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A THEORY OF PITCH ACCENT IN ENGLISH*

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1. The Function of Pitch

Like most other languages, English has contrasts of pitch. Unlike the pitch contrasts of certain languages, the English contrasts are not "phonemic" in the sense that raising or lowering the pitch of one syllable in a word such as *lower* will change its meaning in the way that replacing /t/ with /d/ will change it, causing it to point to something completely different in the world

beyond language.

This much pitch in English does not do. No other phenomenon in language, however, has more firmly resisted efforts to find out what it does do. In the last two decades, linguists in the United States have attempted to take the garrison by main force. They have based their operations on a set of propositions which may be regarded either as assumptions or as conclusions from the evidence, depending on how far the evidence is credited. Among these propositions are the following:

1. That pitch functions in the same way as the segmental phonemes—the vowels and consonants—and that a sequence of different pitches will produce something potentially meaningful in the same way that a sequence of vowels and consonants may produce a word. In order to manage this, it is necessary to decide when one pitch is different from another. The segmental

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phonemes can be distinguished with relative ease because they are complex: each contains certain "distinctive features," whose presence or absence rather sharply separates one from another. Pitch has only one ingredient, the fundamental frequency of the voice. As a speaker moves up or down the normal range, there is no point at which the ear can detect that one thing ceases to occur and another begins—there is only up and down. So it is impossible to isolate a pitch as one can isolate a segmental phoneme: an untrained listener can identify a prolonged English /s/ without benefit of context; no amount of training will enable him to distinguish one linguistically significant pitch from another, however much prolonged, unless it occurs in context. Relying on contexts chosen for the purpose, analysts have discovered, or invented, "contrastive levels," each level representing a phoneme. Four is the usual number of levels.1

2. That the meaningful something constituted by pitch phonemes is an intonation morph. The morph 231 (numbers refer to the "contrastive levels" of pitch) differs from the morph 221 as lower differs from bower. For those who follow Smith and Trager² the morphs are more complex, including, besides the pitch levels, "terminal junctures," which are ways of going from phrase to phrase or from phrase to silence, and which involve both pitch (direction, not level) and tempo. Such an intonation morph would be 231 %, which can be described phonetically as "mid-low level followed by mid-high level followed by low level followed by

commonplace. For something as inherently unlikely as a bombing,

A A homb wrecked had it

with two A accents, or

A bomb A had wrecked it

with one A accent, on bomb itself, is more probable.

Accent C is anti-assertive. It may be merely lackadaisical, as in a descending series like

It's C never too C late to C

or it may be clearly and even strenuously restrained, as in

D'you think I'm C crazy?

 $Accenl\ B$ means something like 'connectedness' and 'incompleteness.' In the question

B better? Were they

B A better they'd be more acceptable

it is non-terminal and 'connected' to the following Accent A.

Test 14 relates this connectedness to compound words. A live-voice recording of *allorney-al-law* was made. The natural pitch pattern was removed, and the following artificial ones substituted:

- (1) (90) al(110)tor(90)ney-at-(110-90)law
- (2) (90) at(110)torney-at-(110-90)law
- (3) (90) al(110)lorney-(90)al-(110-90)law

The stimuli were mixed with others involving molher-in-law, and

¹ Zellig S. Harris, in Language, XX (1944), 189, marked seven. Rulon Wells, in Language, XXI (1945), 27-39, marked four, as did Kenneth L. Pike in his Inlonation of American English (Ann Arbor, 1945). George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith Jr., in their Outline of English Structure (Norman, Okla., 1951), have followed Pike, and recent texbooks based on the Oulline have propagated the number four. (For advanced classes: Charles F. Hockett, A Course in Modern Linguistics [New York, 1958]; A. A. Hill, Introduction to Linguistic Structures [New York, 1958]; Henry A. Gleason, An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics [New York, 1955]; Velma Pickett, An Introduction to the Study of Grammatical Structures [Glendale, Calif., 1956]. For beginning college classes: Donald J. Lloyd and Harry R. Warfel, American English in Its Cultural Setting [New York, 1956]; W. Nelson Francis, The Structure of American English [New York, 1958]; Paul Roberts, Understanding English [New York, 1958]. At least one for high school: Paul Roberts, Pallerns of English [New York, 1956].) There has been no serious attempt to collect a real corpus of examples to test the theory, nor has it been proved experimentally. For intonational contrasts that the Trager-Smith Oulline fails to account for, see my "Intonation: Levels versus Configurations," Word, VII (1951), 199-210.

² Outline, especially p. 46.

phasis on the utterance as a whole. For this purpose, an item that is ordinarily incapable of receiving it is selected—an auxiliary verb, a preposition, or something of the sort. In the following example there is no contrast between in' and 'out of', nor is there any special attention of any other kind bestowed on the word in; it merely carries a sentence accent which, if it were to fall anywhere else, might be mistaken as contrastive: the speaker refers to someone who had been denied re-entry to the United States because of having worked for the Communist government of Rumania, and says

B Well..

B in fense maintained that B in everybody Rumania worked for the government

The 'separateness' and 'newness' of A may be illustrated by what happens in a narrative. If one is telling a story in which a fog has been introduced, at a later point one may say

B A
fog had deep
The ened

But a B accent for something new and unexpected is unnatural. If we encountered

B A bomb had wrecked it

at all, it would probably be in a time of violence when bombs are

total number of syllables and mechanical placement (in Arnold's terms, p. 440, "TONIC STRONG stress is undoubtedly free and not tied to any given position within the word"), but also other syllables may be raised to the status of potential-carrier when it is desired to lay on more than one accent. This is especially true when one word occupies the dimensions of a whole utterance. Note the successions of AAA and CCA in the following:

It also operates to shift the potential toward the end of a word when the word occupies the climactic position in the sentence, as when Thomas Mitchell said, in a TV program,

you ti
What need is a little adver sing

terminal fall and fade to silence, with a slowing down toward the end." 3

3. That pitch and stress are phonemically independent. It is recognized that changes in stress may affect any level of intonation that happens to be running at the moment, but not, for example, in such a way as to raise a Level 2 pitch to a Level 3 pitch; the changes are phonetically slight and phonemically non-distinctive.

My purpose in this article is to deny the third assumption, and to reverse the roles of stress and pitch. I shall offer evidence that far from being a non-distinctive by-product or a completely independent variable, pitch is our main cue to stress.

2. Earlier Notions of Pitch as a Gue to Stress

The idea that stress may depend on pitch is not new. The experiment of John Muyskens in 1931, using kymographic records, purported to show that the familiar noun-verb pairs like pérmit—permît are distinguished by higher pitches on their stressed syllables. Kenneth L. Pike⁴ and Daniel Jones⁵ demolish this argument by pointing out, in Jones' words, that "it often happens in a language that strong stresses are found on low-pitched syllables and weak stresses on high-pitched syllables." To demonstrate this, all we need to do is turn the permit example into a question: pérmit?

The refutation, however, is based on a persistent fallacy: that in order to serve as a cue to stress, pitch must RISE. Recent discussions and descriptions continue to look for this kind of relationship, and, failing to find it, enter a verdict against pitch in general.

- ³ The analysis of Spanish juncture and intonation made by Stockwell, Bowen, and Silva-Fuenzalida, Language, XXXII (1956), 641-665, which follows Smith and Trager, throws some doubt on the morphemic status of intonation patterns: "A sequence of pitches up to and including a terminal juncture will be referred to as an intonation pattern. Whether or not such a sequence of suprasegmental elements is a morph remains to be demonstrated on the morphological level of analysis" (p. 661). It is hard to see on what basis the levels and junctures are contrastive units, if sequences of them are not morphs.
 - 4 Intonation, pp. 16, 83.
 - ⁵ An Outline of English Phonetics (New York, 1956), § 912 footnote.
- ⁶ Compare G. F. Arnold, "Stress in English Words," Lingua, VI (1957), 226, and K. L. Pike and W. Kindberg, "A Problem in Multiple Stresses," Word, XII (1956), 421.

The experiments that I shall report suggest that it is not pitch RISE, but rather pitch prominence, that is essential to what we react to as stress. By prominence I mean a rapid and relatively wide departure from a smooth or undulating contour. A rise is only one kind of pitch prominence, though it is certainly the commonest kind. In the following simplified diagrams, the "corners," or "sharp points," represented by dots, indicate some of the ways in which a syllable can be made to stand out by means of pitch:

3. Stress and Intensity

According to Bloomfield, "stress—that is, intensity or loudness consists in greater amplitude of sound waves."7 more attention to gestural accompaniments, but he too insists on Nearly all linguists "the objective impression of loudness."8

The latter deals with a complex relationship of stress and pitch in Campa; the wording on the page cited indicates that the investigators gave up associating pitch with stress when it became apparent that HIGH pitch was not systematically related to it. applied to English-I cannot judge its application to Witoto-the following statement would illustrate the current fear of mixing levels: "There is a complex suprasegmental phoneme of stress accompanied by high pitch" (Eugene A. Minor, "Witoto vowel Clusters," International Journal of American Linguistics, XXII [1956], 137)-rather like saying that the dawn breaks accompanied by sunshine. Uriel Weinreich draws my attention to the following from N. I. Žinkin, "The Perception of Stress in Russian Words" (in Russian), Izvestija Akademii pedagogičeskix nauk R. S. F. S. R., LIV (1954), 7-82, page 9: "The claim that under stress the fundamental pitch of the vowel is raised, is subject to doubt This raising should be attributed to sentence intonation, not to word stress. A pronunciation is possible without such Furthermore, whispered pronunciation is possible, where the fundamental pitch ... is excluded altogether." Again pitch is dismissed as a cue to stresss a a result of failure to find a pitch rise.
It is reasonable, of course, to assign to the role of sentence intonation, instead of to stress, a particular manifestation of pitch change, e. g., vise rather than fall. If, however, we find that either a rise or a fall, when certain conditions are met, is responded to as "stress," then we have pitch playing a dual role; I have preferred to keep the two functions intact, labeling them accent. (As for the absence of intonational contrasts in whispered speech, see my speculation on a change of vowel quality to substitute for it, Sludies in Linguistics V [1947], 77, confirmed experimentally by Werner Meyer-Eppler, "Realization of Prosodic Features in Whispered Speech," Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, XXVIII [1956], 760.) These comments, of course, are beside the point if Russian stress and intonation are essentially different from English.

8. The Accents as Morphemes

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The procedure that I have followed in grouping the accents about certain norms has been first to look for similarities and differences in meaning, and then to try to match them with similarities and differences in form. This reverses the approved order of business, but had to be adopted because pitch contours are if anything more fluid than meanings.

To take meaning as the starting point can be justified only if the accents are meaningful units. It assumes that they are morphemes, not phonemes. This assumption holds even in the most restricted sense of accent as mere fact-of-prominence. opposes the current American theory, which is that stresses are meaningless sub-units that build themselves into morphemes ("superfixes") which give, in effect, a phonemic shape to syntax. I regard this view as untenable.38 The older theory, that accent signals emphasis, has been re-stated by Weinreich for Yiddish: phonemic stress within the morpheme (i.e., word stress) is "the place at which relative loudness [sc. pitch change] occurs if the morpheme is emphasized."39 This is to say that stress is phonemic only in the sense that a given syllable and not some other syllable within the morpheme carries the potential for pitch accent. When the accent occurs, it signals emphasis, i.e., is meaningful.

Accent A is assertive. It is used with items that are separately important, contrastive, and/or new to the discourse. It usually singles out the morph on which it falls, but this function of separation ("contour separation" in Pike's terminology) may be absent. I have heard a single syllable given as many as three successive A No o o ol accents:40

Also, instead of singling out one item, the A accent may put em-

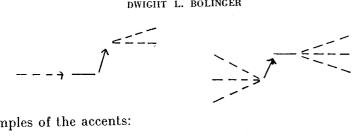
⁷ Leonard Bloomfield, Language (New York, 1933), § 7.3.

Outline, § 909.

³⁸ See my "Stress and Information," American Speech, XXXIII (1958), 5-20, and "Intonation and Grammar," Language Learning, VIII (1957-58), 31-38.

³⁹ Weinreich, "Stress and Word Structure," p. 2. The relevant part of this statement is that accent is not phonemic, whereas potential for pitch accent is. Whether Weinreich is right in not admitting any other kind of word stress than the potential is another matter.
It has been disputed by Stockwell, Language, XXXII (1956), 374-383.

⁴⁰ This freedom to "spread" syllables in order to accommodate more accents reflects a certain degree of freedom in the location of the potential for pitch accent in English. Not only is the normal locus of the potential free, i. e. unpredictable in terms of the



Examples of the accents: Do you really hate your brother? really hate your brother? really hate your brother? really hate your brother? Minimal contrast between A and B really hate your brother? Do you really hate your brother? ly hate your Do you Do you (As if impatiently repeated) really hate your Do you really hate your brother? really hate your brother? Do you A really hate your bro

(An echo question)

really hate your

Do you

have followed this lead.9 The unanimity of their opinion is a roadblock that must be got out of the way before an explanation based on pitch can gain acceptance. The removal will occupy a large part of this article.

I shall refer to intensity, the physical term for amplitude of sound waves, rather than loudness, the psychological impression that varies directly with amplitude, because the experiments are based partly on measurements of intensity. On the other hand, I shall refer to pitch, the psychological term, rather than fundamental frequency, the physical term, for the sake of brevity.

Definition. By stressed syllable I mean one that occurs in an UTTERANCE with the kind of prominence that listeners identify as "stress." The same distinction can be made for English that Charles A. Ferguson makes for Persian: "The syllable on which the stress falls when a given word is uttered in isolation is said to have 'inherent' or 'potential' stress, or simply the word stress. It must be noted that this concept of word stress is essentially morphological. A statement of the type 'The word X in Persian has (word) stress on the third syllable, means in effect that the word X has two alternants, one with stress on the third syllable, one with no stress at all."10 Stress as I use it does not refer to potential, or word, stress, but to stress that is actually there, imposed within an utterance. And for the most part the stress that I shall use as an example is the most prominent one in each of the utterances tested.

EXPERIMENTS BY OTHER INVESTIGATORS. Though a number of competent investigators have expressed doubts about intensity,11 the only recent published experimental study to my

10 "Word Stress in Persian," Language, XXXIII (1957), 124-125. See also Uriel Weinreich, "Stress and Word Structure in Yiddish," in The Field of Yiddish: Studies in Language, Folklore, and Literature (New York, 1954), especially § 3.1.

11 Arnold says (pp. 440-441), "articulatory force is frequently a difficult and, sometimes, an impossible yardstick for the recognition of linguistic stress in English." He is not concerned with the syllable that carries the main stress, but, given that syllable, with predicting where other stresses will fall, which he does on rhythmic principles. His statement therefore is a denial of the importance of intensity not on the main stress, but on the stresses that Smith and Trager would mark with ['] and [']. They, of course, insist on loudness there also.

Using an approach similar to Arnold's, Wiktor Jassem, in "Stress in Modern English,"

⁹ Pike (pp. 83, 96) gives first place to intensity, but allows that duration may be a factor. Trager-Smith (Oulline, § 1.61) correlate stress with loudness, and Edith C. Trager (in General Linguistics, H [1956], 2) says unequivocally, "there is only one component that matters-loudness."

knowledge that calls it into question is "The Linguistic Relevance of Intensity in Stress," by H. Mol and E. M. Uhlenbeck. 12 The authors adduce arguments from Franz Saran (1907), who pointed to the ear's well-known sensitivity to pitch and its relative unresponsiveness to intensity, but who failed to dissuade other phoneticians from their adherence to dynamic stress. Mol and

Bulletin de la Société Polonaise de Linguistique, Fascicule XI, pp. 23-49, is even more positive: "A definition of stress in terms of absolute force (or loudness) is an obvious impossibility. That the absolute breath-force (or loudness) of what are generally termed 'stressed' syllables may, under certain circumstances, be much less than the absolute force (or loudness) of 'unstressed' syllables hardly requires elucidation" (p. 29), and he cites Jespersen's Lehrbuch, p. 116, on this point. For him "the 'tonal accent' [is] wrongly called 'stress" (p. 38).

Both Arnold and Jassem agree with the position that I adopt, which is that there is a special kind of syllabic prominence due to pitch, which should not be confused with other phases of stress.

H. E. Palmer "regards stressed syllables as those which take 'nucleus tones' in contrast to all other syllables which are pronounced with equal or nearly equal force" (quoted by Newman, p. 178; see below). Palmer's nuclei (see his English Intonation [Cambridge, 1922]) are the nearest to the pitch accents that I describe in this article. The principal difference is that the nuclei are sentence stresses (p. 7), and while other syllabic prominences due to pitch are scored in his notation, he lumps them under For example,

contains, for him, a nuclear tone on house, and what precedes is merely a "broken scandent head" (p. 46). As set forth in § 7 of this article, I would put pitch accents on whal, -mark-, and pret-, those on -mark- and pret- being the same as the "nuclear" in Palmer's (p. 39)

on the word spare.

Stanley S. Newman, "On the Stress System of English," Word, II (1946), 171-178, holds to the intensity theory but with reservations: "Altho force of articulation is the primary medium thru which the stress phonemes are externalized, this phonetic feature is not the exclusive medium of stress" (p. 171). He distinguishes between "expressive accents," in which articulatory force is secondary to or at least equaled by pitch and quantity (p. 173), and "stress accents," where intensity predominates. My view differs in that a large part of what Newman puts under the stress accents I would put under the expressive accents.

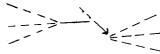
E. A. Glikina, in "An Attempt at an Experimental Study of the Elements of Dynamic Stress (With Reference to English)" (in Russian), Voprosy jazykoznanija, 1958, no. 5, 18-85, showing no awareness of recent laboratory investigations in the United States, and employing no synthetic devices, found that in 250 pronunciations of compounds by native Englishmen, accentual prominence was generally achieved by a combination of intensity, duration and pitch, although any one factor could render the distinction when the others were equal.

12 Lingua, V (1956), 205-213. The same authors adduce other theoretical arguments against intensity in a later article, Lingua, VI (1957), 346.

least as common (the affective nuances need to be correlated as much with dominant social attitudes as with "dialect"). rather sharp deviation, which for semantic reasons I would class as a sub-type of A, puts the accentable syllable at a lower pitch than the one immediately following, but requires that only that one weak syllable remain high—the syllable after it must come An example from a radio dramatization, 37 with down rapidly. accent on out:

I am seldom out my castle

The least common denominator in all A's is the abrupt fall rarely more than two syllables after the accentable syllable. following diagram the arrow represents a skip or skip-like motion, and solid lines denote essential movements while dotted lines indicate optional ones:



Accent C: This is a kind of anti-accent A, both in form and in The accentable syllable is approached from above, meaning. and skipped down to. What follows may level off or rise, but a further fall seems to be avoided:

Accent B: The characteristic of this accent is upmotion. It is neither skipped down to nor skipped down from. It may be approached from below and skipped up to, with the following motion continuing level, or rising (the usual thing), or falling slightly (an abrupt drop would create an A). Or it may be approached from a relative level and skipped up from, after which the movement usually continues upward slightly or levels off. This makes two diagrams necessary:

²⁷ Charles Dickens, The Poor Relation, broadcast from Station WABC, New York, 7:55 P. M., December 24, 1956.

Pike's '4-3-4 contour (pp. 56-57) is an example of this type of A accent compressed on a single syllable, yes and no, prolonged for the purpose.

Because each distinctive accent is thus capable of maintaining its identity despite broader intonational changes, I believe that it is practical to recognize more than the mere fact of prominence, of obtrusion per se, i.e., to describe and identify the different ways of achieving prominence. These are the pitch accents.

Test 13 undertakes to show identifications among similar manifestations of accent in dissimilar intonational settings, and discriminations between dissimilar accents in similar intonational settings. The experimenter arranged the phrase *I did* in the following four ways:

These were presented in 12 separately recorded groups of 3 as an ABX test, i.e., the listeners were asked to match X with whichever of the two preceding stimuli it resembled more. Fattern (1) was present in each set of 3. Six listeners participated. A majority in every instance treated (1) as the orphan. This supports the theory that the four utterances have only two patterns of accent: in (1), the accent is formed by skipping down to the accentable syllable. In (2), (3), and (4) it is formed by moving rapidly down from it.

There seem to be sufficient resemblances and sharp enough differences among accents to group them about three kinds of obtrusion, which I describe and label as follows:

Accent A: A relative leveling off of the accentable syllable followed by a relatively abrupt drop, either within the accentable syllable (which is prolonged for the purpose) or in the immediately following syllable. In very rapid speech the drop may be postponed to the second following syllable, but rarely beyond this. There are affective (intonational) differences between a drop within the accentable syllable and a drop later.

The commonest type of approach ("head" in Palmer's terminology, "precontour" in Pike's) to the A accent in American English is from a lower pitch, with a skip up to the accentable syllable. In British Received Pronunciation, if descriptions are accurate, an approach from a higher pitch would seem to be at

Uhlenbeck experimented with the pérmil—permil pair, altering intensities in such a way that the stresses could not be signaled by them, and finding that nevertheless the stresses were clearly heard. They are perhaps too categorical about the absolute irrelevance of intensity, but their conclusions are probably true as regards its relative importance: "It is obvious that the decoding-system of the ear does not use any amplitude information. The system is concerned with the recognition of shapes or forms." The prominences to which I have referred are, of course, shapes—configurations of pitches.

At about the same time, Dennis Fry was conducting experiments at Haskins Laboratories using similar sets of minimal pairs, to determine whether pitch or duration was the better cue to stress. He had previously used the sets in pitting intensity against duration, and found that duration on the whole is a better cue. 13 The later experiments showed pitch to be superior to duration,

¹³ "Duration and Intensity as Physical Correlates of Linguistic Stress," Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, XXVII (1955), 765ff.; "Experiments in the Perception of Stress," Language and Speech I (1958), 126-152.

In a sense the separation of duration and intensity may be a false dichotomy, if what we are seeking is determinations of "loudness." It is possible that increasing only the duration of a syllable, and not its intensity, may cause at least some hearers to report it as "louder," owing to the integration of intensities over a period of time: where two otherwise identical syllables have the same intensity level but one lasts twice as long as the other, the longer syllable could then be said to have twice as much acoustic energy. Another way of putting it is that there is a point below which the failure to discriminate between changes of intensity and changes of duration is determined biologically (sensory discrimination) rather than culturally (function of naming). Apparently duration does operate in some such way, at threshold-a sound with a given intensity which would be altogether inaudible becomes audible when prolonged (see W. R. Garner and G. A. Miller, "The Masked Threshold of Pure Tones as a Function of Duration," Journal of Experimental Psychology, XXXVII [1947], 293-303). More recent evidence indicates, however, that above threshold, and at durations significant for judgments of syllabic stress, this may no longer hold. The experiments of Irwin Pollack ("Loudness of Periodically Interrupted White Noise," Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, XXX [1958], 181-185) suggest that for noises lasting longer than 1/10 second there is little change in loudness when duration is increased (provided the intervening "silences" are less than 1/3 second—a condition which is handily met in the normal stream of speech); and he refers to another study which sets the critical duration at around 1/20 second. A glance at Fig. 4 will show that durations of syllables normally regarded as stressable are well beyond the 1/20 to 1/10 second minimum, so that a further increase in duration would not create an impression of greater loudness, if these experiments have any bearing. I mention the point only because of the incidental observations in this article about duration and intensity, not because it affects the priority of pitch over intensity, or duration, or durationintensity, however one may choose to look at the latter complex.

³⁶For an example of ABX procedure, see Liberman, Harris, Hoffman, and Griffith, "The Discrimination of Speech Sounds Within and Across Phoneme Boundaries," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, LIV (1957), 358-368.

from which it is reasonable to infer that pitch is superior to intensity.

A more direct attack was made by J M. Cowan, in an experiment whose results have not yet been published but which he has been kind enough to explain in a personal letter. It consists, essentially, in producing speech from which all intensity-control has been cut out. A harmonic-rich tone is fed from an artificial larynx through a tube to the back wall of the pharynx, where the operator, articulating in a whisper, re-emits it. The pitch of the tone is continuously variable; besides the tone-control there is an on-off switch to contrast voicing and non-voicing, but there is no Listeners report very good "stress" control for intensity. contrasts.

Tests 1, 2, and 3: Intensity and Pitch in Natural Speech.

Test 1. The sentence Wouldn't it be easier to wait? was recorded by the experimenter in two patterns of pitch, as seen in Fig. 1. In one (solid line), the syllable wait was "obtruded" from the pitch syllable ea- was obtruded by putting the rapid fall immediately after it, while the syllable wait was "embedded" in the following (This pitch contrast is the same one reported gradual curve. by James Sledd for the sentence Il's ullerly ridiculous, opposing the syllables ut- and -dic-.14) Intensities (peak value on vowel of syllable) were uniform in the four syllables: ea-=wait=ea-= wail.

Eight listeners15 were asked to say whether easier or wait contained the major stress. They had no difficulty, despite the lack of contrast in intensity: the vote in each instance was in favor of the similarly obtruded syllable.

Test 2. Smith and Trager 16 utilize an example that has been widely quoted: The Pennsylvania Railroad is the main Pennsylvania railroad. Without giving further details, it is enough to say (1) that Pennsylvania Railroad and Pennsylvania railroad are supposed to be distinguished by the arrangement of dynamic stresses (loudnesses), and (2) that in both instances in normal speech the principal stress on railroad is supposed to be louder than that on Pennsylvania.

left-hand one and at the trough in the right-hand one, we get entirely different meanings:

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For a contrastive context in which John comes as a potentially new datum, (1) is appropriate: "I wish I knew who did a thing like that." — "It wasn't John (that much I'm sure of, though as to who else it might have been I'm not saying)." is uncomplicated denial; John is not a new datum: "I think it was John." —"It wasn't John—what are you talking about?" This contrast is pointed out by Maria Schubiger. 35 On the other hand, if we take a superficially disparate shape:

and put John at the peak, we again have implications of newdatum and contrast. The over-all similar curves carry something more dissimilar in meaning than the over-all dissimilar curves.

The phonetically similar fact in the two shapes with similar meanings is the way in which the accent is formed: it levels off from whatever kind of motion precedes it, and is followed by an abrupt drop. This differs from the other shape in that there the accent is formed by a drop to the accentable syllable.

Now compare this all-or-none contrast (which is like the one on intrigue in the preceding section) with the gradient differences between

which can be laid on a smooth scale of 'degree of finality'. pitch differences between the first and last in the series are great, but the accents are the same. There is no point along this scale, as there was in the utterance of Test 1 and Test 10 in which the listeners had to make up their minds whether they were or were not hearing a given kind of accent on the word easier, where it is necessary to say "yes" or "no" rather than "more" or "less." The all-or-none is the domain of the pitch accents; the gradient is the domain of intonation.

¹⁴ In Litera, 111 (1956), 38.

¹⁵ Except as otherwise noted, listeners in all experiments were researchers and technicians at Haskins Laboratories.

^{16 § 4.3.}

^{35 &}quot;Again: Fall-Rise Intonations in English," p. 2, reprinted from English Studies, XXXVII (1956). Her example is I hadn't expécted to see him there. She credits "colleagues of University College, London," with having called the contrast to her attention.

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the accent. So in

who!s

I don't know

coming

either know or who's can be accented, depending on which is reduced in this fashion. Similarly

In trigue

can be distinguished as to whether we have a speaker of one dialect saying *intrigue* with one kind of accent (Accent A; see next section) or a speaker of another dialect saying *intrigue* with another kind of accent (Accent C).

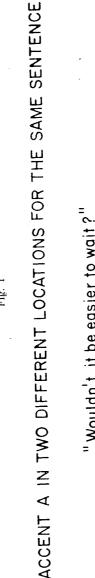
7. PITCH ACCENTS A, B, AND C

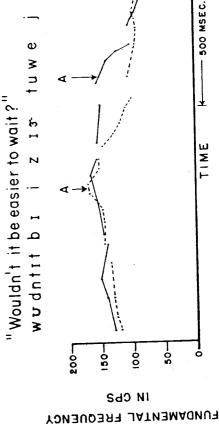
It would be possible to view pitch accent as a matter of obtrusion per se, relegating manners of approach, sustention, and take-off to another level of analysis, i.e., to intonation. This might seem the more advisable now that we know accent to be cued by the same kind of phonetic stimulus that we have always known operated in the sphere of intonation, namely, pitch change, and in view of the obvious difficulty of separating the different manners of achieving accent—apart from the fact of accent itself—from the domain of intonation.

That pitch can function in two equally complex ways at the same time, however, is well demonstrated by the tone-and-intonation languages. Chinese and Japanese use pitch phonemically, and despite this fact have intonations in many ways similar to those of English.³⁴ What happens in English with certain abrupt changes in a wider curve of pitch suggests that the same kind of line can be drawn between the pitch accents and intonation:



Two shapes like these are more alike, superficially, than they are different. Yet if we put an accentable syllable at the kink in the





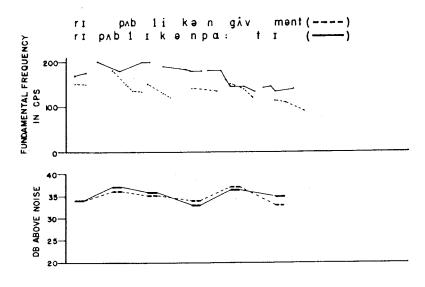
Variants) and its Chinese Equivalents," reprinted from The Ts'ai Yüan P'ei Anniversary Volume (Supplementary Vol. 1 of the Bulletin of the Institute of History and Philology of the Academia Sinica) (Peiping, 1932). See also Isamu Abe, "Intonational Patterns of English and Japanese," Word, XI (1955), 386-398. Weinreich, "Stress and Word Structure," treats stress in similar overlapping functions (phonemic, constructive, contrastive, expressive).

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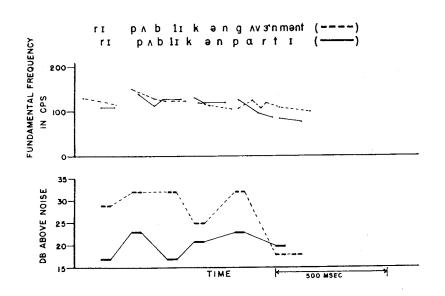
Fig. 2

"Republican Party" vs "Republican government"

SPEAKER A



SPEAKER B



hiccup (Oulline § 920, footnote)—other than the one carrying the potential for pitch accent tends to be unstable. This is demonstrated by the history of loanwords in which the potential for pitch accent shifts its position. The nouns hurricane, program, crayon, address, rupee, caravan, and mascol were imported with the potential on the final syllable. They accommodated themselves to the normal accentual pattern of English nouns by shifting the potential forward. The syllable originally having the potential, however, did not lose its length immediately; for some speakers it is still long; for others it is short, with correspondingly centralized vowel (the ACD recognizes both stages for máscol, the earlier uncentralized [D] and the later centralized shwa); for others it wavers. Turquoise has shifted without losing length, perhaps because of some speakers, and have not had time to lose their length (which is furthermore supported rhythmically in Porluguese). This "medial stress" in many other words is uncertain: cánton, cóncert, ínfiděl, récord, convent, taboo, ancèstor.

- 3. A short syllable to which the potential is shifted becomes long. I do not have measurements of this, but the evidence of vowel-decentralization seems clear enough: pecan, from [pi-] in pecán to [pi:-] in pécàn, in the dialects that have the latter; verb survėy [sarivei] giving noun súrvėy [lsarvei], etc. Verb-based nouns such as cóme-òn, cómbine, impòrt, pérvèrt, discàrd, and tránsfèr (or tránsfer) are typical. A favorite among linguists is the verb to segment (or ségment), from the noun ségment, with shwa.
- 4. A long syllable other than the one carrying the potential is often the syllable that carries the potential in a cognate or popularly associated word—the pitch accent here is an indirect source of length. Newman lists 33 many examples of this "underlying theme" relationship: $n\`{a}turalization \sim n\'{a}turalize$; $mal\`{e}rialistic \sim$ malérial. In citation forms, and sometimes elsewhere, the syllable in question actually develops a secondary pitch accent.

If my assumption is correct, the speaker has the gradient covariable of duration at his command in any case of ambiguity: by reducing the syllable (and also centralizing the vowel somewhat), he throws the balance toward another syllable as the receiver of

³³ Pp. 184-185. I would add most if not all of his examples of "sonorous weak" (pp. 186-187) : légality ∞ légal, vibration ∞ vibrate, inculcation ∞ inculcate.

A THEORY OF PITCH ACCENT IN ENGLISH

The English speaker's knowledge of the the accents are laid. individual morphs and of morph and syllable types of his language gives permanent cues that serve as a foil to the phonetic nonce cues of pitch.32

Looking a little farther, however, we find that pitch accent depends also on certain other phonetic cues, nonce like itself, of which one is especially important: duration. From the synchronic standpoint, duration is to a large extent a co-variable with accent. From the diachronic standpoint, duration accounts in part for how the unaccentables got that way.

A pitch obtrusion requires time for its execution. When the pitch accent is embraced completely by a single syllable, the syllable is lengthened to accommodate the necessary range of pitches; so go is probably longer in the first than in the second of the following two examples:

When did you go \

When did you

there?

And the second is in turn longer than the go of

When did you go

in which go is embedded in what precedes the accent.

The experiments have made it clear that in the duration-pitch complex it is pitch that primarily signals accent. I therefore assume that duration is ancillary. Figuratively speaking, it is there IN ORDER TO make room for the accent (though I would not This is supported by say that duration has no other function). the following considerations:

- 1. Accented syllables are normally longer than unaccented ones in comparable positions within the utterance (i.e., in reference to junctures). (Cf. Jones, Oulline, § 870.)
- 2. A long syllable—and here I follow Jones in assigning to length and concomitant vowel quality rather than to intensity the prominence of the "medial stress" in words like asphalt, leapot,

As a less complicated example, since Pennsylvania contains what is usually marked as a secondary stress, I substituted the word republican in two contexts, which I infer to be analogous to those of Pennsylvania: (1) He's a Methodist and belongs to the Republican Parly and (2) It's too bad that Spain doesn't have a more republican government. This test is reported more fully elsewhere,17 but I reproduce the tracings in Fig. 2 to show a visual display of pitches in natural speech.

Six speakers recorded the two sentences. Only two could be judged by ear to have made a distinction between Republican and republican; the others apparently inferred a contrast with Democratic. Spectrograms were made of the phrases Republican Party and republican government as uttered by these two speakers. The pitch and intensity information appears in Fig. 2.

As the curves show, there are two kinds of pitch prominence. In Republican Parly (solid line), the syllable -pub- stands out by reason of being skipped up to; after that the line remains fairly uniform until the syllable Par-, where there is a sharp drop. republican government (dotted line), however, -pub- is obtruded both by an upskip and by following rapid downmotion, and gov- is obtruded in the same way.

The information from the intensity profile is irrelevant, and in one instance actually runs counter to the Smith-Trager markings: Speaker A gives slightly more intensity to -pub- than to Par-. His recording gave no impression of a contrastive stress.

Test 3. In a suggestive article comparing German and English intonation patterns,18 Hugo Mueller observes that English numeral-plus-noun combinations tend to place the numeral on a higher pitch than the noun. He follows the Smith-Trager pitchand-stress markings, giving an example such as 2Thal look 3lwênly minules1#, and interprets as follows: "In English, the number tends to have the highest pitch in the phrase, although it does not bear the strongest stress."

I judge this description to be correct as regards pitch. I would generalize it, however, to refer to all QUANTIFYING MODIFIERS, i.e., modifiers that show an amount or degree of something rather than a characteristic that distinguishes it from other things. I would expect the word single in I couldn't contribute because I

^{*2} The fact that the speaker must know the morphs disposes of the suggestion, often made, that nonsense syllables be used to test these patterns. The suggestion is a plausible one, for the worst obstacle to agreement about pitch stimuli is that there are always syntactic, morphological, and other cues present, and untrained listeners are apt to go off on a tangent, while trained listeners are apt to interpret them in terms of their training. Tests in which everything is stripped off except pitch would seem to be an answer; but, as I have tried to show, they will not work with the pitch accents.

¹⁷ In my article "On Certain Functions of Accents A and B," Lilera, IV (1957),

^{18 &}quot;Some German Intonation Patterns and Their Relation to Stress," Modern Language Journal, XL (1956), 28-30.

was flat broke; I didn't have a single dollar to show the same trait as twenty in Mueller's example, and to contrast with the word single in a context where it is differentiating, e.g. I'd have been glad to contribute if I'd had a single dollar, but all I had was some small change and a five-spot.

This contrast with single was put to seven speakers, and the majority confirmed the predicted arrangements of pitch as judged by ear. An analogous contrast was made use of for more precise measurement: the word solid in the sentences I waited a solid hour on that cold street corner and [How come it doesn't bend?] Because it has such a solid frame. As this experiment is also reported in detail elsewhere, 19 I shall limit myself to the results that bear on the question of intensity:

Of six speakers, three produced both utterances as predicted (all six did solid hour as predicted). Pitch and intensity were measured for these three. Peak intensities for the three syllables of solid hour were as follows, in decibels above noise: 27-30-31; 34-32-35; 35-30-32. In only one of the three is hour, supposed to be the "strongest" stress, different by more than 1 db from both of the other syllables—this is the third example—and there it is 3 db less than sol-. It is obvious that the hearer is getting no information from intensity here.

Tests 4, 5, 6, and 7: Intensity and Pitch in Synthetic Speech.

The Voback is a machine developed at Haskins Laboratories²⁰ enabling the experimenter to apply varying pitches or intensities to an artificial spectrogram by means of a hand-drawn pattern. For experimental purposes it has several advantages over natural speech; it is more flexible, for example, in that the pitch can be controlled within a fraction of a cycle per second, and in that a synthetic utterance can be stopped and held at any point to read off the precise pitch or to listen to any characteristic of the painted pattern. Spectrograms of natural speech will not yield precise information about pitch in jumps smaller than about 4 cps, and the effect of stopping a tape recorder is, of course, silence. The recordings used in the tests about to be described were made by the Voback.

dai-, on -dzes-, or on -lo-, assuming that he has learned to respond to pitch prominence in a general way. This does not bother the adult, who knows that only -dzes- can receive the pitch accent, and is accordingly able to respond to and produce more than one kind of pitch accent using the same phonetic data—high pitch, fall, and rise—differing only in the location of the accentable syllable on the configuration.

The question is, how does the adult know that only the one syllable is accentable, since pitch contrasts like those of the two examples did not give him this information as a learner? The answer is that it is a matter of frequency. About 70 percent of the time, the accented syllable is what might be called a cliff-hanger—it is obtruded by means of a subsequent fall in pitch.³¹ Most of these—virtually all of them when they are citation forms and a large majority under other conditions of special emphasis (conditions under which learning is most likely to take place)—are skipped up to as well. With sufficient normal contexts of the type

Cu ges cumbers are indi tible

it does not matter that the pitch relationships are occasionally reversed, for the syllables cu- and -ges- will have been learned quite early as the potentials for pitch accent in their respective words. Thereafter other obtrusions, with different meanings, become possible.

The reverse of the coin is the almost unbroken regularity with which certain segments are NOT obtruded, They are learned as "generally unaccented," and this expectation enables them to be used in locations of great pitch prominence without being understood as accented; for instance the stopgap subject there in

There

wasn't any trouble

Similarly, certain syllable types are stigmatized as unaccentable. Typically these include the syllabic consonants and shwa, in words such as dictum, turtle, warden, satchel, and forward. A different syllable type flanked by these is in no danger of being misinterpreted, whatever the pitch direction.

Such is the built-in repertory of the language, on top of which

[&]quot;On Certain Functions of Accents A and B," pp. 81-83.

²⁰ See John M. Borst and Franklin S. Cooper, "Speech Research Devices Based on a Channel Vocoder," Journal of the Acoustical Society of America, XXIX (1957), 777.

³¹ I derive this percentage from Pike, *Intonation*, whose examination of 804 contours (p. 159) in three sample texts (p. 150) yielded 559 in which the syllable marked with stress was dropped away from (pp. 157-158).

accept the downward syllabic prominence, but not always to interpret it as something "stressed."

What emerges from this is that while prominence as such gives the accent, accents are of more than one kind. It is best then to speak of PITCH ACCENTS, in the plural, and to look for kinships and differences. The search will also illumine that other part of the accentual complex, the unaccentable syllable.

6. Favored Accents and the Learning of Accentual Structure

Of the two arrangements of Il's the man who broke it (p. 18), one gives who the same kind of pitch prominence that man has in the other. If accent were a matter of pitch only, who would have the same kind of accent as man. But I have used who as a means of warding off an accent, not of itself acquiring one, and referred to it as "unaccentable." There is an apparent contradiction.

The explanation probably lies in the manner in which the lexicon is learned. A child confronted with the two patterns

would have no cue, from pitch, to tell whether the accent is on

to have "a protesting or exclamatory character" (English Intonation, p. 80). Jassem regards

You've de serted him?

as "stupefaction, surprise combined with either incredulity or disapproval" (Inlonation of Conversational English [Wrocław, 1952], p. 29). The verbal context does suggest this, of course, but the speakers are probably restraining themselves. The words and pitches pulling against each other are reminiscent of familiar paradoxes of literature, "an icy smile," "a cheerless laugh." For Maria Schubiger, English Intonation: Its Form and Function (Tübingen, 1958), the lowered pitches are "regardful."

³⁰ Actually this is not quite true. Who may be accented as a means of affirmation. Normally the configuration would differ slightly from the way it was set forth in § 5 above: specifically, the who would rise in pitch above what precedes:

'He is the very person who did it,' analogous to the rise in pitch on other function words for the same purpose of affirmation, commonest in the auxiliary verbs, e. g.

but also found on other words:

Note the example in Rumania, text § 8. But these instances are too infrequent to matter in the stigmatizing of most function words as unaccentables.

- Test 4. The synthetic sentence *Break both apart* was given various treatments of intensity and pitch, designed to throw stress on one or another element. Seven listeners were asked simply to indicate the syllable or syllables that they heard as stressed. Here are some of the stimuli and their results:
- 1. Syllables break and -part given an inflected pitch of 120 cps dropping to 100 (about 3 semitones), other syllables held at 100. Syllable both 10.5 db more intense than break (at least "twice as loud"), and 7.5 db more intense than -part. Majority hear stress on -part.
- 2. Syllable break inflected, 120-100 cps, other syllables at 100 cps monotone. Both 11 db more intense than break, 9 db more intense than -part. Majority hear stress on both. A massive increase in intensity overcomes a comparatively small inflection of pitch, in this particular pitch pattern.
- 3. Syllable break at 120 cps, rest at 100 cps. Both 2 db more intense than break and 1 db more intense than -parl. A large majority hear stress on break. The smaller difference of intensity is overwhelmed by the difference of pitch.
- 4. All syllables at 80 cps monotone. Break 10.5 db more intense than both and -part. A small majority hear stress on break. The massive increase of intensity here does not do as well as the comparatively small rise of pitch in (3), in putting the stress on break.
- 5. Syllable both given an inflected pitch of 90-80 cps, the rest at 80 cps monotone. Syllable both 6 db Less intense than break and -part, but heard as stressed by the majority.

Other patterns and treatments could be listed, but these are typical, and indicate the ease with which changes in pitch register as stress and the difficulty that changes of intensity have in competing with them.

Test 5 is designed to show the relative power of certain changes of pitch and intensity. The synthetic sentence Many are laught to breathe through the nose was played at a monotone, and without manipulations of its intensities, to six listeners, to find how they considered it to be stressed. In 7 out of 12 judgments they favored breathe (3 many, and 1 each nose and taught). Knowing that the listeners already favored breathe, the experimenter now set about increasing the preference by adding intensity to this word, making

it 3 to 7 db more intense than *laught* or *nose*.²¹ The object was to see how it would fare when changes of pitch were applied to these two other words.

The word taught was given 12 simple rises of pitch in 5 cps steps from 95 to 150 cps, the rest of the sentence being kept at a 90 cps monotone. The same treatment was given to nose, and in addition, the entire series was done again on nose with an inflected rise instead of a simple rise, the first half of the syllable being at the higher pitch and the second half at the reference pitch. Responses of the six listeners to the stimuli are shown in Fig. 3.²²

A pitch rise of from 5 cps (less than a diatonic semitone) to 15 cps (less than a minor third) is sufficient to overcome both the initial bias in favor of *breathe* and its added intensity.

Test 6. The Smith-Trager system allows for rises in pitch associated with stress, but considers them "allophones of the pitch phonemes." One to whom this point of view has become second nature is likely to say, "Of course if pitch rises when intensity rises, the hearer who is given a stimulus in which there is a change in pitch automatically interprets it as a change in intensity; the pitch is only an indirect cue to the stress, but since it is the only cue present, it becomes effective." That is to say, a feedback is assumed from pitch, through intensity, to stress. While this argument hardly refutes the experiments where both pitch cues and intensity cues are present, it needs to be tested for whatever other plausibility it may have. This can be accomplished by asking the question in reverse: "When there are changes in intensity, can they be heard as changes in pitch?" If the answer is yes, this means that the gun shoots both ways.

The synthetic sentences Break both apart and But would many return? were given various treatments of pitch and intensity, including some in which the utterance was held at a monotone but one syllable was given an increase of intensity, and others in which the same utterance had both pitch and intensity changes.

²³ P. 43.

Test 12 shows this graphically. From the hand-drawn patterns of undertaking in Test 8, the one was chosen which had shown the clearest bias in favor of un- (the last pattern in Fig. 4). This pattern was then given pitch treatments similar to those in Test 5, with successive 5 cps rises on the syllable -la-. In addition to the upward obtrusion, downward obtrusions also in 5 cps steps were put on the same syllable. The resulting stimuli, randomized and mixed with other stimuli, were played to 46 naive listeners at the University of Connecticut. The data are schematized in Fig. 7. The top diagram, representing the upward obtrusions, is similar to those of Fig. 3. The bottom diagram, representing the downward obtrusions, leaves little doubt that a prominence in that direction is effective, but also makes it clear that upward obtrusions are superior to downward ones.

The hypothesis that I advance to account for at least part of the difference in effectiveness between the two directions is that when we ask listeners to point to a "stress," and then give them a downward obtrusion, we miscue them. Downward obtrusions give perfectly normal syllabic prominences, as the judgments of Test 11 prove. But "stress" popularly means being emphatic about something. The downward obtrusion seems to contradict this. Its use in situations where gentleness or restraint is called for is widely recognized.²⁹ Listeners are therefore willing to

29 Pike (Intenation, § 4.3.1) gives 'encouragement' as the meaning of

0 ka

I have pointed out the frequency of the low pitch in questions addressed to a stranger, in "The Intonation of Accosting Questions," *English Studies*, XXIX (1948), 109-144. In Test 7 (text, above), listeners were apparently more reluctant to approve of added intensity on the bottom pitch than on higher pitches, suggesting a preference for "softness" there. Jones notes (§ 1069) that *All right* is usually

All righ

and that if the directions are reversed one "may have the effect of a threat." Fred W. Householder, Jr., calls my attention to an example by Martin Joos involving a full answer to a yes-no question: in response to Is this an ashtray? it would probably be

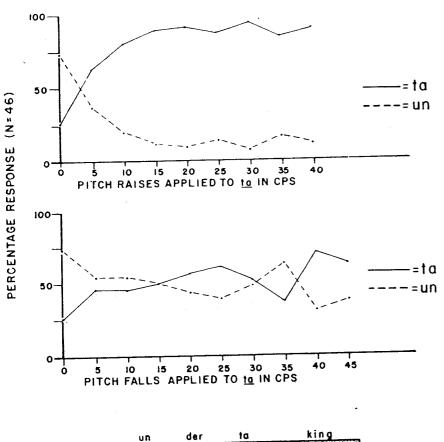
Ye^S it's

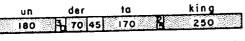
He suggests the meaning 'de-emphasis or restraint.' Palmer and Jassem, however, take their metaphors literally. Palmer considers

²¹ The 3-7 fluctuation was not intended, but resulted from an inherent characteristic of the Voback.

²² It should not be necessary to point out that normal precautions were taken in administering this and other tests. The stimuli were randomized and four other stimuli, two with pitch changes on many, were introduced to divert attention from the systematic changes lest the hearers assume that breathe, taught, and nose were the only words that could contain the major stress.

VARIABLE PITCH VS CONSTANT INTENSITY - DURATION AS A CUE TO LOCATION OF SYLLABLE STRESS

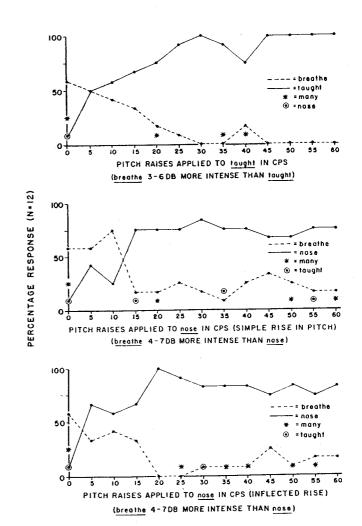


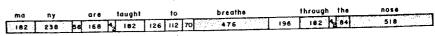


DURATION IN MSEC.
(CONSTANT FOR ALL TEST STIMULI)

Fig. 3

VARIABLE PITCH VS CONSTANT INTENSITY - DURATION
AS A CUE TO LOCATION OF SENTENCE STRESS





DURATION IN MSEC. (CONSTANT FOR ALL TEST STIMULI)

The listeners were asked to indicate the syllables that went higher or lower in pitch than the reference level.

Responses showed a tendency to hear a marked rise in intensity as a rise in pitch, when the stimulus was actually a monotone. This tells us that it is just as possible to mistake a change in intensity for a change in pitch as it is to mistake a change in pitch for a change in intensity. The feedback works both ways.

On the other hand, the responses showed no tendency to hear even a large prop in intensity as a drop in pitch. Instead, the subjective impression was that of some external interference, as if the speaker had turned his face away or the wind had suddenly snatched part of a word. Intensity seems to be significant only when it rises—as we would expect if it were a voice qualifier rather than something linguistic in the narrower sense. Configurations of pitch work in either direction—up or down; in fact, some of the listeners responded to changes in pitch without knowing which way they went. Pitch is again the more reliable cue, in respect of this greater flexibility.

Test 7. Assuming now what seems to have been amply demonstrated—that intensity is at best unnecessary as a cue to stress and that pitch alone will serve so long as an utterance is kept reasonably close to the normal range of intensity and duration—one may ask whether intensity perhaps at least contributes to the quality of a stress, to making it "sound right." To inform ourselves on this point, we devised a test the results of which are published in another journal²⁴ and will merely be summarized here.

The synthetic sentence Alexander's an intelligent conversationalist was given pitch-marked stresses at points where the intensity was below the maximum for the utterance. Boosts of intensity were then applied at those points, and the resulting stimuli, with and without added intensity, were judged for quality by 62 listeners. Minimum intensities turned out to be slightly preferred to small additions of intensity; small additions were somewhat preferred over large additions of intensity; and the greatest preference was shown for no addition of intensity as against large additions.

Copies were made of the recording. In one copy, the second go on was cut out, and the remainder constituted Stimulus II. In the other copy, everything was eliminated except Go on, go on. A second voice now recorded a long passage which was interrupted in the middle, at which point the Go on, go on was inserted, whereupon the second voice resumed. The effect was that of someone reading, stopping before reaching the end, being urged by another person to continue, and finally completing what was begun. This interchange constituted Stimulus I.

The listeners were asked to indicate which word carried the accent (instructions were explicit, using the terms stress, accent, and emphasis, to avoid a possible tendency to judge phonetically without regard to context), and also to say whether what they heard sounded like normal English. Three groups of varying degrees of sophistication participated: A, Laboratory staff and researchers; B, a class in Spanish phonology; C, a sophomore-level college class. Responses are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Judgments of Accent and Acceptability in Two Contexts of go on. (In Group B the same two marked "not normal" as marked δn ; in Group C, however, none of those who marked "not normal" were among those who were judging 'continue' as go δn . There is therefore no correlation here.)

Group	Stimulus I 'continue'				Stimulus II 'rely on'			
	Accent on		Normal?		Accent on		Normal?	
	go	on	yes	no	go	on	yes	no
Α	5	4	9	0	8	1	9	0
В	4	2	9	2	6	0	6	0
С	19	5	16	8	20	4	18	6
Totals	28	11	29	10	34	5	33	6

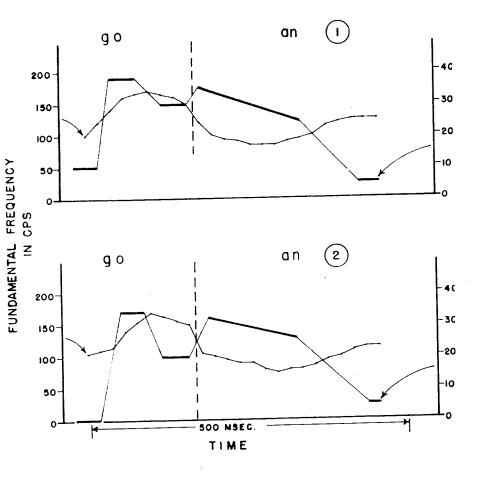
The experimenter's judgment that both instances are normal was confirmed. On the other hand, the greater tendency to locate the accent as go on for 'continue' and go on for 'rely on', while probably significant, is certainly not impressive. In all three groups the majority marked go in both instances. Yet the analyst "knows" that 'continue' has to be go on.

The reluctance of the listeners to hear the bottom pitch as an intentional prominence confirms the difficulty that we experienced in other tests, and suggests a reason why speakers—including phoneticians—instinctively look for correlations of high pitch and stress. In the other tests, a downward obtrusion nearly always gave data which while reliable were not as clean as those obtained with an upward obtrusion.

²⁴ Bolinger, "On Intensity as a Qualitative Improvement of Pitch Accent," *Lingua*, VII (1958), 175-182.

²⁵ A pre-test by Laboratory personnel plus a large-scale test by naive listeners at the University of Connecticut.

TWO PRODUCTIONS OF "Go on."



Tests 8 and 9: Intensity opposed to other cues than pitch.

Listeners might well feel that in sequences like *Pennsylvania Railroad*, republican government, etc., the stress at the end gives the subjective impression of greater prominence than the earlier stress or stresses. With this I would agree. As we have seen, however, measurements of intensity do not confirm it. Neither do the measurements of pitch in republican government, where the same kind of prominence (upskip followed by rapid downmotion) is present in both, but the second, instead of being more marked than the first, is less marked.

The only remaining measurable factor that is usually recognized to play a role in stress is duration. But a fourth possibility suggests itself: position. It is conceivable that stress is climactic, and that we attribute extra intensity to the position at the end, even when it lacks it phonetically. This is suggested by our tendency to shift the sentence stress toward the end at the price, sometimes, of distorting the word stress as a result. ²⁶ If position overrides pitch, which in turn overrides intensity, we have one explanation of why the end stresses are so consistently marked as "louder."

Test 8 pits the cues of pitch and position against each other. Five patterns of the word undertaking were hand-drawn with varying syllable lengths, as shown in Fig. 4. Various combinations of pitch were superimposed, and the resulting stimuli were judged by several listeners, who were told to indicate whether they heard the word úndertaking, 'what a mortician does,' or undertáking, 'enterprise.' There were 16 pitch patterns comprising a total of 615 individual responses. In all but 3 patterns the majority of listeners reacted as the experimenter had predicted on the basis of pitch, and in only one of the 3 could the discrepancy be correlated with duration (i.e., the fault lay with a wrong interpretation of the pitches, not with the influence of duration). This confirms Fry's experiments where pitch overrides duration.

Fig. 4 tabulates the responses that bear on the problem of pitch and position. The first pitch pattern, a monotone, shows a bias in favor of $\acute{u}n$. When un- and -la- are given equal pitch rises, however, the preference shifts radically to $-l\acute{a}$ -, and even when un-

²⁸ For examples, see Bolinger, "Intersections of Stress and Intonation," Word, XI (1955), 199-201, and "English Stress: the Interpenetration of Strata," § 6, in Sludy of Sounds (Tokyo, 1957), pp. 295-315.

who broke it

STRESS JUDGMENTS FOR SEVERAL VERSIONS OF THE WORD "UNDERTAKING" Fig. 4

08-06-08-001 08-06-08-06 ₹ S ဖ 4 N 24 FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCY PATTERN IN CPS (UN-DER-TA-KING) ω $\underline{\omega}$ 3 4 ဖ 3 S 63 ₹ Ω ဖ S ~ ဖ Ø 3 S N 0 80-80-80-80 $\underline{\infty}$ ₹ S 4 4 ~ α 9 22 S 4 4 SUBJECTS S. TOTALS 320 XING HEARD 260 310 NUMBER OF RESPONSE 250 STRESS 2 250 20 50 55 ۲ X 80 200 65 215 2 9 170 DER 45 80 95 85 2 65 8 80 230 210 80 2 3 45

DURATION PATTERN IN MSEC.

simply means that under the circumstances the hearer looks to another cue. Take the utterance

Ι

broke it

in which both I and broke occupy corners. In the context where A says to B,

nyi... catch
John you're going to it for breaking this vase!

and C, a third party, confesses *I broke il*, it is *I* that is accented. But after What happened to this vase?

the same *I broke il* is a disgusted reply accenting *broke*. The cue is contextual redundancy. In place of or along with the contextual cue, either *I* or *broke* may be phonetically degraded (though neither has to be), and when it is, the accent is thrown to the other word. In this sense, the allegro and lento forms of words perform an accentual function. Normally an accented syllable must not be phonetically degraded.

The commonest supporting cue is flanking by unaccentable syllables. The contrast between the following two utterances is clear:

It's the man who It's the man broke it

The unaccentable syllable who helps to embed man in the first instance and broke in the second, giving broke the accent in the former and man in the latter. How we know that who is unaccentable will be discussed in the next section.

Test 11 embodies an ambiguity, contrived without phonetic degradation and with no flanking unaccentables, so as to force identification through context. It was decided to use a short command of the Run along. Wait here, Come in type, where American English readily puts the adverb at the low pitch when the speaker's intent is to coax, and to match it with the same phrase in a different context where the accent is clearly on the verb.

The experimenter made a tape recording of the following: You say you want us to find your missing husband, but you certainly haven't given us much to go on, go on. The two instances of go on were given the shape

Go

and made as nearly identical as possible. The pitch and intensity profiles appear in Fig. 6.

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- 2. That when one of the items is involved in some movement of pitch, but not enough to make it stand out from its environment, the other, if more clearly marked, is heard as accented. For example:
- a) Movement down to the accented syllable, other syllable embedded in gradual upmotion:

80 Would85n't 90 il 95 be 100 ea105si110er 115 to 80 wait?

6-3. wait

80 Would85n't 90 il 95 be 80 easier to wait?

8-1, easier

- b) Movement down from the accented syllable, other syllable embedded in more gradual downmotion:
 - 130 Wouldn't it be ea110-100sier 98-92 to 90-70 wait?

7-2, easier

130 Wouldn't it be ea130-120sier 118-108 to 100-70 mail?

7-2, wait

These last two patterns reproduce the crux of Test 1—note the accent-forming 30 cps drop across wait in the second pattern as against the non-accent-forming 20 cps drop in the first.

- c) Movement down from the accented syllable, with an undulation on the other syllable:
 - 130 Wouldn't it be ea110-100sier 96-86 to 94-70 wait? 9-0, easier
- 3. That when two similar accents are obtruded with equal clarity, the second is more prominent (confirming the remark above about position). Example of two accents both skipped down to:

130 Wouldn't it be 115 easier to 100 wait?

8-1, wait

5. Predictable Ambiguity.

If prominences of the kind that I have described are the true basis of the accents, it should be possible to predict when a given utterance may be taken in more than one way. For example, in a configuration of the shape _____ there are two "corners," either of which may be the significant one. If the top corner, we describe it as an accent that is "skipped down from." the bottom corner, it is an accent that is "skipped down to." The fact that the linguistic signal is mixed does not refute it, but is made twice as prominent as -la-, -lá- is still favored by the majority. This confirms the tendency to hear the latter of two pitch-marked stresses as "louder."

Test 9. In the Smith-Trager system, constructs such as lighthouse-keeper and light housekeeper ('housekeeper who is light rather than heavy') are supposed to be distinguished by different loudnesses at different points. As the naive speaker is likely to think that the difference depends more on degrees of separation than on loudness, an experiment was performed to oppose the two cues of disjuncture (separation of syllable centers) and intensity. Here again it developed that the information from intensity was irrelevant, and that the difference was in fact signaled by separation. 27

With all the phonetic evidence pointing away from intensity as the thing that matters most in utterance stress, how can we account for its hold on the imagination? The answer lies, I think, in our folklore, and reflects not the acoustic signal but its linguistic function. The parts of our utterance that we stress most noticeably are the ones about which we want to be most forceful, and the kinetics of that force is felt and seen in a number of ways. A writer underlining the important parts of a message does it energetically. A speaker bobs his head and swings his arms in time with his stresses.28 With this pugilistic obligato to the linguistic tune, it is hardly surprising that the tune became identified with the exercise that went with it; hence force, intensity, loudness. Finally, the pitch direction most fundamental to stress is up, and rising pitch bears a "pre-linguistic," physiological relation to physical tension.

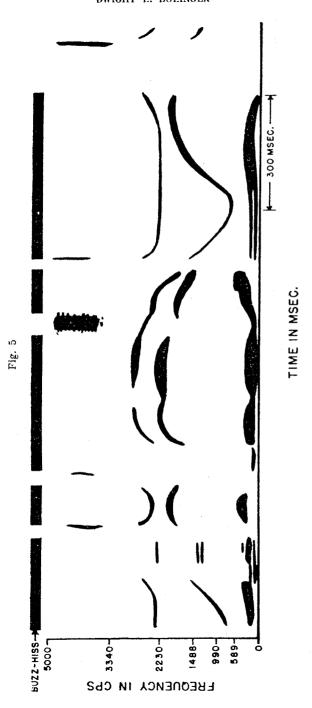
Having given up the more usual definition of stress, I think it is wise, because of associations, to give up the term also. From this point on I shall therefore refer not to stress but to PITCH ACCENT. or simply accent, meaning prominence due to the configuration of pitches.

4. PITCH PROMINENCE IN GENERAL

The experiments relegating intensity to a secondary position have shown that it is unnecessary to take great precautions about

²⁷ See Bolinger and Louis J. Gerstman, "Disjuncture as a Cue to Constructs," Word, XIII (1957), 246-255.

²⁸ A. J. Vanvik, observing the orators at Hyde Park, noted that how they stressed a word such as salvation could be determined by their gestures without actually hearing the syllabic contrasts. See Maître Phonétique, No. 103, Jan.-June 1955, p. 8.



small random differences in intensity between one syllable and another in a synthetic utterance. Since the Voback does not deliver perfectly uniform intensities throughout the pitch range (nor does the human voice, though it is somewhat more stable in this regard), without these proofs it might have seemed necessary to specify intensities at every point. As it is, we may attend simply to pitch markings and let the minor fluctuations of intensity fall where they may.

Test 10 uses the same sentence, Wouldn't it be easier to wait?, as Test 1, but synthetic. The hand-drawn spectrogram is shown in Fig. 5. (This is done with white paint on transparent film. The pitch information, none of which appears here, is painted in a solid design at the top, with its upper edge tracing the rises and falls. The broken block lines directly beneath are for buzz (voice) and hiss (whisper). The rest of the painting controls the segmental phonemes—formants, transitions, bursts, releases, and frictions of the vowels and consonants.) Some 38 patterns of pitch were overlaid and judged by 9 listeners, who were told to indicate whether the principal accent ("stress" was the term used in the instructions) fell on easier or on wait. The responses indicated:

1. That when only one item is given pitch prominence, it is heard as accented. The pitch movement may be up to, down to, or down from the accented syllable. Examples (the frequencies hold for all following syllables up to the next indicated frequency):

PATTERN	Direction	VOTE FAVORING						
100 Wouldn't it be easier to 120 wait?	up to	9-0, wait						
100 Wouldn't it be 120 easier to wait?		9-0, easier						
100 Wouldn't it be easier 120 to 100 wait?	down to	9-0, wait						
100 Wouldn't it 120 be 100 easier to wail?		8-1, easier						
100 Wouldn't it 120 be ea100sier to wait?	down from	9-0, easier						
130 Wouldn't it be ea110-100sier 100 to wait?		9-0, easier						
Or the movement may be within the syllable:								
100 Wouldn't it be easier to 100- 130 wait?	up in	8-1, wait						

Furthermore, the problem of terminal junctures needs to be re-studied in the light of pitch accent. Something like the endings that Smith and Trager describe is probably correct, but with refinements. For example, it seems to make little difference after a B accent whether there is a slight fall, a level, or a rise; the differences here are gradient. But after an A accent there seems to be an all-or-none difference between a level and a rise, but a gradient difference between a level and a fall. In answer to George asked for his shovel back one might get

gave it to you

with lo you at a fairly high tonal level, as if the speaker were wondering and half-questioning; but if there is a rise in pitch on you, the utterance either takes on an admonitory tone or, though these words scarcely lend themselves, becomes a perplexed iterative question. On the other hand, if lo you remains level, it may stand at any height, with gradient differences of suspension and conclusiveness; or it may fall for still greater conclusiveness, but without the sharp difference created by the rise.

10. Conclusions

- 1. Tests with both natural and artificial speech have shown that the primary cue of what is usually termed STRESS in the utterance is pitch prominence.
- 2. Intensity is found to be negligible both as a determinative and as a qualitative factor in stress.
- 3. To avoid unwanted associations, it is better to speak of PITCH ACCENT and to leave the term stress to the domain of word stress. In the latter domain, one possible kind of phonemic stress is POTENTIAL FOR PITCH ACCENT.
- stress is potential for pitch accent.

 4. While the upward obtrusion is basic, pitch prominence need not be merely upward, as commonly supposed, but may take other directions. The differences of form respond to differences of meaning, giving the accents a morphemic status. Differentiating them often calls for a repertorial cue (the user's knowledge of the morphs of his language, and what syllables have the potential for pitch accent) or a gradient phonetic cue (length of syllable and

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grade of vowel).