

The communicative value of pauses And Intonation in conveying different meanings.

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Key to symbols

A- Prosodic Symbols

#	tone unit boundary
↘	fall
↗	rise
↘↗	fall-rise
↗↘	rise-fall
.	brief silent pause
-	until silent pause
-- (-)	longer than unit.
ə(m)	brief voiced pause.
ə:(m)	long voiced pause.

B- Other indication symbols

...	more is said.
(())	enclosing
{ }	subordinate
//	enclosing phonetic symbol
[]	move

Abstract

Speakers usually have ways of conveying ideas to the listener. Every turn is dependent on the way and context of situation in which it is taken. Some turns may consist of one word and some are long. Speakers' shifts are varied from smooth to unsmooth shifts; speakers take turns, and speakers cooperate. Spontaneous speech delivered by speakers, and every day language contain various types of hesitation. Questions and answers are the best ways for complete communication.

Speakers can take, keep, and yield the turn according to some signs of attention. Here prosody can play a significant role for arranging conversation and supplying different meanings. Pauses are brief and, intonation may be fall or rise, and so on. Discourse analysis and pragmatics raise particular interest in such conversation analysis, since the ultimate aim of conversation is conveying a clear and understood message to the listener.

1. Introduction

Spoken interaction is the major function of the language. It is a social activity that members of the same society or of different environments can cooperate through together to achieve understanding. Through conversation, it isn't necessary that two speakers can take turn, one speaker may dominate and the other party's participation is reduced to short phrases or even words. The speaker can have particular lexical items that enable him/her to reflect a positive influence upon the smooth flow of conversation.

Speakers usually deliver speech spontaneously; their turns are characterized by tremendous number of hesitations. Pauses whether long, or short, silent, filled, can play a marked role in conveying ideas. Therefore everyday language is not specific; it is general and not fairly intricate. There may be mistaken messages,

false questions, and incomplete utterances. Talking to each other isn't only a matter of pronouncing continuous words. One phrase may have functions, according to the circumstances and environment of speaker and listener. Interaction between people needs active partners. For example if the addresser asks for something, he/she expects that the addressee will act or respond in one way or another, agreeing (or disagreeing) and so on.

The area of discourse carries particular emphasis upon spoken interaction which is related by a dialogue. Since spoken forms of the language require verbal conversation this will involve tone units, which in turn are marked by tone unit boundaries, with or without pauses. The matters are clarified when Sinclair and Coulthard (1975:14) show that there is a great difference between the 'sentence' and the 'act' it is used to perform. The unit of linguistic communication is not the symbol, word or sentence, but the production of those in the performance of an act.

Searle (1969:58) reflects that the theory of language as part of a theory of action; requires completeness of the study of the role of formal features in speech acts, to complement the independent study of form. It is supposed that the performance of speech acts is made possible by certain rules for the use of linguistic elements. Searle reflected the view against behaviorist theories of language use that a speech act is in performed in virtue of the conventional meaning of the sentence used. In common philosophy is not concerned with the conventional devices for promising, requesting, and so son, in a particular language. However, Searle proposes that those devices include, per formative verbs, for example 'I promise' intonation, stress and word order, but with the underlying rules which provide information.

2. Discourse types and interactional categorization

Sarangi (2000:11) denotes that initial categorization is significant in clarifying the force and value of the utterances in their interactional context. For instance the following extract must clarify our analysis without categorization of what the activity is and who the participant are to see how far one can go with an intervening scheme.

Example.1

1. A: Are there any other problems?
2. B: Well, he chews cigarette ends ...[laughs]... It is very difficult to stop him.
3. A: Why are you laughing? Do you thing it's funny?
4. B: No, I don't thing it's funny.
5. A: Well, why did you laugh then; do you always laugh at this? [...].
6. A: So you entirely ignore it when he starts chewing cigarettes?
7. B: No, I don't.
8. A: Well, why did you say you did?
9. B: I didn't.

Without any initial categorization and definition of the situation, what can one inters from the language and its international organization? However, this question-answer sequence suggests that this interaction takes place between a doctor and a mother. The first turn is recognizable as a doctor's query about B's state of health. Therefore B gets increasingly defensive in his/her responses. In turn B the mother reports a problem with her son, which suggests that B's interpretation of A's question is activity-speech in particular. Sarangi reflected view is:

"This episode shows that cross-examination as a discourse type can be appropriated into a range of activity types (into consultation as is

the case here, but also into classroom interaction, mother-child interaction, etc).

Although such appropriations may signal interactional problems, they can be recruited as strategic moves by powerful participants in order to (re) establish a normative interaction order. The doctor through his question of the mother's demeanour, carries out an implicit definition of the clinic situation, and points to what constitutes allowable contribution within it. An allowable contribution thus comprises not only 'What is said' but also 'how something is said' when and where".

On the other hand, Gee (1999:88) observes that it is possible to get incredibly detailed records of speech that include small pauses, slight hesitations, subtle changes in sound, pitch, rate, and loudness. Besides, there are close synchronization of overlaps between speakers. Any speech data can be transcribed in more or less detailed ways such that we get a continuum of possible transcripts to much less detailed ones.

Meaning is not merely a matter of deciding grammar, is it also a matter of knowing which of the many inferences that one can draw from utterance are relevant. The relevance is a matter deeply tied to context, point of view, and culture. One knows what counts for a given group of people at a given time and place 'relevant' by having been privy to certain 'conversation' those people have had. The sorts of conversation involve a lot more than words, in fact, they involve discourses. Conversation may occur within conversation. There foremore than people and more than language are involved in conversation. They involve at last the following three things:

1. Controversy, that is 'sides' in order to constitute a detail.
2. Values and ways of thinking connected to the detail; and

3. The symbolic value of objects and institutions that are non-verbal participants in the conversation.

2.1 definitions of the basic terms

Through out this study many terms and concepts are mentioned. In order to make a full understanding of these terms, they are mentioned here as threshold for further interpretation, as follows:

1. Discourse analysis: is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the context in which it is used. It is concerned with the study of language in use. It includes attempts to study the organization of language above the sentence or above the clause. (Bahrami, 1999:59).
2. Pragmatics: is a term used to refer to three major parts of semiotics along with semantics and syntax. It is applied to the study of language from the users' point of view, the choices they mark, and the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, besides the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication (Crystal, 2003a: 364).
3. Turn: refers to the opportunity to speak at some point during a conversation. (Yule, 1996b: 127).
4. Adjacency pair: is a sequence of two utterances by different speakers in conversation; the second is a response to the first, e.g. apology, smother; greeting, question: answer; request, accept, (turndown. (Ibid.).
5. Direct speech act: is a speech act where a direct relationship exists between the structure and communicative function in an utterance, e.g. using an interrogative from to ask a question. (Ibid:129).
6. Move: a unit of discourse which may be smaller utterance (i) would consist of two moves:

- a. That's right, Jessica, which gives the teacher's reaction to a correct answer by the student.
 - b. Can you give me another example? Which attempts to elicit another response from the student. (Bahrami, 1999:147).
7. Pause: a short interruption during the production of an utterance. A silent pause contains no vocal sound; filled pause is marked by a hesitation noise such as um or er, verbal pause (Trask, 1996: 259).
8. pitch: refers to different variation of voice which is determined by vocal cords. It indicates whether the speaker is male or female. It conveys a great deal of non-linguistic information about the speaker's emotional state-whether he is calm or angry, whether he is happy or sad. (Ladefoged, 1982:227).
9. Tone: it concerns pitch, which is also implicated in the phenomenon of intonation. When pitch variation functions contrastively within morphemes, it may be described as tone, whereas pitch variation across sentences / utterance is described as intonation. (Carr, 1993:238).
10. Tonicity: refers to the Hallidayan analysis of intonation, the system of options for the location within the tone group of the intonational nucleus. (Trask, 1996:359).
11. Intonational nucleus: refers to the most prominent syllable within an intonational phrase.
12. Intonational phrase: is a structured hierarchy of the intonational constituents in conversation. It is largely reflected in major approaches within pragmatics to operate with a much broader notion than of the tone unit. It is recognized as a utterance span dominated by boundary tones (Crystal, 2003a: 241).

3. speakers' cooperation: rules and principles

Conversation looks like a teamwork. Speakers usually work smoothly only if A and B cooperate; and they have to do so on three levels: interaction, discourse organization, and communication. Both sides: speaker and listener are expected to maintain the basic role for turn taking and to listen carefully when they are not speaking. At the same time they are expected to transfer what they like to transfer in a way that doesn't causes misunderstanding, and to be ready to make inferences from the context, whenever that is required (Roberts, 2000:106).

On the other hand: Stenstrom(1994,18) clarifies that according to the philosopher Grice (1975), conversation should work without problems if speakers follow the maxims which constitute principles of linguistics interaction follows the maxims should include the following:

1. Quantity: make your contribution as informative as is required.
2. Quality: don't say that which you believe is false or that for which you lack adequate evidence.
3. Relation: be relevant.
4. Manner: be perspicuous, brief and orderly; avoid obscurity and ambiguity.

If one of the maxims is violated, the result is that the utterance acquires a new meaning in addition to the literal meaning. This new meaning which can be inferred from the contextual situation is conversational implications such as this example:

[1] A: Actually you'll probably get a car.

Won't you {as soon as you GET there #} #

B: can't Drive #

B's response violates the relevance maxim and possibly the manner maxim; however can't Drive is definitely not a direct answer to the

question; it is neither 'yes' nor 'no'. B means what she says, but she also means something more. What she means without saying it is her intended implicature, which is likely to be probably not (since I cant drive). In most cases A's intended implicative agrees with B's perceived implicative, i.e. B's interpretation.

Hasan (2000:29) maintains that there is another principle that enables a smooth conversation; it is Sperbar and Wilson's (1986) principle of relevance. According to this principle an utterance is 'relevant' if it fits the actual topical framework by adding something extra to the context and if it shows the speaker's intention. The hearer has the smallest possible processing effort and the reason for misunderstanding is minimal.

3.1 Major Elements Influencing Function

Senstromc (1994:21) observes that discourse function can be defined as "what an item does in the discourse from a programmatic point of view" there fore those elements are significant for understanding implicit meaning.

position and function

The position of words as a combination of words has different functions whether the words occur of the very beginning of a turn, as the second item within the turn or at the very end.

For example, observe, ok, and, right in different positions:

[2] – Beginning the turn ↘

B: that ə:m – Bill POTTERTON # wants us to go round on
 ↘ Sunday AFTERNOON #

A: Ok # yes that's FINE #

– Second position ↘

A: I'll see you at HOME #

B: Yes # ok # it's about seven THIRTY # isN'T it #

– Within the turn

A:....and now SUDDENLY Y= that half is GONE # – – ok # /ai/
It's FREENING #

– ENd of turn

B: I want to get the other SIDE # before half past Five # –. Ok #

Ok at the beginning of the turn expresses agreement. Ok in the second position emphasizes the agreement expressed by YES. Ok within the turn introduces a concluding remark. Ok at the beginning of the turn asks for conformation. (Ibid:22).

3.1.2 Form and Function: utterance vs. discourse act

Verschueren (1999:22) affirms that there is no direct relationship between syntactic form and communicative function. In fact, depending on the situation, there are basic communicative functions or discourse acts as follows:

	Examples	Sentence form	Sentence type	Communicative function
1.	The door is open	SVC	Declarative	Statement
2.	Is the door open	VSC	Interrogative	Question
3.	Open the door	VO	Imperative	Command

3.1.3 Context and Function: literal /vs/ pragmatic

yule (1996:6) denotes that formal systems of analysis are often derived from logic. They have dominated for a long period in the study of language. However modern studies have emphasized abstract principles that lie at the very core of language. Consequently, linguists and philosophers of language have investigated the syntactic and pragmatic analysis. There is a big

difference between the basic literal meaning of a sentence utterance in isolation and the pragmatic meaning which depends on the situational context in which the utterance occurs. Observe this example:

[3] The bottle of ketchup ran up to Mary.

Semantically, a verb like 'ran up to' requires something animate, whereas a 'bottle of ketchup' would be inanimate. Therefore the structure is not correct, but meaning depends on a sequence of events being described. And it is expected that a bottle of ketchup may be a symbol for somebody.

4. Prosody and function

Tonicity and transcription

Units and transcription system are developed at constant and Potsdam universities (setting, M Auer, P, Barden, B, Bergmann, J, cuper-Kuhlen, E, Gunthner, S, Meier, C, Quasthoff, and chmann, S. (1998). Gee(1999:88) shows that it is possible to get an incredible record of speech that includes small pauses, slight hesitations, subtle changes in sound, pitch and interaction. It is interesting to believe that such detailed records represent some pure, objective, and analyzed reality.

Indeed they are not so; speech always has a more details in it than recording or transcription systems could ever capture or that the human ear can hear.

A discovery analysis is based on the details of speech or writing that are arguably deemed relevant in the situation and that are relevant to the arguments the analyst is attempting to make. A discourse analysis is not based on all these that might, in some conceivable context, be meaningfull or might to be meaningful in analysis with different purposes.

Any speech data can be transcribed in more or less detailed ways that one gets a continuum of possible transcripts ranging from very detailed transcripts to much less detailed ones.

The linguists, details of transcribes are represented in the symbols that are used. For example double slash ("/") indicates that the tone unit is said with a 'final contour'.

However, Roberts (2000:117) clarifies that pitch may vary from high to low in a tone unit, and that makes different meanings. Therefore words that are capitalized are emphatic; are said with extra stress. Low pitch means that the preceding unit was said with an overall low pitch and so on.

Tonicity refers to the placement of tone in a tone unit. The same item in the same position but in different turns may or may not carry an unclear tone.

Compare now and NOW:

[4a] A: now if you could only get THAT onto tape # that would be very INTERESTING #.

[4b] A: NOW #. What was I going to Do # seize a CiGARIEttE #.

Both now and NOW serve as turn initiators i.e. uttered in a separate tone unit and followed by a pause.

However the direction of the pitch (tone) often plays a significant role. Compare the two examples in the following pair:

[5a] B: ðim shall we say. Would twelve o'clock be OKAY#

A: lovELY#

B: RIGHT#

A: YES

[5b] A: shall we keep those brackets as they ARE #

B: YES #

A: RIGHT

RIGHT, with a rising tone asks for conformation, RIGHT, with a falling tone confirms. The unmarked intonation contour for

declarative utterances, with statement function is falling; that of interrogative with inverted word order has a question function.

A declarative utterance with a rising tone is readily interpreted as a question, like:

[6] B: there's a CASSETTE {GOES with that #} #

A: YEAH #

Without the rising tone, what B says would have been taken as a statement providing information rather than a question asking for information (1bid).

4.1 intonation function

Malmkier (2002: 279) stresses that Brazil (1985:) is the first who emphasises the significance of discovering intonation. The communicative significance of intonation becomes accessible to investigation only when language is being used in the furtherance of some internationally perceived purpose. The act of abstracting the simple sentence away from any isolated it from just those factors on which its intonation feature depends. Intonation is to be regarded as a permanently attributable component of a sentence; it is rather one of the means whereby speakers both acknowledge and exploit the constantly changing state of understanding they share with a hearer or group of hearers.

Therefore, its successful description depends upon its being investigated in context of a general theory of the organization of interactive discourse. The stress patterns of words provide a working template for the communicatively significant segment of discover, the town unit.

The communicative value of prominence and tone choice, value of prominence and tone choice, and of two other variables that are in the tone unit, are all explicated by reference to the here and now state of speaker – hearer understanding. Co-operative behavior

is assumed on the part of both participants so that speakers oriented towards a view of that state which they assume hearers share; and hearers for their part display a general willingness to go along with the assumption. On this basis an either/ or distinction is made between words which, at the moment of utterance in the current interaction, represent a selection from a set of alternatives and are made prominent, and those for which the speaker assumes that there are currently, no alternative. The letters are made non-prominent.

Thus in a straight- forward example of meetings known to take place on Saturday, a response will be:

[7] When is the meeting?

Might be

On Saturday afternoon

But if meetings are known to take place in the afternoon, we might expect:

On SATurday afternoons and EVvenings

They have the identical effect of assigning selective status to the word they belong to. They are different in pitch movement or tone. The communicative value of prominence and tone choice and of two other variables that are available in the tone unit are all explicated by reference to the here- and – now state of speaker – hearer understanding. Co – operate behavior is assumed on the part of both participants, so that speakers are oriented towards a view of that state which – they assume hearers share, and hearers display a general willingness to go along with the assumption.

Crystal (2003b: 232) observes that variation in pitch, and pause combine to provide the spoken equivalent of the visual organization and contrastively of a written text. Question – answer sequences, parenthetical utterances, rhetorical climaxes, and many other features of speech with involve a sequence of sentence are usually signaled through the use of prosodic effects. The intonation system is

considered the most significant prosodic effects that are conveyed through the linguistic use of pitch movement. Different pitch levels or tones are used in particular sequences to express a wide range of meaning. Most intonational effects can be written down only through a special transcription. The most prominent function of intonation are:

1. Emotional: intonation's most obvious role is to express attitudinal meaning – sarcasm, surprise, reserve, etc.
2. Grammatical: intonation helps to identify grammatical structure in speech, performing a role similar to punctuation.
3. Informational: intonation helps to draw attention to what meaning is given and what is new in an utterance.
4. Textual: intonation helps larger units of meaning than the sentence to contrast and cohere. In radio news – reading, paragraphs of information can be shaped by the use of pitch.
5. Psychological: intonation helps people to organize speech into units that are easier to perceive and memorize.
6. Indexical: intonation is an important maker of personal or social feature. Each specialization is easily identified through its distinctive prosody.

4.2 Intonations as a discourse maker

Coulthard (1985: 119) argues that a large or small number of tone groups have linguistic significance in themselves. The occurrence of a tone group boundary at the end of the first clause (b) in the following example suggests a system which oppose the two versions as a semantically relevant choice:

- [8] a- //When I've finished middle march I shall read Adam Bede//
b- // When I've finished middle march //
I shall read Adam bede//

It is as Brazil (1975) describes, that this is a consequence of taking a grammatical view of intonation and that the full significant of intonation can in fact be derived from options associated with each separate tone group. For any tone group a speaker has a fundamental choice between a falling tone and a falling-rising tone, as follows:

[9] a. //When I've finished Middle march // I shall read Adam Bede
//

b. //When I've finished Middlemarch // I shall read Adam Bede //

There are additional meanings that are related by these alternative tone choices. The first utterance is certainly to someone who is expected to know already that the speaker is reading middle march but for whom the speaker's future intentions are an item of news. The second utterance, the question of the speaker's reading Adam Bede, has somehow already arisen and he is offering, as news, information about when he will read it.

4.3 Pause units

Stenstrom (1994:7) shows that pauses reflect the way in which one can structure a message, where he hesitates, where he separates semantic-syntactic chunks and where he breathes. Generally speaking pauses can be said to mark off performative units.

There are two types of pauses, silent and filled. Both vary in length. The standard length unit varies according to the rhythm of each individual speaker. However pause length is relative.

Silent, filled pauses and verbal fillers can occur in combination and they can consequently do the same task in the conversation.

This combination is often met with two lexical items at the beginning of turn which are actually and obviously as follows:

[10] A: ((actually)) I'm going to to / ð i: / ə:m .

ð i: ə:m ð i əm ð i əm ð i əm Turner

thing {with GERALD # } #

Here “actually” serves as a turntaker rather than a way of getting started.

[11] A: I said to ə:m steve. And company # to come -. You #. Sort of after SEVEN #. We.

B: MHM #

A: ə OBVIOUSLY # we we probably aim to – EAT # at - . you know # soon after EIGHT #

Here, “obviously”, also has the test as actually , it serves as a turn taker.

4.4 The hesitation and strategic purposes of pauses

Adler and Rodman (2000:72) admit that sometimes neither syntactic nor semantic rules help us understand the meaning of a message. Some influential communication theories have been developed to explain the pragmatic rules that govern the way words are interpreted and used. However, language allows us to satisfy the basic functions such as describing ideas, making requests, and solving problems but beyond these, the way we use language can also have influences. Other factors reflect our attitudes in more subtle ways. Without interaction a collection of people isn't a group. The explosion of communication technologies has led to the growth of 'virtual groups': people who interact with one another without meeting face to face.

Stenstrom (1994:70) clarifies that silent and filled pauses are used for partly the same, partly different purpose. Obviously only

silent pauses serve as breathing pauses such pauses generally match semantic-syntactic boundaries.

Both silent and filled pauses, often combined, are used for hesitation and for strategic purposes (e.g. taking, holding and yielding the turn), and to mark off units of discourse, e.g. topics and subtopics.

There is a comparison between the combination of silent and filled pauses, as follows:

[12] Hesitation pauses

A: and what will it be.

B: əm - ə: an a peritival small whisky about that size.

[13] strategic pauses

A: So that is the picture

B: ə:m- now this irons that I that I

Thought might be. Worth looking at if carol. Agreed ...

In both cases, the pause combination came at the beginning of a turn. In the first case, what B says is a reaction to what A said, B is offered a drink and cannot make up his mind right away. In the second case, B starts talking about a new topic, using the pauses as a take-off. Some hesitation may of course be involved even here.

The problem with pause units is that hesitations are fairly unpredictable. Speakers hesitate not only at the beginning of a turn before making up their minds, but also in other places in the turn. The pause unit is, therefore, not the ideal unit for describing how one can form an utterance.

Conclusions

In the light of the previous discussion, the following conclusions are arrived at:

1. Spoken interaction is not merely a tool to convey a message between a speaker and a listener. It is based upon well-known rules that show particular strategies for conversation.
2. Prosodic phonology can play a significant role in determining the exact meaning of the speaker by the movement of the tone which is different from one situation to another and it is totally dependent on the state of the speaker.
3. Pauses are recognized by the situation in which they are used. They are necessary required, since they convey different notions that are not easily interpreted unless the speaker and listener can show common knowledge between them.
4. When a sender makes a statement, the receiver must have a response in order to make a decision. Therefore this decision must be in a form showing how to agree, object, or receive information, etc, which requires confirmation that is necessary for any communication.
5. For each sequence, there is a particular arrangement, otherwise the whole meaning is violated and this raises a sort of misunderstanding between two parties or more.
6. Different circumstances can govern the function of spoken phrases. One utterance can have a request, warning or interrogation. The environment and acknowledging receipt of information can distinguish which function is proper in the exact situation.

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