).
43.11. In English (and, of course, in other languages, as well), according to communicative aims, when there are some implications, quite frequently, a suspensive intoneme may be used (with or without attenuation, or possibly accentuation), or a continuative one.

This use is more likely to be found in phrases like the following, in place of the intoneme that one might infer from writing and syntax:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Hi! } \\
& \text { I'd like a pizza } \\
& \text { Go straight ahead } \\
& \text { Make yourself at home } \\
& \text { Can I have that chair? }
\end{aligned}
$$

43.12. Quite often, the suspensive or continuative intonemes are used -instead of conclusive (or attenuated conclusive) ones- when there is no real planning of what is being said, differently from what actors do with a text they already know and have 'studied', just to render it in the best possible way (and there is a difference - which is quite easily noticed!).

When people talk with no previous planning, in addition to the task of putting together the things to say, another problem arises: trying to avoid being interrupted by their interlocutors, while trying to manage to collect the ideas they want to present.

Thus, using different intonemes from the conclusive one, obviously, also has the aim to try to achieve this very result, and at the same time communicating that the speakers have not finished their exposition yet.
43.13. Another frequent use of non-conclusive intonemes derives from the insecurity -or weak conviction- of the speakers about what they are saying, or towards their interlocutors felt to be 'dominant', by superiority of prestige, role, age...

Often, it is a real behavioral implication -of the speaker, not about the messagewhich conveys 'non-invasiveness', in different mixtures of friendliness, deference, hesitation (precisely with $/ ; /$, or even simply $\mid, /$ ).
43.14. However, sometimes it is actual invasiveness indeed -although not really aggressiveness- due to an excess of liveliness or talkativeness, which prevent the speaker from taking pauses (and almost breathing), with the result that normal conclusive intonemes are practically missing (or are very much attenuated).

On the contrary, more pauses and more conclusive intonemes would give the listener relief.
43.15. Indeed, this use of non-conclusive -ie continuative or suspensive- intonemes includes reported cases of 'rising intonemes' above all for variants of English (firstly from New Zealand, Australia, and the North of England, but now even for the rest of Great Britain, and for Ireland and North America, too), instead of the expected or predictable conclusive intonemes.

Although this phenomenon has been detected and described in the areas just mentioned, it is nevertheless not absent elsewhere, and for other languages, too. Neither is it something absolutely new, but simply something which can show itself more freely, without real drawbacks or excessive social stigma.
43.16. However, the problem of these reports (even of 'high rises', as in total questions!) arises from the fact that, still too often, intonation is dealt with according to the old method of the British school of phonetics, which is mainly based on two opposing types: falling and rising.

However, the British method of intonation had been really innovative and praiseworthy, especially in the first half of the twentieth century, even compared to other schools and methods, still currently followed by some, as the so-called ToBI, which tries to do tonetics by using computers, ie mostly using one's eyes instead of one's ears.
43.17. Unfortunately, the British 'rising' type included both interrogative intonemes (usually: $b\left[\cdot \cdot^{\cdot}\right]$, but also $a\left[\cdot \cdot^{\cdot}\right]$, \&c) and suspensive intonemes (generally: $b\left[\cdot{ }^{\prime} \cdot \cdot\right]$, or ${ }^{a}[\cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot] \llbracket \cdot \cdot^{\prime} \cdot \cdot \rrbracket$, or ${ }^{i}\left[\cdot \cdot^{\prime} \cdot\right] \llbracket \cdot \cdot^{\prime} \cdot \cdot \rrbracket$, and $\left.\llbracket \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \rrbracket \& C\right)$, which really have rising movements on the post-tonic syllables; but clearly on different levels.

In fact, for /?/ the terminal post-tonic syllable is high indeed, whereas for /;/ it remains within the mid band, as can be clearly seen in the tonograms of fig 38.1, fig 38.3, fig 40.1 and fig 41.1-3 (including the 'Oceanian' ones of Australia and New Zealand, as we will see in the chapters of Parts 23-24).

Therefore, these characteristics must absolutely not be combined in descriptions (although this is just what is done, too often).
43.18. The solution to this problem is to adequately separate the 'linguistic' level of intonation (ie the linguistic system proper) from the 'paralinguistic' one (ie paraphonics).

Of course, machines cannot do that, since even environment noises 'are a part' of a sound message for a machine. Rightly, it is up to Natural Tonetics to define in advance an inventory of intonemes and preintonemes, with their actual realizations, in order to be able to separate them from paraphonic superstructures, which are (inevitable, but just) additional.

No doubt, the latter belong to language usage, but not to intonation proper (or linguistic intonation).
43.19. Instead, they belong to paralinguistic intonation. It is quite obvious that rising post-tonic syllables, if modified by an equally rising superstructure, produces the global, 'raw', result consisting in an even more rising movement.

However, the analyst's experience and skill could avoid gross errors such as those of interpreting any pitch movements as if they really belonged to the intonation system of a given language.

On the contrary, they are the (natural and inevitable) result of the combined actions of (true) intonation and paraphonics (according to pragmatic, geographic, and sociolinguistic characteristics).
43.20. For neutral British English, fig 43.1 shows the attenuation mechanism of the three marked intonemes, whereas fig 43.2 shows the accentuation mechanism of the two intonemes which are functionally the most opposing (conclusive and interrogative).

Of course, the same kind of modifications is valid for any other accents of English (and, indeed, for any other languages), even for rising-falling interrogative intonemes, \&c.
fig 43.1. Attenuation of intonemes.

attenuated conclusive $/ .0$ [ [- ${ }^{-} .{ }^{\circ}$ ]
 attenuated interrogative /?o/ $[\cdot 1 \cdot \circ$ 。]

attenuated suspensive /;ol [• . . $\cdot$ ]
fig 43.2. Accentuation of intonemes.

accentuated conclusive /.o/ [• . . . .]


# 44. Parentheses \& quotations 

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44.1. Let us consider fig 44 which shows the diagram of parenthetic phrases (which can be low or mid, as we will see presently) and of quotations. Here we will illustrate parentheses and quotations:

First of all -he said- let's consider 'natural' phonetics, as it's properly called.
44.2. Parentheses are characterized by a reduction of stress, an increase in the rate of speech, and low or mid compression; whereas quotations have an increase in stress, a reduction of rate and a raising of pitch (without compression). Therefore, quotations are - practically- the opposite of parentheses.

In transcriptions, it is neither necessary nor recommendable to try to show these prosodic peculiarities, not even with regard to stress, which remains marked as usual (without notational reductions, [1], or accentuations, ["]). The symbols [L נ], [ $+\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{t}}$ ], [ ${ }^{1}$ ] $]$ are more than sufficient to bear in mind all these differences, with respect to 'normal' utterances.
44.3. Obviously, quotations must not be confused with 'direct speech' - since, in First of all -he said- let's consider 'natural' phonetics, as it's properly called, only he said would be excluded, because all the rest (and what may follow) is direct speech, indeed.
fig 44. Diagrams of parentheses and quotations.



# 45. Considerations <br> on communicative 'roles' 

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45.1. We have already talked about 'bookish intonation' (see $\$ 40.21$, as well). We will now study in depth even 'bookish questions' (mentioned in $\$ 42.9-14$ ). Considering things from the outside, some typical and recognizable superstructures are fairly easy to find.

As a matter of fact, a bookish question is the sum of a (substantially affirmative) sentence and a (substantially interrogative) communicative function.

They use a conclusive intonation group -ie a normal preintoneme followed by a conclusive intoneme- modified by a role interrogative intoneme: $/ . /+{ }^{‘} / ? /$ ' $[]+.\left[\circ^{\circ}\right]$, without even distinguishing between the two fundamental types of questions - to$\operatorname{tal}(/ \dot{c} ? /[\dot{c} \cdot])$ and partial (/ $\cdot / /[\dot{c} .]$.$) .$
45.2. Contrary to the rules of actual communication, in bookish questions something is stated (which is the literal content of an utterance), and only at the end something else is added like there is a question too (but with no real fusion of the elements).

For that particular task, then, it is not at all important (to try) to realize the two different types of question as in actual speech: it is only a 'task' to perform! (... nothing more.)

Thus, instead of using an interrogative preintoneme and other intonemes fit for conversation, the structure indicated above is provided: /./+/?/ $[\cdot]+\left[\circ^{\circ}\right]$.
45.3. During a lecture on Phonetics, if we give the example of a (partial or total) question without introducing it -as usual- by stating first 'for instance', but saying it exactly as What's the time? or Is it raining? even the most attentive students, at least for a short while, will feel obliged to answer:

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b[¿`'wots дə'†ha`эm..], [-t sə-]
-What's the 'time? or:
```



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Is it 'raining?
```

45.4. However, the situation of a lecture is exactly one of an 'implicative' superstructure or a 'role' superstructure, which makes what is being said clear, so much so that it is often not easy to avoid the tautology that makes one say:

'Let's give an example, for example: $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{z}$.
45.5. It goes without saying, of course, that the intonation examples given during a lecture (or a lesson, or used as a drill) must -or should- aim at spontaneous conversation as far as possible, getting rid of the typical superstructure of the teaching situation.
45.6. Actually, even bookish intonation is a prosodic superstructure, which is added to a whole text presented to someone.

The function of all those monotonous sudden rises within a text (also corresponding to the end of a concept, or a categorical statement, even an emphatic one) is that of communicating that the speaker has not yet finished talking and does not want to be interrupted.

In the case of someone who is reporting something (rather than expressing one's thoughts), like a story or the subject of an oral examination, even an implicit reference to the temporary incompleteness of the text is added; whereas its completion is implied by the final pitch lowering, which opposes the (higher than usual) pitch of the beginning.
45.7. There is even an 'acceptable' version of bookish intonation, which consists of the typical pattern of an exposed text (ie mental, not a read one).

Therefore, it is not a conversation -nor is it a soliloquy- because a superstructure is added which gives the characteristic of a text exposition.

It is recognized by the fact that it presents mechanical and 'regular' pauses (which are never too long), and quite attenuated intonemes, but, most of all, they are 'completed' by slight sudden rises from low to mid pitch, which are indicated by adding [00] after an intoneme.
45.8. We will now give an example and compare it with real bookish intonation:






Thus, in such cases, one must keep calm, follow the instructions, and think long and hard before acting.
45.9. Notice, for exposition, the difference in the relative height reached by [ $0_{0}$ ] (ie lower than $\left[{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}\right]$ ), and the quite normal pitch at the beginning (in comparison with [ ${ }^{\circ}$ ] of bookish intonation).

Furthermore, in bookish intonation, hesitations can be frequent, generally realized as longer than usual unfilled pauses ( $f \$ 36.5-6$ ), but often they may become filled pauses, with autonomous 'syllables': [e, e:, $\Lambda, \Lambda,, 3,3:, m, h m] ~ \& c$, or with
(paraphonic) drawls (not regional ones, such as those typical of the American 'Deep South'):
${ }^{b}$ [bət'IEEn jołthææv †u'weett]
but the-en you'll ha-ave to wai-it...
45.10. A well-done exposition will limit hesitations to the most, unless they are 'intended' to reach two aims: to draw somebody's attention to certain points, or to fake spontaneous speech, as when improvising, in order to be more welcome and seem smarter.
45.11. TV news presents a [ ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ} \circ^{\circ} \circ^{\circ} \circ^{\circ} \circ^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$ ] superstructure, which permits one to identify the beginning and the end of every piece of news.

Good newsreaders restrict themselves to this superstructure, which is necessary and crucial, while accurately avoiding introducing the excessive internal (sudden) rises, which are typical of bookish intonation.
45.12. But, too often, the news is unduly and arbitrarily segmented so that its utterances are even distorted, to the point that they can communicate different -or even opposite- senses, as regards the actual meanings of the information intentions.

Furthermore, these pauses are quite mechanical and short (but, above all, different from those of ordinary conversation), whereas, near the end of a piece of news, there is frequently an interruption between the last stress (ie the one on the tonic syllable) and the preceding one.

All this happens independently from internal cohesion (which would be necessary among the elements), so much so that even a first name is separated from its family name, a verb from its direct object or adverb, and an adjective from its noun, \& c :
*...the famous, opera by Giu'seppe| 'Verdio.
*the efforts to acicelerate the structural reforms| of the e'conomyo.
*...with 'new| pro'posalso.
fig 45. Paraphonic structures of: conversation (A), exposition (в), TV news (C), and bookish intonation (D).

45.13. The last examples show that often the normal structure is irrationally distorted; whereas, in previous points of a piece of news, more often distortions regard cases such as:
*...the 'Cannes | Film Festivalo - instead of:
...the `Cannes 'Film,Festivalo.
45.14. Often, within a piece of news, newsreaders do not keep the end of a sentence separated from the beginning of the next one:
*...they de, cided to 'meet $\mid$ in ${ }^{-}$London they 'also promised... - instead of
...they de, cided to ,meet in London| they -also promised...
(ie ...they de, cided to ,meet in London. They -also 'promised...).
45.15. Obviously, there are many other communicative roles, which must allow people to realize that spoken words are not to be interpreted in a personal way, as among friends or acquaintances.

On the contrary, it must be clear that they are to be interpreted as a part of a role, thus in an absolutely impersonal way, as operator and client. For instance:
a ticket collector: Fares, please!
a postal worker: Good morning!
a switchboard operator: Hello, we-are-the-best-in-the-world!
a shop assistant: Good afternoon, Sir, can I help you?
a stewardess: Flying with us is a pleasure and a guarantee!
a Far-West sheriff: Howdy, stranger!
45.16. Their messages (beyond the expected meaning, which is practically superfluous) want to communicate, above all, 'we are just doing our job, and we want you to know'.

Therefore, the (ticket) collector, the (postal) worker, and the (switchboard) operator will use paraphonic pitch compression: $\langle 0 \mid, /\rangle\langle 0[\cdot]\rangle$, avoiding using a conclusive intoneme.

Whereas, the (shop) assistant, the stewardess, and the sheriff will make use of paraphonic raising, emphatic preintonemes, and again continuative intonemes: $\left\langle{ }^{\circ} / \dot{\lambda}, /\right\rangle\left\langle{ }^{\circ}[\dot{\lambda} \cdot]\right\rangle$ (cf fig 48).
45.17. After all, even every-day greetings among people known by sight, who are not on intimate terms, are just kindnesses, which simply show peaceful coexistence (in comparison to cutting somebody dead). Thus greetings cannot be either omitted, or too friendly:
${ }^{b}\langle\mathrm{o}[$ gob'mo'nın $\left.]\rangle\right\rangle$ good morning
${ }^{b}\langle\mathrm{o}[$ god'rivnıy. $]\rangle$ good 'evening.
45.18. In fact, generally, they are reduced to:
$b\langle\circ[$ 'mornıy $]\rangle$ morning
$b\langle\circ[$ 'rivnı $\cdot]\rangle$ 'evening - or even to:
$b\langle\circ[$ mound $\cdot]\rangle$, and $b \rho_{\circ}[$ iunn $\left.\cdot]\right\rangle$.
45.19. Let us now also consider 'child-like' reading. Everybody can easily recall it and recognize it at once (rather annoyingly). However, this is a 'role', again, with its conditions.

In fact, child-like reading has the typical 'textual' superstructure [ ${ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }_{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }_{0}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}{ }_{0}$ ], with the addition of emphatic stress (but without using an emphatic preintoneme) on each expected rhythm group (but also with more subdivisions that often produce two intonemes instead of only one).

Obviously, even bookish questions (or child-like questions) are included in this pattern. Again they are parts of an utterance which are artificially separated and maintained together only by textual superstructures (not by real conversational strategies).
45.20. Let us give an example, by comparing the structures of conversations with the superstructures of expositions and child-like readings:
 zn , ve.jikhesfəli..l $\dot{c}^{-}$wot duwi'nrid..]




To prepare a tasty vegetable soup, the ingredients must be chosen very carefully. What do we need?
45.21. The (alleged) 'remedy' prescribed by schools, in order to avoid the dullness of child-like reading, leads to flattening (with pitch compression of the internal parts), to increasing rate (with the reduction of many stresses), and to hypo-segmenting utterances (with the suppression of many intonemes, by producing longer stretches), with a loss of the wished expressiveness:


To prepare a tasty vegetable soup, the ingredients must be chosen very carefully. What do we need?

# 46. Considerations on intonation 

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46.1. The fundamental criterion for 'choosing' the appropriate intonemes, for each sentence, consists in the communicative intention of every single sentence, or sometimes of a part of a sentence, which thus receives a certain intoneme, often without an actual pause.

But the absence of pauses must not make people think that the stream of syllables and words is constant and homogeneous: intonation differences are there (indeed!) in spite of the connection among syllables.

Rightly these pitch differences, which are included in the typology of linguistic intonation, convey the nuances of meaning that native speakers instinctively recognize, and thus (re)act accordingly.
46.2. Therefore, it is not sufficient to have a continuative intoneme, which is used mainly for subdividing the speech chain into pragmasemantic sequences. These are of fundamental importance to communicate what people think, in order to interact with others. Thus, one of the three marked intonemes has to be chosen.
46.3. A conclusive intoneme, as we have already seen, adds to the concept being expressed the communicative function of completeness.

An interrogative intoneme adds the function of request, generally with total questions and, occasionally, with clarifying questions, when people have not (fully) understood, or think they cannot believe an interlocutor or their own ears.

Lastly, a suspensive intoneme is used to draw attention to what somebody is going to say (or not to say), or to some more or less relevant alternatives.
46.4. When people are not slave to syntactic punctuation (if any - or at least syntactically appropriate), in order to obtain satisfactory results, it is sufficient to apply the right communicative aim to one's thoughts.

However, it is quite obvious that, if people do not really know the intonation patterns of their own language (ie in a perceptive and productive way as well - not only theoretically), the result will be a performance which is either regional (for native speakers with no falterings or hesitations), or decidedly foreign (if they try to use the patterns of their own language while speaking another language).
46.5. Since some intonemes (and preintonemes) of certain languages may be very different from those of others, or even opposite (or can remind some opposite functions), it is important to consider the provided tonograms very carefully, to compare them with those of one's own mother tongue (or a regional variant of it), if they are available.

Otherwise, it is highly advisable to endeavor to get them, and try to grasp the differences of the tonograms of other languages or those of the neutral (or 'standard') accent of one's own tongue.
46.6. If one is able to sing in tune, the operation proves to be better, but this is not at all indispensable: what is essential is to have the will to make this comparison (if one is convinced).

Certainly, a significant number of speakers of tone languages are 'out of tune', and yet they all use their ton(em)es adequately, as for instance Chinese men and women do (and, of course, children as well, if not very young).
46.7. Obviously, even less clearcut behavior is to be expected. For instance, a question like $¿^{-}$Who ,wrote '-Romeo and \uliet'? -instead of the answer 'Shake-speare-might receive a not too sure one, like ¿'Shakespeare, or even a far less positive one, like ¿Shakespeare... - where the interrogative preintoneme seeks confirmation:


```
\(\dot{¿}\)-Who ,wrote "-Romeo and ソuliet"?
\(b[\) ['Eıkspue..] Shakespeare.
\({ }^{6}\) [¿'Jегkspie..] ¿'Shakespeare.
b['̇'Jerkspıe.] ¿'Shakespeare...
```

46.8. More convinced answers like $\dot{i}$ "Shakespeare! (ie emphatic) or ¡"Shakespeare! (ie imperative) would still be different from 'Shakespeare, in the opposite direction:
${ }^{b}\left[{ }_{\lambda} \|\right.$ Erkspue..] ${ }_{\lambda}$ "Shakespeare!
${ }^{b}[i \| \mathrm{I}=\mathrm{Erkspue}$. ];"Shakespeare!
$b[$ ['Erkspie..] Shakespeare.

