

The role of f₀ alignment in distinguishing intonation categories: evidence from American English

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Abstract

Under the autosegmental-metrical (AM) theory of intonation, the temporal alignment of fundamental frequency (F₀) patterns with respect to syllables has been claimed to distinguish pitch accent categories. Several experiments test whether differences in F₀ peak or valley alignment in American English phrases would produce evidence consistent with a change from (1) a H to a H+L* pitch accent, and (2) a L* to a L+H* pitch accent. Four stimulus series were constructed in which F₀ peak or valley alignment was shifted across portions of short phrases with varying stress. In Experiment 1, participants discriminated pairs of stimuli in an AX task. In Experiment 2, participants classified stimuli as category exemplars using an AXB task. In Experiment 3, participants imitated stimuli; the alignment of F₀ peaks and valleys in their productions was measured. Finally, in Experiment 4, participants judged the relative prominence of initial and final syllables in stimuli to determine whether alignment differences generated a stress shift. The results support the distinctions between H* and H+L* and between L+H* and L*. Moreover, evidence consistent with an additional category not currently predicted by most AM theories was obtained, which is proposed here to be H*+H. The results have implications for understanding phonological contrasts, phonetic interpolation in English intonation, and the transcription of prosodic contrasts in corpus-based analysis.*

Keywords: intonation; fundamental frequency; autosegmental-metrical theory; tonal alignment; pitch accents

1. Introduction

A number of studies of speech prosody—that is, variations in fundamental frequency (cf. pitch), intensity, and timing in speech—have attempted to explain the ways that prosody can be used to signal differences in meaning, paralleling early studies in segmental phonology. One body of research over three decades now shows that the timing, or alignment, of fundamental frequency (F0) peaks and valleys (i.e., maxima and minima) with respect to segments cues semantic distinctions in a number of languages (1-7). While a number of research studies have shown consistent alignment of F0 turning points with respect to the segmental string (7-12), these studies nevertheless demonstrate variability in F0 turning point alignment to varying degrees. Overall, an examination of the literature reveals that gross differences in F0 turning point alignment of approximately a syllable in size or more are generally associated with differences which most researchers would agree are clearly phonological, e.g., differences in focus (13, 14), in lexical accent (3, 5), and/or in semantic inference (4). In contrast, smaller differences in F0 alignment have often been shown to be associated with various kinds of phonetic or contextual factors, including differences in vowel duration, speech rate, location of word boundaries, stress clash, syllable affiliation, dialect, and others (7-9, 13, 15-19). These fine-grained, gradient F0 alignment differences have generally not been shown to affect meaning or representation and are instead considered to arise from differences of phonetic implementation, rather than phonological representation (17-19).

The present paper investigates how differences in F0 peak and valley alignment distinguish categories of intonational prominence or “pitch accents” in American English, taking as a starting point the framework of autosegmental-metrical (AM) theory (20-22). This paper also addresses the issue of methodologies for studying intonation, such as the ToBI (Tones and Break Indices) transcription system (23, 24) often used in transcribing prosody. It additionally presents new perspectives on the issue of which differences in F0 alignment can be considered categorical and phonological versus gradient and phonetic.

AM theory has played a prominent role in empirical and theoretical work in language science for more than 25 years. This theory is one of a class of discrete tone theories which crucially hold that the phonological primitives of intonation contours are discrete tonal elements, that is, tones and/or tone levels which are static in time, rather than dynamically changing. (See also 25, 26.) In contrast, rise/fall theories hold that phonological distinctions are dynamic rises or falls conveying prominence or boundary information; examples include the IPO approach (27), and the British school (e.g., 28, 29). Finally, hybrid theories assume the existence of both dynamic as well as static tonal targets; a notable example is the work of Xu and colleagues (16, 30-32). Note that the principles of intonational phonology used for contrast depart from the principles traditionally used in segmental phonology regarding distinctions (33). Rather, the intonational phonological approach is more informed by theories with their origins in the cognitive psychology literature, such as exemplar-based theories of phonetic perception (34) and

articulatory phonology (35, 36), wherein “fine phonetic detail” is seen as being of paramount importance in determining mental representations of speech. These and allied approaches have been employed effectively in understanding consonantal voicing (e.g., 37) and the perception of vowels (e.g., 38).

A significant body of phonetic evidence now shows that the alignment of F0 peaks and valleys with respect to segmental landmarks is quite consistent, even under changes in speech rate (9-12, 30, 39, 40). Differences in F0 peak and valley alignment are frequently perceptually salient to listeners and often cue meaningful distinctions (1-5). This evidence has led to consensus among researchers that F0 alignment data is best accounted for by theories which assume the existence of discrete tonal elements, i.e., discrete tone and hybrid theories. (See, e.g., 11 for arguments and reviews., 31) Much of this phonetic evidence has been interpreted as direct support for AM theory, which is widely held to afford a number of advantages over many other discrete tone theories (9, 41), and which is based on mainstream work in theoretical phonology (see especially 26, 42).

Given the prominent role that AM theory has played in theoretical and empirical work, including research on corpora, it is perhaps surprising that many of the theory’s claims have not been carefully evaluated. The present paper investigates some of AM theory’s assumptions about the relationship between F0 alignment and intonational categories, focusing on the language and dialect for which the theory was originally developed: American English. In the following, an overview of AM theory’s assumptions is presented regarding the relationship between F0 alignment and pitch accents in American English. Next, recent work is reviewed aimed at understanding factors which affect F0 alignment consistency. Finally, methodological issues concerning the design of experiments testing AM theories’ predictions are considered.

1.1. The Role of F0 Alignment in Distinguishing Pitch Accents in AM Theory

According to AM theory, pitch accents are based on phonological high (H) and low (L) tones which may occur singly or in bitonal combinations. Each type of pitch accent minimally consists of a single “starred tone,” indicating that the H or L tone phonologically affiliates with a stressed syllable; starred tones are notated with an asterisk next to the tone (e.g., H*, L*). There are two single-toned accents: H* and L*. Other pitch accents are bitonal, meaning that an unstarred tone temporally leads or trails the starred tone; for example, in bitonal L+H*, the H* tone is associated with the stressed syllable, while the L+ temporally leads the H* and occurs on a weak metrical position. (See 43, 44 for alternative proposals about phonological affiliation of tones.) The unstarred tones in pitch accents were originally proposed to be realized at a fixed temporal interval around the starred tone due to phonological affiliation with the starred tone of the accent (20). However, phonetic studies investigating the alignment of F0

turning points reviewed above have suggested instead that unstarred tones affiliate with unstressed syllables or with segments (12, 44).

Once the phonological string of pitch accents has been determined based on the speaker's intended message and the rules of phonological association of tones with respect to metrical and/or segmental positions, AM theory assumes that the tones are turned into F0 contours via two kinds of phonetic mechanisms. First, F0 scaling rules determine the absolute F0 level of each tone (20, 22, 45). Second, continuous interpolation functions connect up the discrete tones in sequence. These interpolation functions have been assumed to be either monotonic (i.e., strictly rising or strictly falling), or nonmonotonic (e.g., falling-rising), depending on the sequence of tones in the local environment (20). In this way, each single-toned or bitonal pitch accent is assumed to give rise to a characteristic set of F0 shapes, where categories are assumed to be critically distinguished based on the patterns of timing and alignment of F0 peak and valleys with respect to stressed syllables. Because these patterns of timing and alignment of F0 peaks and valleys are critical for distinguishing pitch accent categories, which are the main topic of this paper, they are described in more detail in Section 1.1.1.

Assumptions within AM theory about the number and type of bitonal pitch accents underlying English prominence-lending F0 shapes have changed over time. In the most recent version of the theory, that associated with the ToBI intonation transcription system for (mainstream) American English (23, 24), there are three bitonal pitch accents—L+H*, L*+H, and H+!H*—each with distinctive patterns of turning point alignment with respect to stressed syllables. Note that H+!H* is actually a notational variant of the H+L* accent proposed by Pierrehumbert (20); throughout this paper, H+L* will be the preferred notation for this accent type. The so-called “downstepping” variants of pitch accent types, e.g., !H*, L+!H* and L*+!H, are assumed to have identical F0 alignment characteristics compared with the respective non-downstepping variant (24), so they are not considered here to constitute different “accent types”.

The current standard AM inventory thus consists of five pitch accents: the single-toned accents H* and L*, together with bitonal L+H*, L*+H and H+L*. Originally, seven pitch accents had been proposed in the inventory set forth for English by Pierrehumbert (20); the additional two accent types posited there were H*+L and H*+H. One reduction in the inventory was the result of the merging of H*+L with H* in the ToBI system, although the local F0 characteristics of these accents are assumed to be identical anyway. In all versions of the theory, the L tone in H*+L is assumed to be “floating”, meaning that it has no phonetic interpretation in terms of a low F0 valley or fall. Instead, the +L tone was assumed to trigger downstep (i.e., lowering) of a following high accent in Pierrehumbert (20) and subsequent work. Another reduction in the inventory was due to Beckman and Pierrehumbert (21), who eliminated the H*+H accent from the English inventory in a footnote. Little empirical evidence exists about how many accents truly underlie English intonation; for the most part, claimed distinctions have been based on descriptive

evidence and theoretical arguments (but see 46, 47). The present paper aims to fill existing gaps by providing empirical data bearing on how F0 turning point alignment distinguishes English intonational categories. (The timing of high plateaus, which represent another possible manifestation of H tones (48), will not be dealt with in this paper.)

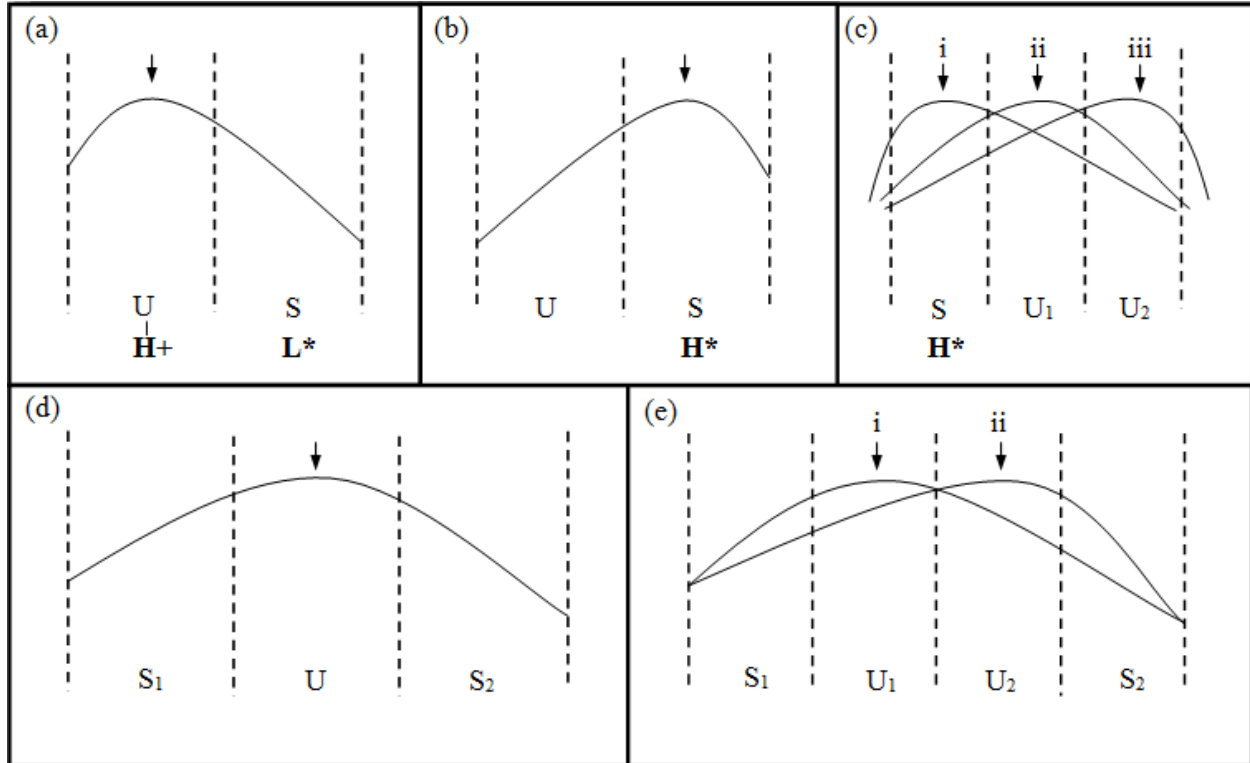


Figure 1: Schematic depiction of differences in F0 peak alignment with respect to syllables varying in lexical stress. F0 is given on the y-axis, while time is represented on the x-axis. Dashed vertical lines indicate syllable boundaries; S and U indicate stressed and unstressed syllables, respectively, while subscripts distinguish the ordinal number of occurrence of successive S or U syllables. Arrows indicate the position of the peak or valley relative to the syllable sequence in each panel. Lower-case Roman numerals (i, ii, or iii) indicate different possibilities for alignment of peaks or valleys in pitch accents. See text.

1.1.1. F0 Peaks and Pitch Accent Categories

A number of pitch accent pairs are claimed to be distinguished on the basis of F0 alignment characteristics (15, 20, 21,24). First, the timing of an F0 peak is assumed to distinguish H+L* and H* pitch accents. Since H*+L has been “merged” with H* in the current standard AM/ToBI framework, only the alignment characteristics of H* accents will be considered here. Idealized F0 patterns for these two accent types are shown in Figure 1(a) and 1(b), respectively; the figure depicts different F0 peak alignments relative to a sequence of stressed (S) and unstressed (U) syllables for purposes of illustrating distinctions among AM pitch accent categories. Note that the timing of F0 turning points relative to the

sequence of S and U syllables is the critical feature distinguishing pitch accent types, regardless of word boundary locations; thus, a given string of stressed and unstressed syllables can consist of a variable number of words and variable locations of word boundaries. Examples used in illustrating the distinction between H+L* and H* typically have assumed the unstressed-stressed (US) syllable context shown in Figures 1(a) and 1(b). For H+L*, a typical realization is a high F0 peak during a prestress syllable, combined with a falling F0 during the following stressed syllable, as shown in Figure 1(a) (21, 24). In contrast, H* typically involves a small rise across the prestress syllable or syllables to an F0 peak which can occur either on the stressed syllable itself or during a poststress syllable (15, 24). For example, the ToBI guidelines (11) state (p. 15): "...the actual timing of the F0 peak that realizes the high tone [for H* as well as L+H*] can vary... the peak for the high tone can be quite late, sometimes after the actual acoustic end of the syllable." Moreover, Silverman and Pierrehumbert (15) conducted a production study that examined variation in the timing of the F0 peak in high, rising accents (which they interpreted to all be instances of H*) under different numbers of poststress, unstressed syllables. They documented that the presence of unstressed syllables following a prenuclear high accent usually resulted in the peak's occurring well after the end of the stressed, accented syllable. The distinct alignment patterns illustrated for this stress context have been described as "very salient perceptually" and as corresponding to "a clear difference in interpretation" (21, p. 259). The phonological representations of these two accent types are shown below the F0 contours in Figures 1 and 2. As we will see, the distinction between these two accents is not so clear cut.

Distinguishing instances of H+L* and H* becomes complicated when one considers a wider variety of stress contexts due to insufficient diagnostic criteria for discriminating between the two accents afforded by existing AM descriptions. Recall that H* involves a rise to an F0 peak which may occur either on the stressed syllable itself or trail on a poststress syllable. An illustration of the different possible alignment patterns for H* is shown in Figure 1(c). Figure 1(c)-i depicts a "canonical" H* contour, in which the F0 peak is aligned with the S syllable. In contrast, Figures 1(c)-ii and 1(c)-iii depict what are assumed to be possible "variant" realizations of H*, in which the F0 peak trails the S syllable and is temporally aligned with a post-stress, unstressed syllable. (Here, two unstressed syllables, U₁ and U₂, are shown in sequence; throughout examples in Figures 1 and 2, subscripts distinguish the ordinal number of occurrence of S or U syllables in sequence in cases where multiple stressed or unstressed syllables are depicted.) Whether all the contours in Figure 1(c) are perceived as instances of the same accent type, H*, has not been conclusively tested.

The ambiguity inherent to distinguishing instances of "variant" H* from instances of H+L* becomes clear when considering stress contexts like those in Figure 1(d) and 1(e) in which there are two stressed syllables, S₁ and S₂, occurring close to each other. In such cases, AM theoretic criteria for

distinguishing the accent types are unclear, in contrast to situations in which the F0 peak falls on either S_1 or S_2 , which would unambiguously be considered an instance of H^* on the syllable with the peak. Consider first the contour in Figure 1(d), in which an F0 peak is aligned with a U syllable between S_1 and S_2 . Is this contour an instance of H^* (where the F0 peak arises from the starred H^* tone on S_1), or is it an instance of $H+L^*$ (where the F0 peak arises from an unstarred $H+$ tone leading the L^* on S_2)? Cases where a peak occurs on an unstressed syllable between two stressed, accentable syllables represent a well-known point of criterial ambiguity for deciding between accent types within AM theory (49). An equally challenging diagnostic context is depicted in Figure 1(e). Here, two unstressed syllables, U_1 and U_2 , occur in sequence between stressed syllables S_1 and S_2 . Two distinct contours are also shown: Figure 1(e)-i shows a contour with a peak aligned with U_1 , while Figure 1(e)-ii shows a contour with a peak aligned with U_2 . Based on current AM and ToBI assumptions, there are three logical possibilities about phonological category membership of these two contours, given a situation in which only one syllable may be stressed: (a) both are instances of H^* , (b) both are instances of $H+L^*$, or else (c) the contour in Figure 1(e)-i an instance of H^* and the contour in Figure 1(e)-ii is an instance of $H+L^*$. Though ToBI labelers are given limited guidelines in such situations (based, for example, on impressionistic determination of how delayed F0 peaks are with respect to syllables), the empirical basis for this guideline has never been experimentally tested. Disentangling the various cases of H^* from cases of $H+L^*$ and attempting to validate the underlying categories is a goal of the present paper.

Note that the basic distinction between $H+L^*$ and H^* has been supported by previous work. Redi (47) created a continuum of F0 peak alignments ranging across a US sequence in the phrase *To Monrovia*. In an imitation task, participants produced peaks which clustered according to two distinct alignment patterns, consistent with the basic distinction between $H+L^*$ and H^* . (See also 44.) Redi also found preliminary evidence that speakers produced bimodal alignment patterns when imitating a continuum of F0 peak alignment ranging across a SU syllable sequence in the nonsense phrase *Too minglingly*. In the present work, that work is extended by examining perception and production of F0 peak timing for additional stress contexts using more natural speech phrases.

One point which is implicit in the above discussion is that AM theory does not uniformly treat all F0 peaks as direct surface realizations of underlying phonological H tones. This can be seen by contrasting the contours associated with the categories of $H+L^*$ and H^* . Recall that starred tones are phonologically associated with stressed syllables under AM theory. Then in the case of $H+L^*$ (cf. Fig. 1(a)), the correspondence between the phonetic F0 peak and the underlying phonological $H+$ tone is relatively transparent, since the F0 peak is aligned with the same (unstressed) syllable on which the H tone is assumed to occur temporally. In particular, for $H+L^*$ the unstarred tone ($H+$) occurs on a prestress, U syllable, while the L^* is phonologically associated with the S syllable (cf. Figure 1(a)). In contrast, in the

case of H*, the correspondence between the phonetic F0 peak and the underlying phonological H* tone is relatively less transparent and more abstract. This is most clearly illustrated in Figure 1(c), which depicts different F0 contours that are typically treated as instances of H*. Evidence that such rising contours are treated as H* in ToBI comes from the ToBI guidelines (11). Such rising contours are in theory candidates to be analyzed either as L+H* or H*. The guidelines state the following:

“...the essential difference [between L+H* and H*] is what happens before the high tone. The leading L tone in L+H* is meant to transcribe a rise from a fundamental frequency value low in the pitch range that cannot be attributed to a L* pitch accent on the preceding syllable or to a L-phrase accent or to a L% boundary tone at a preceding intermediate-phrase or intonation-phrase boundary. For H*, by contrast, there is at most a small rise from the middle of the speaker’s voice range...The distinction [between L+H* and H*] is difficult to make when the accented syllable is the first in the utterance... In cases such as this, where the evidence for L+H* comes from (theory-dependent) intuitions about meaning rather than from any clear low pitched region in the fundamental frequency contour, *the ToBI Annotation conventions prescribe H* instead*...Even when there is a long enough stretch between the beginning of the utterance and the accent, L+H* can be difficult to distinguish from H* because the categorical distinction in meaning is not always matched by a categorical distinction in the F0 level of the low tone...It is possible for even intonational experts to be confused... (pp. 15-16)”

Evidence that contours such as those in Figures 1(c) are usually treated as H* is also consistent with corpus data from Dainora (50) that H* is the most common accent in English (and thus by extension the most common type of rising accent).

For all these variants of H* accents - including the three contours in Figures 1(c)-i, 1(c)-ii, and 1(c)-iii - the underlying H* tone is assumed to be phonologically associated with, and thus to temporally co-occur with, the S syllable, so that the F0 peak may (cf. Figure 1(c)-i) or may not (cf. Figures 1(c)-ii and 1(c)-iii) be aligned with the same syllable as the H* tone is assumed to occur temporally. Distinctive patterns of F0 transition (i.e., phonetic interpolation) are thus implied from the H*-tone-bearing, S syllable to a following (accentual or boundary-related) tone for the three contours in Figures 1(c)-i, 1(c)-ii, and 1(c)-iii. (Note that for purposes of illustration, it is assumed that the following tone has a lower absolute F0 and that it occurs temporally later than the window shown.) On the one hand, AM theory assumes that for the contour in Figure 1(c)-i the H* tone on the S syllable gives rise to an F0 peak on the same syllable, such that the F0 contour connecting the H* on the S syllable to the subsequent tone uniformly falls; the interpolation in this case is thus monotonic. On the other hand, it is assumed that for the contours in Figures 1(c)-ii and 1(c)-iii, the H* tone on the S syllable is followed by a transition which first rises to a subsequent F0 peak on U1 or U2, respectively, and then falls to connect to the subsequent tone; in these

cases, the interpolation from the H* on the S syllable to the following tone is thus nonmonotonic. One goal of the present paper was to determine whether this nonuniform treatment of interpolation functions for contours involving a high F0 peak is supported. If listeners perceive all peak positions depicted in Figure 1(c) as instances of the same phonological category, it will support the current AM analysis of different types of interpolation functions (as variably monotonic or nonmonotonic) following H starred tones. On the other hand, if listeners perceive different peak positions in Figure 1(c) as instances of different categories, it will suggest the need to reevaluate the nonuniform treatment of interpolation functions.

1.1.2. F0 Valleys and Pitch Accent Categories

Next, consider that the F0 alignment of valleys is another source of potential ambiguity, as it is assumed to distinguish several accentual categories. Three AM accents—L*, L+H*, and L*+H—paradigmatically involve F0 valleys, although each of these accents can also give rise to other shapes. For example, the L in L+H* or in L*+H may correspond to an “elbow”, i.e., a point of transition between a level F0 plateau and a rise (24, 46). L* can also correspond to a low F0 plateau, e.g. in the context of a string of L*’s (20). For variants of these accents with an F0 valley, the timing of the valley with respect to stressed syllables distinguishes L+H* from the two other accent types. L+H* typically involves a relatively sharp rise from an F0 valley on a prestress syllable in the lowest part of the speaker’s pitch range (20, 24). An example of canonical L+H* is shown in Figure 2(a); note the presence of the F0 valley on the prestress unstressed syllable, U₁. By contrast, both L* and L*+H correspond to contours with F0 valleys on a stressed syllable. L*+H and L* can readily be distinguished from each other in the context of a following low tone; in such a context, L*+H corresponds to a rise to an F0 peak, followed by a fall, while L* corresponds to a fall or a plateau and thus has no F0 valley (20, 24). In the context of a following high tonal element, however, as shown in Figure 2(b), it is generally not possible to distinguish L* from L*+H, and the typical analysis is L*. Once more, this analysis is not presently experimentally grounded.

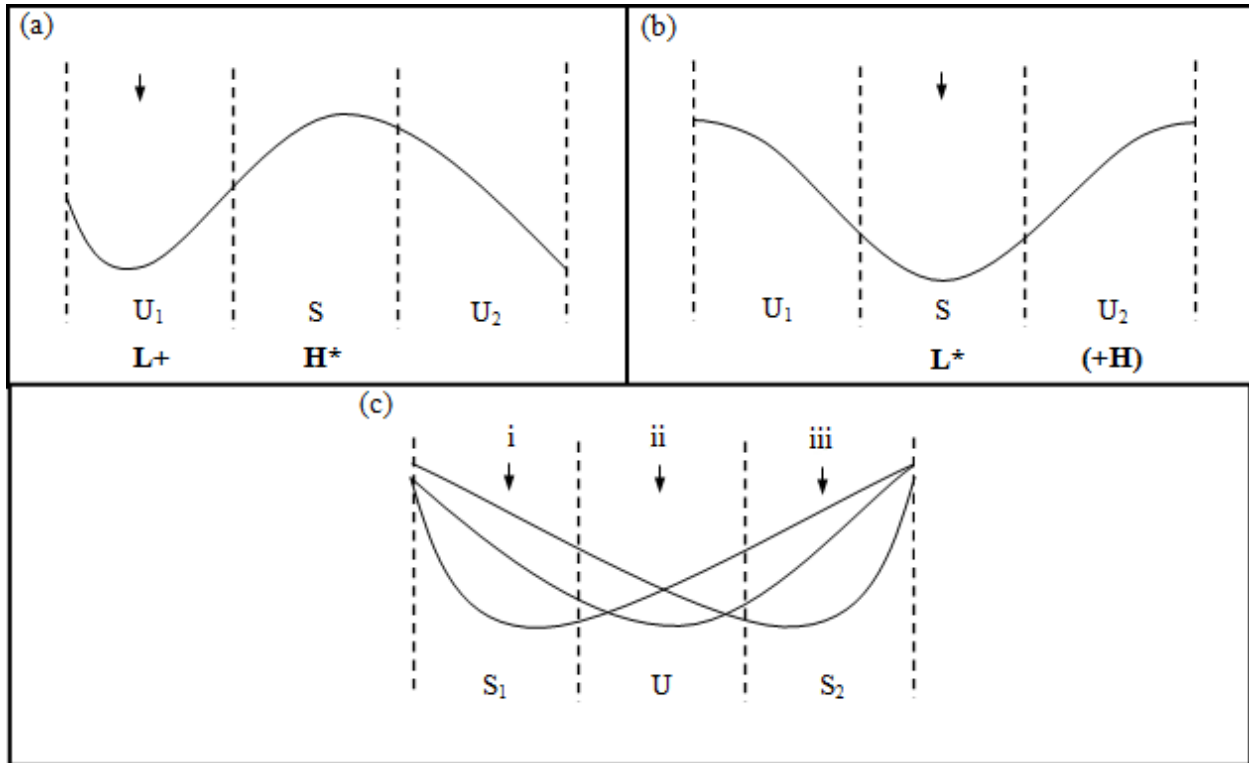


Figure 2: Differences in F0 valley alignment with respect to syllables varying in lexical stress. F0 is given on the y-axis, while time is represented on the x-axis. Dashed vertical lines indicate syllable boundaries; S and U indicate stressed and unstressed syllables, respectively, while subscripts distinguish the ordinal number of occurrence of successive S or U syllables.

Based on these descriptions, it should be possible to distinguish L+H* from L* through the timing of an F0 valley relative to stressed syllables. Specifically, the valley should occur on a prestress syllable for L+H*, but it should fall on a S syllable for either L* or L*+H. An F0 valley on a given U syllable thus should signal an accent on an immediately following S syllable. Thus, in a S₁U S₂ context as shown in Figure 2(c), if an F0 valley is shifted from a stressed syllable (here, S₁; cf. Figure 2(c)-i) to a post-stress U syllable (cf. Figure 2(c)-ii), the category membership should likewise change from L* associated with S₁, to L+H* associated with S₂. AM theory therefore predicts that the location of the pitch accent should shift from S₁ to S₂. If an F0 valley is shifted from a U syllable (cf. Figure 2(c)-ii) to the following S syllable (here, S₂; cf. Figure 2(c)-iii), however, the category membership should range from L+H* associated with S₂, to L* associated with this same S₂ syllable; in other words, there should be no change in the location of the pitch accent for such a context, just its category. One goal of the present experiments was to test this prediction of AM theory concerning shifts in the locations of pitch accents under shifts in F0 turning point alignment.

Little work has investigated distinctions among low accents. Pierrehumbert and Steele (46) investigated the distinction L+H* and L*+H; in their stimuli, the L tone for each accent was realized as an elbow, rather than a valley, while the H tone corresponded to a peak. The timing of the elbow-peak sequence was shifted through a portion of the phrase *Only a millionaire*; the dependent measure in their imitation study was the timing of the F0 peak. The results showed that participants were unable to reproduce the continuum of alignments for the high peak; instead, most participants produced a discrete, bimodal timing pattern of F0 peaks in their imitations. This was interpreted as supporting the distinction between L+H* and L*+H categories. However, the study did not investigate the timing of the low portion of these accents, leading to the question of whether categorical timing differences obtain for low tones as well as high tones. Further, Pierrehumbert and Steele (46) had little to say about the origins of their sentences or the speakers used in their study, and the various recordings of the critical phrase differed in several other respects besides the intended variables of interest.

Redi (47) investigated this issue with respect to L* vs. L+H* accents in which an F0 valley was shifted through two carrier phrases with final question intonation: *To Monrovia?* and *They're nonlinguistic?*. In an imitation task, participants failed to produce bimodal timing in F0 valleys in response to the two stimulus series. This could either be taken as counterevidence to the distinction between L+H* and L*, or it may have reflected a limitation of the specific stimuli used. A more recent study by Dilley and Brown (51) demonstrated categorical differences in F0 valley alignment, but these categorical differences were elicited in response to a pitch range continuum, not an F0 valley alignment continuum. In sum, it is unclear whether listeners perceive differences in F0 valley timing as different pitch accent categories, as claimed under AM theory.

1.1.3. Issues Addressed in the Present Paper

The above considerations lead to questions about which kinds of changes in F0 turning point alignment are phonological (i.e., between-category and associated with changes in representation) and which are phonetic (i.e., within-category and not associated with such changes). Given the evidence cited at the beginning of this paper, F0 alignment differences of at least a syllable in size seem to consistently give rise to categorical, phonological distinctions and/or meaning differences. However, the evidence has not always been so clear. One study which addressed variability in F0 peak alignment in English was Silverman and Pierrehumbert (15). This study investigated the effects of various contextual and phonetic factors on the alignment of F0 peaks associated with prenuclear high (H*) accents, working from the assumption that such effects arise solely from differences in phonetic implementation. Consistent with this assumption, they found systematic shifts in F0 peak alignment as a function of vowel length, speech rate, (see e.g., 34) and other factors. A regression model calculated from their F0 peak data suggested that the

peak was preferentially aligned “past the end of the rhyme”, that is, into the following unaccented syllable (p. 87). However, it was not clear from their data exactly how late the peak could be. Critically, the study did not address how differences in degree of “peak delay” might affect the representation, and whether all degrees of peak delay consistently arose from the same category. The study has sometimes been interpreted as indicating that English permits substantial variability in F0 peak timing for H*, such that the peak can occur even after a postaccentual vowel onset (24). This interpretation is questioned in the present paper, where the hypothesis is put forward that differences of F0 turning point alignment timing on the order of a syllable or more would be consistent with categorical, phonological differences of representation.

Next, how should the distinction between phonological changes and phonetic changes be assessed for intonation? In intonational phonology, it is well-recognized that meaning differences provide incomplete or problematic criteria for diagnosing phonological category distinctions (52, 53). This has led to the application of a number of alternative methods for the investigation of representational categories in intonation, building upon theories that have differed from some of the approaches of classic segmental phonology (see e.g., 34, 35, 54). One method which has been especially successful is an imitation task (reviewed in 52), in which participants attempt to reproduce the continuous acoustic variation in stimuli (44, 46, 47, 51, 55). Using prominence judgments (56-58) and semantic judgments (59-61) to study intonational categories has met with mixed success (see 52 for a review).

Discrimination and identification tasks have frequently been used to study categories and categorical perception in segmental phonology (cf. 62). The hallmark of categorical perception is a discrimination maximum together with a crossover in identification at the same location along an acoustic continuum (63). Discrimination and identification tasks may be especially useful in investigating intonation categories, where the type and number of underlying contrasts is often unclear. (However, see 64., 65) A number of intonation studies previously have used discrimination and identification tasks to help understand phonological representations (4, 66-71). However, such tasks have usually been used with the express goal of determining whether classically-defined categorical perception can be obtained, rather than to investigate the number of categories along a continuum *per se*.

The present experiments investigated the conditions under which variations in F0 peak and valley timing give rise to categorical distinctions in American English. F0 peak and valley timing are studied separately in the present paper, and no attempts to directly compare the two types of F0 contour are made, though parallels are drawn where illustrative. Multiple methodologies were used in four experiments to assess converging evidence for categories, as well as to determine the viability of discrimination and identification tasks for studying the type and number of intonation contrasts. It was hoped that the results would provide perspective regarding when F0 alignment differences are associated with distinct

representations, as opposed to simply fine-grained, within-category phonetic variation. Experiment 1 utilized an AX (same/different) discrimination task to assess differential sensitivity to F0 alignment differences, since the location of category boundaries can be illuminated by profiles of perceptual sensitivity (63). Experiment 2 utilized a variation on a categorization task (i.e., an AXB identification task) to assess how listeners assigned individual stimuli to categories. Experiment 3 involved an imitation task in which participants attempted to reproduce F0 alignment differences as closely as possible. Finally, Experiment 4 involved a relative prominence judgment task which provided an initial test of the hypotheses that (1) a productive capacity of alignment differences in American English is to cue changes in phrase-level relative prominence, and (2) that pitch accents in AM theory are associated with different syllables, depending on F0 peak and valley alignment. In all these experiments, phonological categories were examined within a single word, to eliminate the possibility that F0 alignment differences could be attributed to factors other than the type of pitch accent (e.g., different boundary tone or phrase accent configurations).

2. Experiment 1

Experiment 1 tested AM theory's claims regarding the number and phonetic basis of phonological categories when F0 peak and valley alignment was varied along a timing continuum through syllables with different stress patterns. Each continuum of F0 turning points was created across a single word to ensure that the distinct alignment patterns could be ascribed to different accent configurations, rather than to other factors assumed within AM theory to affect alignment (e.g., different boundary tone or phrase accent configurations). An AX discrimination task was used in which listeners responded whether pairs of stimuli differing in F0 peak or valley timing sounded the same or different. By examining differential patterns of discrimination accuracy, it was possible to identify locations of perceptual category boundaries.

2.1. Methods

2.1.1. Design

A 4×3 within-subjects design was used. The first factor was stimulus series, with four levels (*millionaire*, *Lannameraine*, *lemonade*, *nonrenewable*). Each stimulus series was based on distinct words with specific stress patterns suited to testing either peak-related or valley-related accent categories, based

on stress patterns outlined in Section 1.1 and represented in idealized form in Figure 1 which may be ambiguous according to current AM theories of tonal phonology (e.g., stress patterns in which F0 peaks may be variably interpreted as an H+L* tone or a ‘variant’ H* tone; stress patterns in which F0 valleys may be interpreted as an L* tone or an L+H* tone). The varied lexical materials additionally were expected to foster greater participant attention to the task. The second factor was the step size, which referred to how many steps apart a given pair of stimuli were on a given trial; there were three levels (3-away, 5-away, or 7-away) for stimulus pairs involving different stimuli (“different” pairs). For example, in the 3-away condition, participants heard stimulus 1 in a given series paired with stimulus 4, stimulus 2 with 5, 3 with 6, etc. Step size was varied to ensure that for every block of stimuli, some pairs would be clearly discriminable to all listeners. The 3-away stimulus series was expected to be the most informative with respect to perceptual categories, since results from Dilley (44) had revealed that the 3-away step size showed the most average variation in discriminability. The factors of stimulus series and step size were thus fully crossed. Note that each level of stimulus series reflected a particular pairing of lexical material with contour types (reflecting either F0 peak or F0 valley alignment differences); it was not the case that all possible contour types were paired with all lexical sequences. This was because each lexical sequence was suitable for testing only a subset of possible accent categories. Moreover, pairing each lexical sequence with each type of F0 manipulation would have made the experiment prohibitively long.

The dependent measure was d' , the perceptual sensitivity index, which is a measure derived from signal detection theory (72). This measure was selected because it provides a standardized, unbiased index of perceptual sensitivity calculated from a hit rate and a false alarm rate. d' is obtained by transforming participant hit rates (H) and false alarm rates (F) to z -scores and then calculating the difference, such that $d' = z(H) - z(F)$. Of primary interest for testing accent categories was the number of local d' minima and maxima which were present in each stimulus series. A d' maximum or minimum reflects stimulus pairs which are heard as maximally or minimally discriminable, respectively, relative to surrounding stimulus pairs; thus, a stimulus pair which incurs a d' maximum or minimum likely traverses an individual stimulus that corresponds to a category boundary or a category exemplar, respectively. d' minima and maxima are thus defined locally (as opposed to globally) as stimulus pairs representing locally low discriminability or locally high discriminability, respectively, relative to the d' levels of surrounding stimulus pairs. That is, a local d' maximum was a stimulus pair with a larger d' score than either of its neighbors; a local d' minimum was a stimulus pair with a smaller d' score than either its neighbors. These were expected to reflect stimulus pairs which were heard as maximally alike (and thus representative of the same phonological category), in the case of d' minima, or maximally different (and thus representative of distinct phonological categories), in the case of d' maxima.

2.1.2. Participants

Participants were 20 students and staff (18 females, 2 males) at colleges in the Boston area. All were 18 years of age or older and had self-reported native American English speaking abilities, normal hearing, and a range of musical experience. Participants received a nominal sum for their participation.

2.1.3. Stimuli

Four stimulus series were constructed based on short phrases containing a target polysyllabic word or pseudoword with a specific stress pattern. Each word or pseudoword was selected to investigate accentual categories which were critically ambiguous under current formulations of AM theory, and all contained a SUS or SUUS syllable sequence. To manifest the ambiguity in accentual categories (outlined in Sections 1.1.2, 1.1.3, and Figures 1 and 2), it was necessary to find single words with ambiguous stress patterns that would sound natural under multiple realizations of pitch-accent-to-syllable alignment in just the situations predicted to be ambiguous in AM theory. The use of fixed lexical stress conditions, which are more common in English than variable lexical stress conditions for individual lexical items, would have undercut our attempts to test AM theoretic predictions by making lexically implausible some of the predicted shifts in syllable-level affiliation of pitch accents, as fixed lexical stress items lack the critical ambiguities under current AM theory that typify words with multiple possible strong syllables. Whether changes in syllable-level affiliation of pitch accents was responsible for some or all evidence of distinct categories was tested in Experiment 4.

It was of utmost importance that the ambiguous stress patterns be contained in a single word, such that no target sequence contained or abutted a word boundary. This ensured that a F0 peak or valley could not be attributed to word edge tones (phrase accents or boundary tones), which occur at the right edge of a word (24). The predominant AM theories of intonational phonology are all be able to explain the presence of shifts between intonational categories in continuum-spanning boundaries stronger than syllable boundaries in terms of edge tones (phrase accents or boundary tones), which also can manifest as F0 peaks or valleys (7, 8, 11); however, confining pitch accent ambiguities to within a single word in these stimuli precluded a phonological interpretation that the F0 peaks or valleys arose from such edge tones. In addition, the phrases used contained exclusively sonorant segments across the critical syllable sequence over which an F0 peak or valley was shifted (i.e., the target sequence). Using only sonorant segments ensured that F0 contours could be consistently measured and manipulated within the word, as sonorants are reliably voiced throughout the duration of the consonant. In addition, a different phrase was used for each stimulus series in order to reduce boredom and fatigue of subjects, as well as to reduce carryover effects across blocks. Finally, the second series (the *Lannameraine* series, described below) alone contained a SUUS syllable sequence, while the other three contained or consisted entirely of a SUS

syllable sequence. The selection of a SUUS sequence for the lexical material for that series, paired with the described manipulation to F0 peak timing, was made due to the greater ambiguity in phonological interpretation afforded in AM theory for F0 peak alignment relative to pitch accent categories, compared with F0 valley alignment. Each phrase was spoken by the first author and recorded in a sound-attenuated room using a high-quality omnidirectional microphone. Phrases were low-pass filtered at 8 kHz and digitized at 16 kHz direct to computer hard disk using in-house software (MARSHA v. 2.0, written by Mark Tiede).

The first stimulus series (the *millionaire* series) was based on the phrase *For a millionaire*, spoken with a H* pitch accent followed by a final low boundary tone (L-L%); the F0 peak was aligned with the first syllable of *mil-*, and main stress was on the initial syllable. The stress pattern for *millionaire* is S₁US₂; underlining indicates the critical syllable sequence for which the timing of the F0 peak was varied. This word can have its main phrasal stress on either S₁ or S₂ in mainstream American English.

The second series (the *Lannameraine* series) was based on the phrase *In Lannameraine*, also spoken with a H* pitch accent followed by a final low boundary tone (L-L%); the F0 peak was aligned with *Lan-*, and main stress was on the initial syllable. Here, *Lannameraine* is a pseudoword pronounced /lanəmərəɪn/ which has a S₁U₁U₂S₂ stress pattern; the orthographic spelling of *Lannameraine* was chosen so that either the first or last syllable could carry the main stress. A pseudoword was selected because no familiar words in English consisted entirely of sonorant phonemes and had a S₁UUS₂ stress pattern where either S₁ or S₂ could have main stress (and thus a pitch accent). Three graduate students in linguistics at MIT verified that, on the basis of the orthography and pronunciation of the item as given in an IPA transcription, either S₁ or S₂ could be the main stress syllable. Each graduate student was provided with a survey that described *Lannameraine* as “an unfamiliar proper name” which was “a made-up word”. The students were asked to indicate which syllable was likely to carry “the main (i.e., primary) stress, based on your best guess of how the word would be pronounced.” The phonetic transcription /la nəmə ɹeɪn/ was provided. Four choices were then provided: (1) *Lan-* is the only possible main stress; (2) *-raine* is the only possible main stress; (3) either *Lan-* or *-raine* might possibly be the main stress syllable; or (4) other, with a blank provided for a response. All three students selected response (3). Note that both the *millionaire* and *Lannameraine* stimulus series had F0 contours on prestress syllables which were high in the pitch range and evidenced a rising contour. This precluded the possibility that any of the F0 contours in these manipulations corresponded to a L+H* accent, which involves an F0 contour on prestress syllables that is low in the speaker’s pitch range and/or remains flat or shows an F0 valley (11).

The third series (the *lemonade* series) was based on the phrase *Some lemonade*, spoken with a L* pitch accent followed by a final high boundary tone (H-H%); the F0 valley was aligned with the end of

lem-, and main stress was on the initial syllable. The stress pattern of *lemonade* is $S_1\underline{U}S_2$; in mainstream American English this word can have primary stress (and thus a pitch accent) on either S_1 or S_2 .

Finally, the fourth series (the *nonrenewable* series) was based on the phrase *They're nonrenewable*, spoken with a L^* pitch accent and associated F0 valley on *new-*, followed by a final high boundary tone (H-H%); the main stress was on the third syllable. The stress pattern of *nonrenewable* is $S_1\underline{U}_1\underline{S}_2U_2U_3$; S_2 (*new-*) is the default main stress syllable in American English and S_1 can carry primary stress under contrastive emphasis. Unlike the other three series, the *nonrenewable* series included speech material after the critical SUS/SUUS sequence; however, it is critical to note that in this experiment, and in all subsequent experiments, the F0 contour across the last two syllables of this word was constant. Manipulations only took place across the first SUS syllable sequence of this word, as for the other target words. For this series, AM theory predicted no shift in syllable-level affiliation of the pitch accent.

To create each stimulus, the F0 contour for each phase was stylized using straight line interpolation in Praat (73). These sequences correspond to an idealized version of typical intonation patterns found in naturally-produced sentences. However, it is thought that they still represent sentences in the scope of normal variation for prosodic contours. The F0 peak or valley for the stimulus, along with the other F0 transition points in the critical syllable sequence (i.e., intersections of line segments), were then shifted in 30 ms increments through the critical syllables, leading to a different number of steps for each series. For the *millionaire* series, an F0 peak was shifted through /mɪljən/, creating 13 stimuli (Figure 3(a)). For the *Lannameraine* series, an F0 peak was shifted through /lənəmərə/, creating 18 stimuli (Figure 3(b)). For the *lemonade* series, an F0 valley was shifted through /ləmən/, creating 10 stimuli (Figure 3(c)). Finally, for the *nonrenewable* series, an F0 valley was shifted through /rənu/, creating 13 stimuli (Figure 3(d)). F0 values associated with numbered time points shown in Figure 3 are given in Table 1; these numbered points also indicate F0 values which were connected by straight line segments to stylize contours for each series. These points were selected in order to capture in stylized fashion the natural F0 variation present in the original stimuli, while giving rise to a series of time points for which the F0 values of key portions of the contour could be systematically manipulated. Stimuli in the *lemonade* and *nonrenewable* series were preceded by level F0 in prenuclear position, since it was judged by the author that the result sounded more natural than the falling prenuclear contour used in Redi (47); it was hypothesized that this change would increase the likelihood that listeners would interpret stimuli in a categorical way. The PSOLA algorithm (74) was used for resynthesis using default options as implemented in Praat.

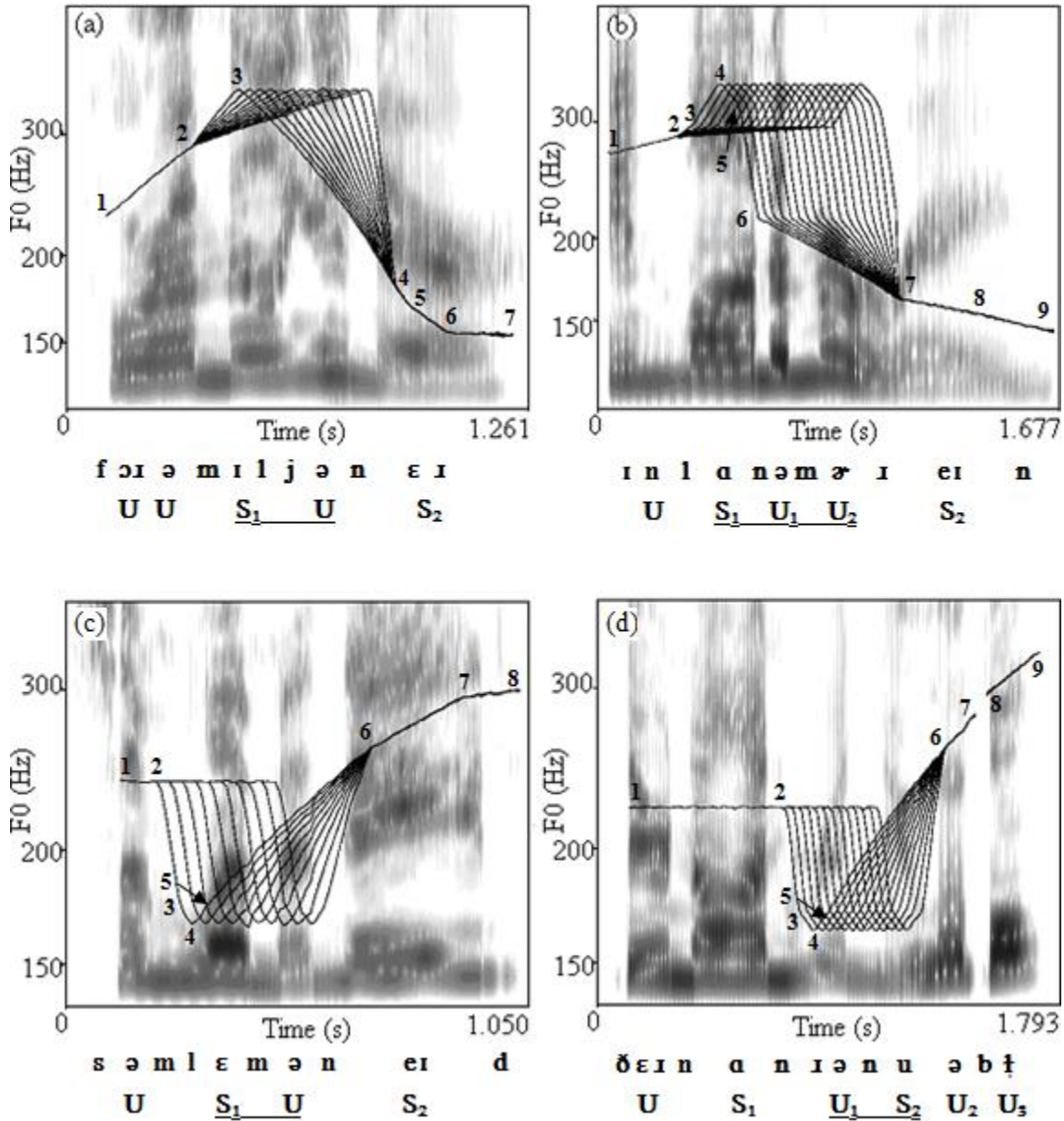


Figure 3: Stimuli used in the present experiments. The phrases for each series are as follows: (a) *For a millionaire* (millionaire series), (b) *In Lannameraine* (Lannameraine series), (c) *Some lemonade?* (lemonade series), and (d) *They're nonrenewable?* (nonrenewable series). Numbered points indicate F0 values which were connected by straight line segments to stylize contours for each series (cf. Table 1), generally selected based on segmental properties of the stimulus. A time-aligned IPA transcription of each phrase is shown below each series, along with designation of the stressed (S) and unstressed (U) syllables in each phrase. Underlined segments and syllables indicate the critical portions of each phrase over which F0 points were shifted in time. Subscripts enumerate ordinal numbers of S or U syllables in the target word of each phrase.

Table 1: F0 values in stimuli for numbered time points in Figure 3. Values given are for the first stimulus in the series, i.e., the stimulus with the earliest time points. Times, *t*, are given in seconds, and F0 values are given in Hz.

	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9	
	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0	<i>t</i>	F0
<i>millionaire</i>	0.12	230	0.34	288	0.47	350	0.90	181	0.94	169	1.04	155	1.23	153	-	-	-	-
<i>Lannameraine</i>	0.04	268	0.28	284	0.34	295	0.44	345	0.51	318	0.58	215	1.10	162	1.40	153	1.70	143
<i>lemonade</i>	0.12	237	0.21	237	0.26	173	0.29	165	0.32	173	0.69	258	0.90	294	1.03	300	-	-
<i>nonrenewable</i>	0.08	222	0.67	222	0.71	172	0.78	162	0.84	172	1.35	257	1.41	269	1.53	299	1.70	327

The final stimuli in each series were judged by the first author to sound very natural, with all stimuli within a series being judged to sound comparably natural to the others. The *millionaire* series differed from the others in that only the F0 extremum, but not other transition points connecting straight line segments, was varied across the target sequence. This was done to adhere to the procedure used in creating F0 extremum continua in Redi (47), resulting in a very natural-sounding continuum. In contrast, for the other series categories were judged by the first author to sound clearer and stimuli more natural when multiple transition points were used during the target sequence. The end result was that for the *millionaire* series, but not the others, F0 extremum timing covaried with a slope change. This is unlikely to have significantly impacted the results concerning number or locations of category boundaries. Niebuhr (75) investigated a range of variation in slope approximately comparable to that of the *millionaire* series and found that the slope of the contour leading up to an F0 peak slightly modulates the location along a stimulus continuum of discrimination maxima, as well as boundaries in categorization functions. Based on his findings, slope variation in the *millionaire* stimuli would be expected to affect the precise location of a discrimination peak or category boundary by around +/- 20 ms – less than the 30 msec shift in F0 timing distinguishing each stimulus in the *millionaire* series – and the slope change would not be expected to affect *whether* a discrimination peak or category boundary were observed. Still, this is an understudied aspect of variation in F0 contours for sentences, and merits further study, particularly in light of theories that have proposed that slope may in fact be an important component of intonational phonology (Dilley, 2005; D’Imperio, 2000).

2.1.4. Procedure, apparatus and task

Each stimulus series was presented as a block, and the order of blocks was randomized across participants. Within each block, approximately 80% of trials involved presentation of two different stimuli (“different” trials), while 20% of trials involved presentation of the same stimulus twice (“same” trials); the use of *d'* as the dependent measure meant that perceptual sensitivity was independent of the ratio of “same” to “different” trials. The order of trials was randomized within each block. “Same” trials were

drawn from the entire stimulus series for a given block. The identity of stimuli in “same” trials was determined by random selection from all stimuli in a given stimulus series, with the number of “same” trials determined by the 4:1 ratio of “different” to “same” trials for each stimulus block. Using a ratio of 4:1 for “different” vs. “same” trials was done to keep the experiment to around an hour in length. In particular, each stimulus was presented as part of a “same” trial between 0 and 3 times across the whole experiment, with a mean of 1.9 times per stimulus. For “different” trials, step size and the distinct identity of stimulus pairs was randomized from trial to trial. Each “different” stimulus pair was presented four times during a block; this was done to obtain a more accurate representation of the perceptions of each subject for each level of step size, thereby reducing between-subjects variability and increasing the power of the experiment to detect effects of the manipulation. The order of presentation of the two stimuli for each “different” pair was counterbalanced across presentations. For example, stimulus 1 was followed by stimulus 4 on two presentations within each block, while the reverse was true on the other two presentations. The notation (x,y) will refer to either ordering of stimuli x and y in a given trial. The inter-stimulus-interval between the two members of a pair of “same” or “different” stimuli was 250 ms.

An AX (same-different) task was used. Stimuli were presented over studio-quality headphones in a sound-attenuated booth via a computer running MATLAB software (The MathWorks, Inc.). On each trial, participants heard a pair of stimuli and were instructed to decide whether the two sound files were the same or different. They responded by using the computer mouse to click the appropriate box labeled “same” or “different” on the computer screen and then clicked a box to proceed to the next trial. Ten practice trials preceded each block of experimental trials. The number of trials in the *millionaire*, *Lannameraine*, *lemonade*, and *nonrenewable* blocks was 120, 195, 75, and 120, respectively. The order of the four blocks was randomized for each participant. Participants were given short breaks between each of the four blocks. The entire experiment lasted about an hour. Due to a computer error, the data for only the *nonrenewable* series from one participant were lost. For each subject, a hit rate, described as correctly responding “different” to a “different” trial, and an average false alarm rate, described as incorrectly responding “different” to a “same” trial, were calculated. These measures were then used to calculate d' for each condition (i.e., the pairing of each level of stimulus series with each level of step size).

2.2. Results and Discussion

2.2.1. Effects of step size and stimulus series on discrimination

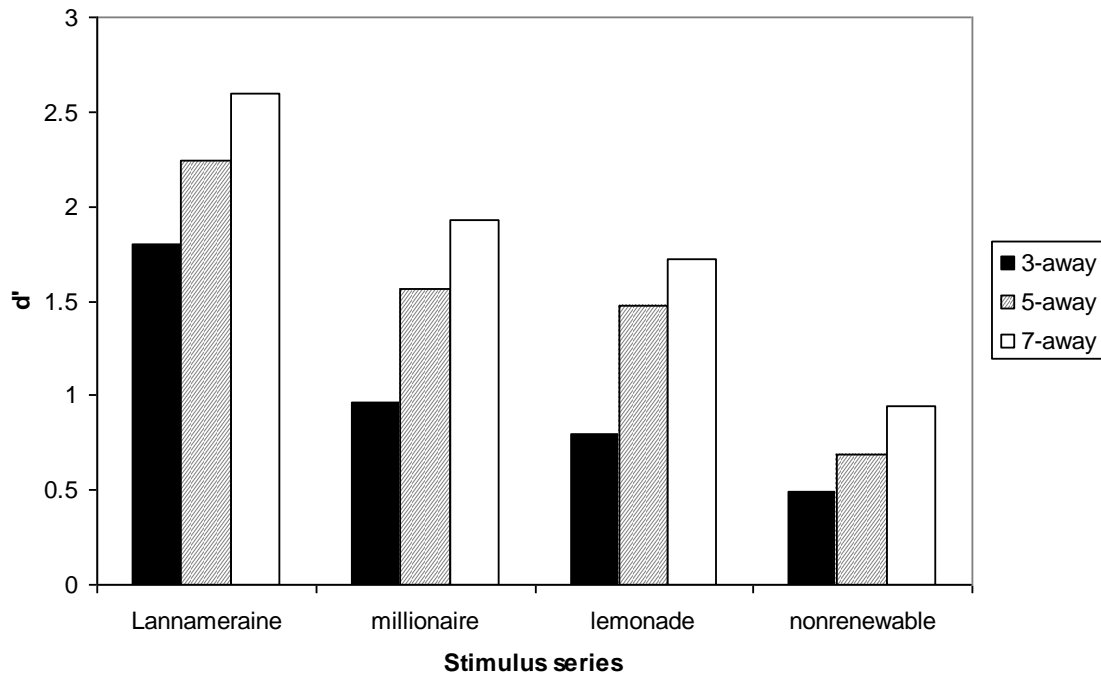


Figure 4: Perceptual sensitivity, d' , as a function of stimulus series and step size (3-away, 5-away, or 7-away) for Experiment 1.

Figure 4 shows average d' values for all 3-away, 5-away and 7-away stimulus pairs for each stimulus series. As expected, d' increased with larger step sizes. Moreover, there were differences in discriminability across series. A two-way repeated measures ANOVA on d' values, with stimulus series and step size as factors, confirmed a main effect of step size, $F(2,38) = 79.360, p < .001$, a main effect of stimulus series, $F(3,57) = 35.881, p < .001$, and a significant interaction between step size and stimulus series, $F(6,114) = 8.658, p < .001$. To further explore differences in d' across series, a one-way ANOVA with stimulus series as the factor was carried out on d' values averaged across all step sizes. The ANOVA showed a significant effect of stimulus series, $F(3,57) = 38.459, p < .001$. Follow-up two-tailed, paired-samples t -tests with Bonferroni correction to control familywise Type I error rate showed significant differences between each pair of stimulus series, $t(19) \geq 3.525, p < .005$ for all, except for *millionaire* vs. *lemonade*, $t(19) = 1.749, p = .096$. Differences in discriminability across series may reflect physical differences in the speech, including duration, F0 slope, and so on, all of which have been shown to affect perception of F0 in speech (5, 76-78). Differences across series may also reflect inherent differences in discriminability of F0 peaks vs. valleys (70, 79), distinct segmental compositions and associated interactions with pitch (5, 80, 81), the precise distribution of the alignment of peaks and valleys with steps and syllables across conditions, or possibly other factors.

2.2.2. Locations of d' maxima and minima for each stimulus series

Of primary interest for testing hypotheses about accent categories was the number of local d' minima and maxima in each stimulus series. d' minima and maxima were expected to reflect stimulus pairs which were heard as maximally alike (and thus representative of the same phonological category) or maximally different (and thus representative of distinct phonological categories), respectively. Therefore, finding statistically significant differences between a successive d' minimum and maximum would reinforce the interpretation of these stimulus locations as spanning stimuli which were category exemplars and category boundaries, respectively. Inspection of d' for stimulus pairs across series revealed that, as expected, 3-away stimulus pairs showed the greatest numbers of d' maxima and minima. The remainder of the analysis therefore focuses on results from the 3-away step size for each series. The shapes of d' curves for 5-away and 7-away series were similar to those of the 3-away series, in particular by showing comparable locations of peaks and valleys to those of the 3-away series but with a general flattening of the curves associated with the overall higher d' values due to the larger step sizes. Statistical analyses were two-tailed, paired-samples t -tests on stimulus pairs representing successive local d' maxima and minima, in order to investigate category exemplars and boundaries. Bonferroni corrections were applied on all comparisons for a given stimulus series, holding familywise Type I error rate to $p < .05$ for each series.

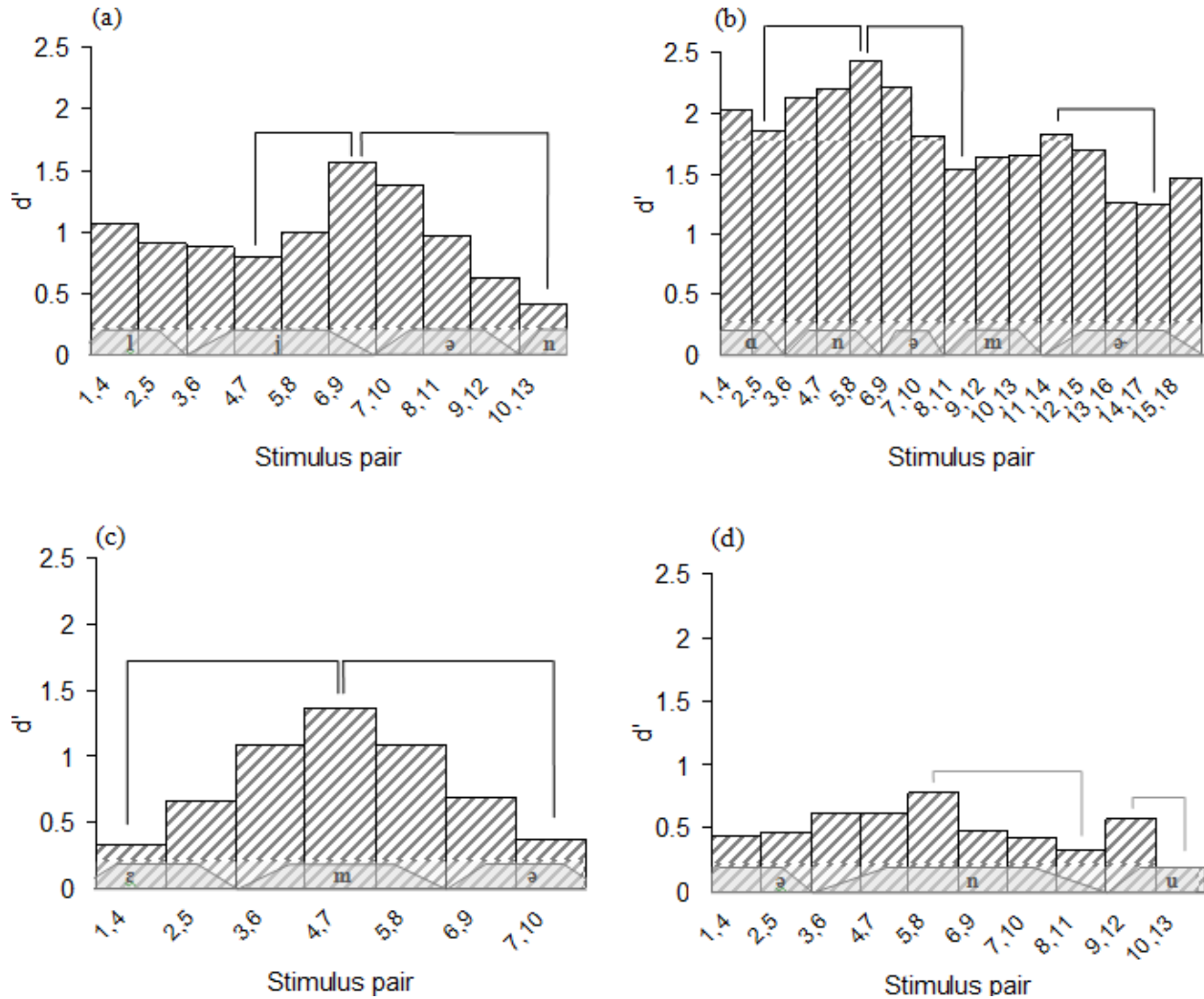


Figure 5: Perceptual sensitivity, d' , as a function of stimulus pair for (a) the *millionaire* series, (b) the *Lannameraine* series, (c) the *lemonade* series, and (d) the *nonrenewable* series in Experiment 1. Black bars indicate successive stimulus pairs which were significantly different at $p < .01$, while solid grey bars indicate stimulus pairs which were significantly different at $p < .05$ before Bonferroni correction. Trapezoids at the bottom of the figure indicate the temporal alignment between segments and stimuli. In particular, the left edge of each trapezoid at the bottom of a given figure is aligned with the left edge of the bar showing paired stimulus numbers which, when averaged and rounded up, identifies the stimulus number for that series whose F0 maximum or minimum occurred at the onset of the marked segment. For example, the stimulus number which had an F0 maximum at the approximate temporal onset of /j/ in the *millionaire* series was stimulus 5; thus, the left edge of the trapezoid for /j/ is aligned with bar (3,6) (since $(3 + 6)/2 = 4.5 \approx 5$).

Of primary interest are the locations and numbers of category boundaries and category exemplars for each stimulus series. Figure 5(a) shows d' for individual stimulus pairs for the *millionaire* series. Successive d' maxima and minima which are significantly different from one another (i.e., minima

followed by maxima, or maxima followed by minima, with a significant difference in their d' scores) at $p < .001$, $t(19) \geq 4.097$ are marked with solid black brackets. Participants found discrimination between stimuli (4,7) and (10,13) most challenging, as indicated by the d' minima at those two points, which suggests that each pair of stimuli has individual stimulus steps which are members of the same perceptual category as the other member of the same pair for these participants.

Furthermore, it was possible to infer for each pair of stimuli giving rise to a local d' minimum which stimulus or stimuli corresponded to the category exemplar(s) following simple assumptions. Note for a given d' minimum which was generated by a stimulus pair with three steps of separation—such as (4,7) for the *millionaire* series—stimuli with intermediate physical characteristics and thus just a single step of physical separation—namely, (5,6)—are expected to be equally discriminable or less discriminable (i.e., equally similar or more similar) than (4,7) had been, so that either stimulus 5 or 6 should be just as representative or even more representative of the category than either 4 or 7. Based on this same logic, any stimulus pair which did *not* give rise to a local d' minimum—for example, (5,8)—should by definition be *more* discriminable than a nearby pair that did generate a d' minimum, so that the non-minimum pair should contain stimuli that are not as representative of the same category as the pair that gave rise to the d' minimum. Thus, it could be inferred that the local d' minimum at (4,7) corresponded to a category exemplar at stimulus 5 or 6, and that the local d' minimum at (10,13) corresponded to a category exemplar at stimulus 11 or 12.

However, local d' minima alone are not enough to indicate that listeners perceive two categories for *millionaire*, since they may hear the stimuli as members of one category only, perhaps without a well-defined exemplar. Finding a d' maximum between two successive d' minima would indicate that listeners not only encode two possible exemplars in the pair continua but also differentiate those two exemplars from each other. For *millionaire*, there was, in fact, a local maximum at (6,9), between the minima at (4,7) and (10,13), which suggests that stimuli 6 and 9 belong to distinct perceptual categories. Moreover, the local maximum at (6,9) is significantly different from (4,7) and (10,13). We here made the reasonable assumption that the boundary between the two perceptual categories lies mid-way between stimuli 6 and 9, so that stimuli 6 and 7 likely belong to one category and 8 and 9 probably belong to another category. Thus, the point of transition from one category to the other along the stimulus continuum occurs at about stimulus 8.

Next, Figure 5(b) shows d' for individual stimulus pairs for the *Lannameraine* series. Stimulus pairs which are significantly different from one another at $p < .008$, $t(19) \geq 2.996$ are marked with solid black brackets. There are three local minima at (2,5), (8,11), and (14,17). The difference between the minimum at (8,11) and the maximum at (11,14) missed significance ($p = .173$), but the preponderance of evidence following the logic outlined for the *millionaire* sequence suggests that this series spans up to

three pitch accent categories. The best exemplars for these three categories are in the range 2-5, 8-11, and 14-17. By further extension, the two local maxima at (5,8) and (11,14) indicate that there are two category boundaries, which occur somewhere between stimuli 5-8 and stimuli 11-14, implying that there are a total of three categories in the *Lannameraine* stimulus continuum. The first category boundary thus occurs approximately between stimuli 6 and 7, the middle stimuli between the pair of stimuli giving rise to the d' maximum at (5,8); the F0 peak for stimulus 7 occurs just after the vowel onset of the second syllable in *Lannameraine*. Moreover, the second category boundary lies approximately between stimulus 12 and 13, the middle stimuli between the pair of stimuli giving rise to the d' maximum at (11,14); the F0 peak for stimulus 13 occurs just after the vowel onset of the third syllable in *Lannameraine*. Note that a significant motivation of the present paper was the hypothesis that three categories exist in *Lannameraine*, not two; this contrasts quite directly with most AM theories of tonal phonology, which can only accommodate two categories. As a tentative step, the category H*+H is proposed for this third category not predicted by AM theory. In Section 6.3 we discuss the pitch accent categories that may populate the *Lannameraine* series.

Figure 5(c) shows d' for individual stimulus pairs for the *lemonade* series. Stimulus pairs which are significantly different from one another at $p < .001$, $t(19) \geq 4.586$ are marked with solid black brackets. There are two local minima at (1,4) and (7,10), indicating at most two categories for this series; best exemplars for these categories are in the range 1-4 and 7-10. The local maximum at (4,7) further indicates that a category boundary lies in the range of stimuli 4-7, implying that two categories exist within *lemonade*. This suggests that the crossover from one category to the other is approximately between stimulus 5 and 6, the midpoint between the two local d' minima; the F0 valley for stimulus 6 is aligned just after the onset of /m/ in *lemonade*.

Finally, Figure 5(d) shows d' for individual stimulus pairs for the *nonrenewable* series. Stimulus pairs which are significantly different from one another at $p < .05$, $t(19) \geq 2.101$ before Bonferroni correction (but not after) are marked with solid gray brackets. There is thus weak and somewhat conflicting evidence of three minima, suggesting a possibility of three categories for this series. The minimum at (8,11) was significantly different before Bonferroni correction with respect to the maximum at (5,8). In addition, the minimum at (10,13) was different at $p < .05$ from the maximum at (9,12) before Bonferroni correction. Attempting to identify ranges of stimuli which encompass category exemplars suggests that the results conflict about the number of categories. Overall, data from this series suggest either two or three pitch accent categories, with category boundaries apparently lying somewhere in the range of stimuli 5-8 and 9-12. The low d' overall probably contributed to a floor effect for this series, leading to relatively low power to identify categories. This interpretation is supported by the significance of some differences before Bonferroni correction, as well as the systematicity of d' values for stimulus pairs across the *nonrenewable* series as successively rising to local maxima and falling to local minima,

consistent with other series. The relatively lower power for this series could have been due to less salient stimulus manipulations compared with say, the *lemonade* series (e.g., since this series involves a longer phrase requiring more memory to store; 82). To summarize, Experiment 1 provides evidence that the *millionaire* series spans two pitch accent categories, the *Lannameraine* series three categories, the *lemonade* series two categories, and the *nonrenewable* series may span either two or three categories. It is noteworthy that in each stimulus series the number and alignment of category boundaries (and by extension, the number and alignment of categories) appear to correspond well to the syllable boundaries traversed by the F0 extrema for each series.

3. Experiment 2

Experiment 2 involved an AXB categorization task; the purpose of this experiment was to determine the extent of converging evidence with respect to Experiment 1 for (a) the number of pitch accent categories in each stimulus series, and (2) the locations along each series for crossover points from one category to another. In an AXB procedure, a to-be-categorized stimulus, X, is classified as one of two temporally-ordered, flanking stimuli, A and B. This procedure was selected because it is particularly useful when categories do not have readily identifiable names or clearly describable meaning differences. In these stimuli all alignment differences within a stimulus series occurred within the same polysyllabic word or pseudoword, in order to ensure that no alignment differences could be attributed to a phrase accent aligned with a word edge. Meaning differences arising from phonological differences in pitch accent type associated with F0 alignment differences were expected to be too subtle to clearly describe to participants. Recall that it was hypothesized that category contrasts stemming from F0 peak or valley alignment differences cued a difference in phrase-level relative prominence, which can sometimes cue meaning-related differences e.g., in the location of narrow focus (41). However, in order for such a difference in focus to arise, the strongest phrase-level prominence would need to occur on different words under distinct F0 peak or valley alignment conditions. Thus, clear meaning differences were not expected to arise from variations in these stimuli, necessitating an implicit labeling task.

In a pilot AXB experiment using Experiment 1 stimuli, a few participants had a hard time reliably categorizing items, and in post-experiment interviews some reported that they thought they could not hear pitch differences among stimuli in a series. It was hypothesized that this was due to participants' focusing on the acoustic similarity of stimuli to one another, as well as their being unused to listening for small pitch changes in speech. To address these issues in the current experiment, instructions were chosen to sensitize participants to "small differences" in the speech (without naming pitch specifically); moreover, a familiarization phase was added in which participants were exposed to category exemplars for a stimulus

series prior to the AXB task. In addition, given evidence of individual differences in psychophysical ability to perceive small pitch changes (83-85), it was hypothesized that participants would show variability in ability to detect, and hence classify, pitch changes in speech. To assess participants' differential abilities to reliably detect and classify pitch differences in exemplar stimuli, a separate "test phase" was added between the familiarization and categorization phases. It was reasoned that the participants who could most accurately perceive, and thus categorize, pitch differences associated with exemplar stimuli during the test phase might categorize non-exemplar stimuli more consistently during the generalization phase, thereby generating a steeper s-shaped curve which would permit a more reliable assessment of the location of category boundaries.

3.1. Methods

3.1.1. Participants

Participants were 73 undergraduate students at the Ohio State University. All were 18 years of age or older and had self-reported native American English speaking abilities, normal hearing, and a range of musical experience. They received course credit in an introductory psychology course in return for their participation. Thirty-six students were randomly assigned to the Peaks condition, and 37 were assigned to the Valleys condition.

3.1.2. Stimuli

The stimuli consisted of a subset of those used in Experiment 1, as described below.

3.1.3. Equipment

Stimuli were presented over studio-quality headphones in a sound-attenuated booth via a computer running custom audiovisual presentation software.

3.1.4. Design and Procedure

Due to the lengthy procedure with three separate phases for each set of stimuli (familiarization, test, categorization), type of stimulus was treated as a between-subjects factor with two conditions: time-shifted peaks (Peaks condition) or time-shifted valleys (Valleys condition). Participants assigned to the Peaks condition heard stimuli drawn from the *millionaire* and *Lannameraine* series, while participants assigned to the Valleys condition heard stimuli from the *lemonade* and *nonrenewable* series. This ensured

that the experiment was around an hour in length for any given participant. A second, within-subjects factor was stimulus identity.

A blocked design was used in each condition. Each block was designed around two category exemplars, which were selected based on results of Experiment 1. In Experiment 1, local d' minima were identified that represented points of lowest intra-pair discriminability for participants, thought to correlate with perception of a category exemplar somewhere between the members of that pair (refer back to Section 2.2.2 for a full discussion). Exemplars in Experiment 2 were chosen from within the boundaries of the pair members of each local d' minimum in Experiment 1. Because these pairs were 3 steps apart on the continuum of peak or valley locations, there were two possible exemplar values along the stimulus step continuum (see Section 2.2.2). Choosing between these values to pick the exemplar could not be motivated from the results of Experiment 1 alone. Rather, in most cases, which of the two potential exemplars was chosen to be the category exemplar for Experiment 2 was determined by an attempt to make the difference between category exemplars as large as possible, as well as, for the *Lannameraine* stimuli, to avoid overlapping ranges.

For the Peaks condition, there were three blocks: one block of stimuli from the *millionaire* series, and two blocks from the *Lannameraine* series. Dividing *Lannameraine* stimuli into two separate blocks was carried out since discrimination data from Experiment 1 had suggested three categories for this series; by dividing these stimuli into two blocks (with one exemplar shared between them), participants could focus on just two category exemplars during each block. Results from both blocks could then be combined to determine whether there was converging evidence for the existence of three categories, as would be indicated by categorization of non-exemplars for each block. The *Lannameraine I* had stimuli 4 and 9 as exemplars, with stimuli between 4 and 9 used as comparison (i.e., non-exemplar) stimuli. The *Lannameraine II* block used stimuli 9 and 17 as exemplars, with stimuli 10-16 serving as non-exemplar stimuli. The *millionaire* block used stimuli 5 and 12 as exemplars, with stimuli 6-11 serving as non-exemplar stimuli. For the Valleys condition, there were two blocks. The *lemonade* block used stimuli 5 and 9 as exemplar stimuli, with stimuli 6-8 serving as non-exemplar stimuli. An early analysis of d' data made it appear as if stimulus 5 was a category exemplar for the *lemonade* series; this was later discovered and corrected. The choice of stimulus 5 as an exemplar for the *lemonade* series, instead of, say, stimulus 3, is unlikely to have significantly affected results for this experiment, since results of Experiment 1 suggest that stimuli 3 and 5 were both perceived as belonging to the same category. Finally, the *nonrenewable* block used stimuli 2 and 10 as exemplars, with stimuli 3-9 serving as non-exemplar stimuli.

For the Peaks condition, three stimulus lists were constructed by counterbalancing the order of the three blocks using a Latin Square design. For the Valleys condition, two lists were constructed by

counterbalancing the order of the two blocks. Within each condition, participants were randomly assigned to lists in approximately equal numbers.

The experimental procedures used for both conditions were identical and involved three phases for each stimulus block: a familiarization phase, a test phase, and a generalization phase. The familiarization phase consisted of trials in which category exemplars were presented, with feedback provided after each trial. The subsequent test and generalization phases together consisted of a single series of trials without feedback. For the test phase, participants heard only stimuli that had been presented during the immediately preceding familiarization trials, that is, category exemplars. For the generalization phase, participants heard stimuli that had not been presented during familiarization, in addition to category exemplars.

Trios of stimuli were constructed for the test and generalization phases; the first stimulus in each trio consisted of one of the category exemplars for that block, while the third stimulus consisted of the other exemplar for that block. The second stimulus in each trio corresponded to another repetition of one of the exemplars during the test phase or a non-exemplar stimulus during the generalization phase. Given these sequencing restrictions, trios were constructed in all possible orders of the three stimuli. Half of the trios presented began with one of the two exemplars for that block, while the other half of trios began with the other exemplar for that block. The inter-stimulus interval (ISI) between successive stimuli in each trio on a given trial was 0 ms (i.e., each successive stimulus in a trio was presented immediately after the previous one). The ISI between successive trials was 2.7 seconds.

Participants were told that during each block they would hear speech phrases that were spoken in slightly different ways, and that they should attempt to learn the small differences. For each familiarization block, the category exemplar with the lower stimulus number was arbitrarily designated Category A, and the other exemplar was Category B. On each familiarization trial, participants heard one of the category exemplars for that block. A screen prompt then indicated that participants should guess whether the stimulus corresponded to Category A or Category B. Participants then had 2.7 sec to circle "A" or "B" on their answer sheets. The computer screen then displayed the correct answer. There were 30 familiarization trials (15 Category A, 15 Category B), and the order of presentation of exemplars was randomized from trial to trial; each familiarization block lasted about two minutes.

Following familiarization, participants heard stimulus trios; the first and third stimuli corresponded to category exemplars from the immediately preceding familiarization set. Participants circled responses on an answer sheet to indicate whether they thought the second repetition of the phrase sounded more like the first repetition, or more like the third repetition. The first 24 trials corresponded to the test phase, and the remaining trials corresponded to the generalization phase. Each category non-

exemplar phrase during the generalization phase was presented 12 times as part of a stimulus trio. The identity of the non-exemplar stimulus varied randomly from trial to trial.

3.2. Results

3.2.1. Categorization of exemplars during the test phase

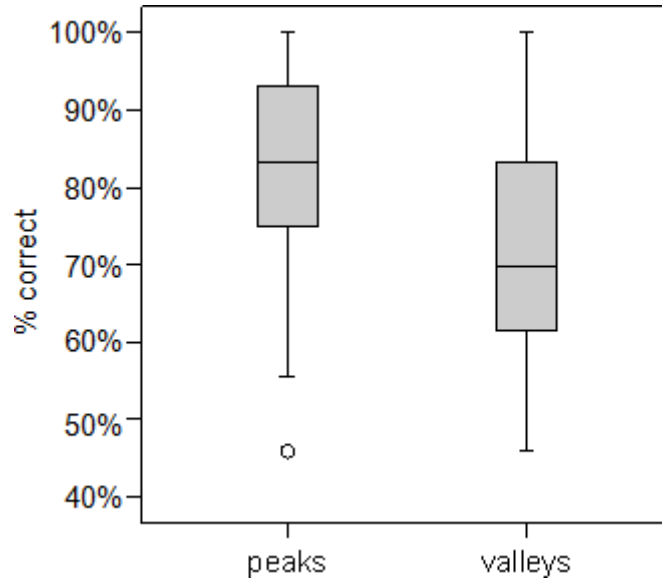


Figure 6: Box plots of percentage correct exemplar classification for the Peaks vs. Valleys conditions in Experiment 2.

The results showed that, overall, participants categorized exemplars correctly (i.e., categorized stimuli with a lower stimulus number as “Category A” and stimuli with a higher stimulus number as “Category B”) during the test phase. Figure 6 shows boxplots of the rate of correct exemplar classification during the test phase for all participants in the Peaks vs. Valleys condition. Participants in the Peaks condition more often correctly categorized exemplars ($M = 82\%$) than those in Valleys condition ($M = 72\%$), $F(1,72) = 8.976$, $p < .01$. In either condition, classification of exemplars was significantly better than the chance rate of 50% in two-tailed single-sample t -tests: $t(35) = 14.349$, $p < .001$ for the Peaks condition; and $t(36) = 9.495$, $p < .001$ for the Valleys condition. Figure 6 also indicates that a range of variability in participants’ abilities to correctly categorize exemplars.

There were also differences between individual blocks in participants’ abilities to correctly categorize exemplars. A one-way ANOVA on individual stimulus blocks within the Peaks condition revealed a main effect of stimulus block, $F(2,70) = 7.032$, $p < .01$. Rates of correct classification were higher for the *millionaire* block ($M = .87$, $SE = .03$) than for either the *Lannameraine I* block ($M = .83$, $SE = .03$) or the *Lannameraine II* block ($M = .77$, $SE = .03$). Follow-up two-tailed, paired-samples t -tests

confirmed differences between *millionaire* vs. *Lannameraine I*, $t(35) = 2.041$, $p < .05$, and between *millionaire* vs. *Lannameraine II*, $t(35) = 3.460$, $p < .001$, while *Lannameraine I* vs. *Lannameraine II* approached significance, $t(35) = 1.966$, $p = .057$. For the Valleys condition, exemplars were classified more accurately for the *nonrenewable* block ($M = .75$, $SE = .03$) than for the *lemonade* block ($M = .70$, $SE = .03$); a one-way ANOVA on these stimulus blocks approached significance, $F(1,36) = 3.972$, $p = .054$.

3.2.2. Categorization of non-exemplars during the generalization phase

The dependent measure for the generalization phase was the rate of classification of each non-exemplar stimulus as Category B. Due to prior work showing individual differences in pitch perception ability (83-85), and data showing variability among participants in the percentage of correct responses during the test phase, data from the generalization phase were partitioned into two groups. For both conditions, participants scoring at or above the median percentage correct based on test phase data were designated the Higher Sensitivity Group ($n = 18$ and $n = 19$ for the Peaks and Valleys conditions, respectively), while participants scoring below the median percentage correct based on test phase data were designated the Lower Sensitivity Group ($n = 18$ for both Peaks and Valleys conditions).

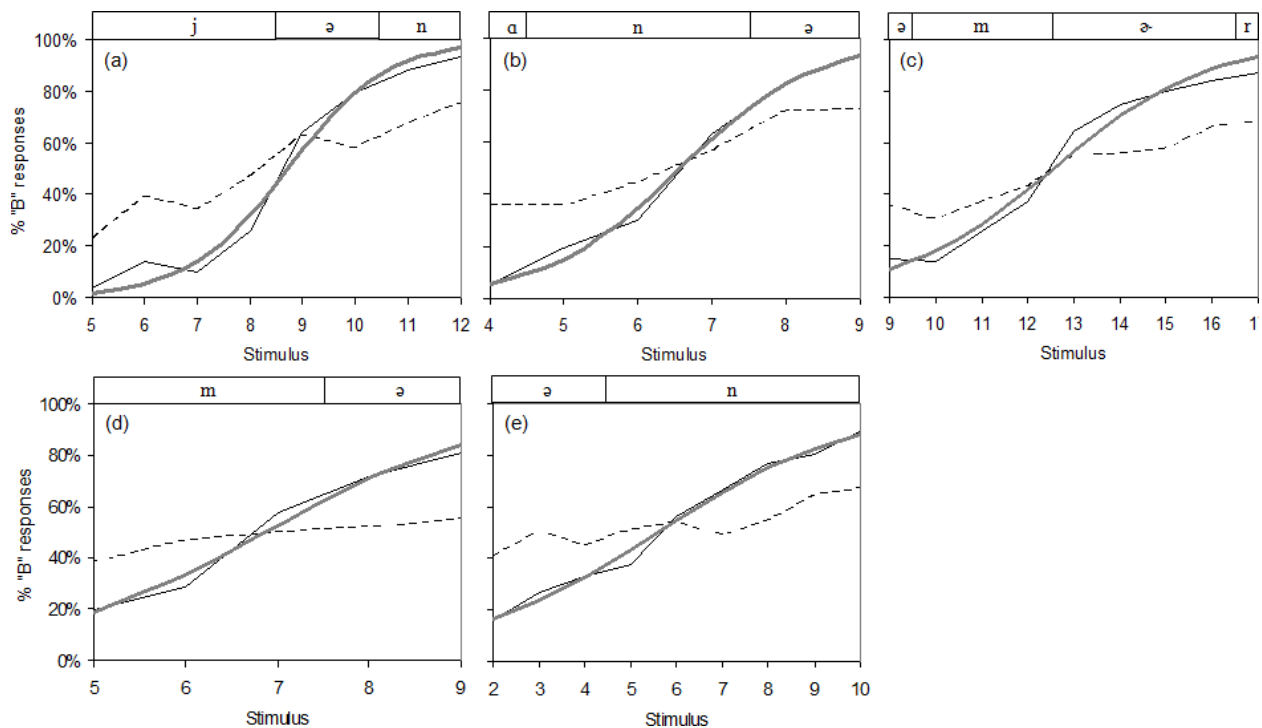


Figure 7: Classification of exemplar and non-exemplar stimuli as a Category B exemplar stimulus for (a) the *millionaire* block, (b) the *Lannameraine I* block, (c) the *Lannameraine II* block, (d) the *lemonade* block, and (e) the *nonrenewable* block in Experiment 2. Boxes at top of each panel illustrate the time-alignment of peaks or valleys of stimuli with segments.

Figure 7 shows the rate of categorizing of non-exemplar stimuli as Category B from the generalization phase, together with rates of exemplar classification from the test phase. Thin solid black lines show mean response rates for Higher Sensitivity Group, while dashed lines show mean response rates for Lower Sensitivity Group. As predicted, the Higher Sensitivity Group, who had more accurately classified stimuli during the test phase, evidenced curves for the generalization phase with a steeper slope and, sometimes, a clearer s-shape than the Lower Sensitivity Group. Note that the Lower Sensitivity Group's curve also shows a positive slope, indicating sensitivity to peak and valley timing, and the ability to classify non-exemplar stimuli in terms of exemplar categories.

Regressions were computed for each stimulus series based on the responses of the Higher Sensitivity Group, shown as a thick grey line. If members of each continuum are divided into perceptual categories by listeners, response functions across stimulus steps will not show a linear relationship between stimulus step and response; rather, there will be a crossover point with a very steep slope and a relatively stable slope within categories (see 63, for a discussion of typical patterns found in categorical perception for segmental phonology). As such, logistic regressions were thought to better model the typical pattern of results found in categorical perception data. The general form of the regression equation used is given in (1), where $f(s)$ is the estimated value for rate of classification of each non-exemplar stimulus as a member of Category B, s is the stimulus step, and γ and θ are estimated parameters for the model. For these regressions, crossover points were estimated by noting the x -axis value yielding 50% on the y -axis, corresponding to the "half-way" point between stimuli perceived as being a part of one category and stimuli being presented as being in another. Parameters for the equation given in (1), as well as mean squared error for each regression, are given in Table 2(a).

$$(1) f(s) = 1/[1+e^{(-\gamma(s + \theta))}]$$

Table 2: Logarithmic regression parameters and mean squared values for each stimulus block in Experiments 2-4.

These were calculated according to the equation in (1).

(a) Experiment 2					
	Stimulus Block				
	<i>millionaire</i>	<i>Lannameraine I</i>	<i>Lannameraine II</i>	<i>lemonade</i>	<i>nonrenewable</i>
γ	1.05	1.11	0.60	0.78	0.46
θ	-8.72	-6.58	-12.57	-6.87	-5.60
<i>MSE</i>	0.020	0.0040	0.022	0.0058	0.0051
(b) Experiment 3					
	Stimulus Block				
	<i>millionaire</i>	<i>Lannameraine I</i>	<i>Lannameraine II</i>	<i>lemonade</i>	<i>nonrenewable</i>
γ	0.71	0.62	0.93	0.71	0.44
θ	-8.26	-6.19	-12.65	-5.65	-8.22
<i>MSE</i>	0.088	0.037	0.091	0.079	0.32
(c) Experiment 4					
	Stimulus Block				
	<i>millionaire</i>	<i>Lannameraine I</i>	<i>Lannameraine II</i>	<i>lemonade</i>	
γ	0.46	0.86	0.89	0.38	
θ	-8.53	-8.06	-11.7	-6.44	
<i>MSE</i>	0.065	0.036	0.028	0.052	

Crossover points fell between the following stimulus pairs, for each of the blocks: *millionaire*, stimuli 8 and 9; *Lannameraine I*, stimuli 6 and 7; *Lannameraine II*, stimuli 12 and 13; *lemonade*, stimuli 6 and 7; and *nonrenewable*, stimuli 5 and 6. The crossover points found here all fell within the range of the ones seen in Experiment 1. The existence of a crossover point in categorization for each stimulus implies the existence of two categories, with the crossover point delimiting the boundary at which participants switch from hearing stimuli as being members of one category to perceiving stimuli as being a member of a separate category. Note that crossover points were found for both *Lannameraine I* and *Lannameraine II* series, at separate points within the entire *Lannameraine* continuum, implying the existence of two crossover points within the *Lannameraine* continuum considered as a whole. The existence of two crossover points implies three categories, one ending around stimulus 6, the second one beginning around stimulus 7 and ending around stimulus 12, and a third one beginning about stimuli 13, just as in Experiment 1, with category boundaries falling around syllabic boundaries.

3.3. Discussion

The results show that most participants were able to reliably detect the small pitch changes and correctly classify stimuli during the test phase using the AXB task. The Valleys condition was somewhat harder for participants, as gauged by a lower percentage of correct responses than the Peaks condition; this was likely due to the overall lower discriminability for stimuli in the Valleys series (see Experiment 1). Differences in F0 valley timing may be harder to perceive than differences in F0 peak timing (70, 79).

Overall, there was variability across individuals in ability to reliably categorize stimuli in the test phase. Data from the test phase were therefore used to split participants into two groups for examination of data from the generalization phase. As predicted, higher-sensitivity participants showed classification curves based on generalization data which were more s-shaped than lower-sensitivity participants. Significantly, when the curves for higher-sensitivity participants were fit, the locations of category boundaries agreed well with their locations from discrimination data in Experiment 1. Lower-sensitivity participants also showed sensitivity to peak and valley timing, as well as the ability to classify non-exemplar stimuli in terms of exemplar categories.

Overall, these results provide converging evidence for the number of intonational categories compared with Experiment 1, and the locations of boundaries between categories. In particular, category boundaries determined from higher-sensitivity participants' data supported two categories for the *millionaire* series, three categories for the *Lannameraine* series, two for the *lemonade* series, and two for the *nonrenewable* series. The fact that most curves were not strikingly s-shaped but instead rather shallow is suggestive of gradient categoriality, which has previously been shown for perception of Mandarin tones (86) as well as for vowels (38). In addition to individual differences in pitch perception, another possible reason for the differential performance among participants in categorization of exemplar and non-exemplar stimuli is that some participants, probably the lower-sensitivity participants, could have been less adept at categorizing stimuli that were phonologically different but (presumably) were not associated with a meaning difference. These issues might be fruitfully investigated in future studies, and are discussed further in Section 6.4.

4. Experiment 3

Based on a review of the literature, Gussenhoven (52) concluded that an imitation task was one of the best available means of assessing categories in intonation. An additional experiment was therefore conducted in which an imitation task was used, in order to determine whether such a task revealed

consistent evidence regarding the nature of the mapping from F0 alignment to English intonational categories.

4.1. Method

4.1.1 Stimuli

The stimuli were identical to those in Experiment 1.

4.1.2. Participants

Participants were 17 students and staff (5 males, 12 females) at MIT and other colleges in the Boston area. Participants were at least 18 years old with self-reported native American English proficiency, normal hearing, and a range of musical experience. None had any known training in phonetics or linguistics. All were paid a nominal sum for participation.

4.1.3. Design

There were two within-subjects factors in the experiment. The first was stimulus block, with five levels. Stimuli from the four series were divided into five stimulus blocks in a manner similar to Experiment 2; there was one block each for all stimuli in the *millionaire*, *lemonade*, and *nonrenewable* series, and there were two blocks for the *Lannameraine* series. Division of the *Lannameraine* series into two blocks was carried out because data from Experiment 1 had indicated that the *Lannameraine* series traversed 3 categories; thus, it was reasoned that dividing the series into two blocks would allow participants to focus on only two categories in any given block, on the assumption that fine-grained F0 timing differences would be cognitively recoded as an exemplar category. The *Lannameraine I* and *Lannameraine II* blocks corresponded to stimuli 1-11 and 8-18, respectively, from the *Lannameraine* series. These represent slightly different continua compared to the ones used for Experiment 2, since in Experiment 3 exemplars were not necessary to serve as endpoints for each continuum. The second factor was stimulus step, referring to the stimulus number or position of the F0 peak or F0 valley along the continuum of possible locations for each stimulus series. There were three repetitions of all five stimulus blocks. The order of blocks within each repetition was randomized, and the order of stimuli was randomized within each block.

4.1.4. Procedure and Equipment

Stimuli were sequenced for audio playback via computer using Winamp software (Nullsoft, Inc.) Participants wore studio-quality headphones and were seated in a sound-attenuated booth in front of a

computer screen with a high-quality microphone placed 8" from their lips. They were told that they would hear a phrase over headphones, and that they should imitate each phrase as closely as possible in a comfortable pitch range. This instruction was included to discourage participants from straining their voices to achieve the absolute F0 values of the female speaker who produced the original stimuli (the author). Each stimulus block was preceded by a set of practice trials consisting of stimuli drawn from the upcoming block. On each experimental trial, participants heard a given stimulus and imitated it; the same stimulus was then presented again for a second imitation by the participant. This repetition was done in order to avoid carryover effects from the preceding trial which had been observed in earlier imitation experiments. As auditory presentation of the first of the two repeated stimuli began, the experimenter pressed a key to initiate recording to a computer buffer; the length of the buffer corresponded to a pre-specified trial duration for that block, or the time of a second button press on that trial by the experimenter, whichever was earlier. The text of each phrase was displayed on a computer screen simultaneously while each stimulus was heard. Recordings were made using custom computer software for real-time audio recording and digitization (MARSHA v. 2.0 by Mark Tiede). Utterances were low-pass filtered at 8 kHz and digitized at 16 kHz. Participants were given a short break between repetitions of the stimulus blocks. The total duration of the experiment was approximately 50 minutes.

4.1.5. Analysis

Only the second of the two imitated versions on each trial was analyzed, unless the second could not be analyzed due to pervasive non-modal voicing, experimenter error, etc.; the first imitated version was analyzed on fewer than 5% of trials for all subjects. For each analyzed imitation, the onset of the first segment and offset of the last segment in the target segmental sequence were identified and marked using Praat (73). Target segmental sequences corresponded to the portion of each imitation over which F0 peak and valley timing varied in each stimulus for all blocks except *Lannameraine I* and *Lannameraine II*, for which the target segmental sequences were /lanə/ and /nəmə/, respectively. Segment boundaries were identified through discontinuities in amplitude in the spectrogram and waveform and/or by noting the location of a rise in frequency of F2 or higher formants.

The normalized timing of the F0 peak or valley, T_N , was then determined with respect to the respective target segmental sequence, using the formula given in (2).

$$(2) T_N = (t - t_0) / d$$

In this formula, t is the time of the peak or valley, t_0 is the start of the first segment in the target segmental sequence, and d is the duration of the target segmental sequence. Thus, T_N ranged from 0 to

approximately 1. A normalized timing measure was used in order to minimize effects of an irrelevant variable, speech rate, to measuring F0 peak and valley timing; other methods of normalization were also tried (e.g., as a difference in seconds between the time of the extremum and one or more segmental landmarks for the series), and the pattern of data was the same. The temporal locations of F0 peaks and valleys were determined automatically using a Praat script. All peaks and valleys were subsequently inspected visually for accuracy and corrected by hand if necessary. In the event that a peak or valley appeared to be segment-related, that is, due to transient pressure buildup at a nasal-liquid boundary, then the next highest maximum or minimum across the target SU or US syllable sequence, if available, was taken as the location of the peak or valley, respectively. Non-modal voicing was present in some speakers' imitations; see Redi and Shattuck-Hufnagel (87) for a discussion of such irregularities. In the event of diplophonia without evidence of other voicing irregularities, the F0 maximum or minimum within the diplophonic region was determined. If other voicing irregularities were present, the token was discarded.

Participants showed differential ability to produce consistent responses in each block. To quantify consistency across participants and blocks, bivariate correlations were calculated on T_N for all pairs of subjects separately (i.e., pairwise) for each block. Responses of participants which failed to be correlated at the conservative level of $p < .20$ with all other subjects were judged to be unreliable imitators and were not included in subsequent analyses. Based on this analysis, one participant was discarded from the *Lannameraine I* block, one participant was discarded from the *lemonade* block, and three participants were discarded from the *nonrenewable* block.

To determine whether there was evidence of the predicted change in the location of the strongest phrase-level relative prominence in the polysyllabic items *millionaire*, *Lannameraine*, and *lemonade*, as predicted by AM theory, the durations of the first (D_1) and last (D_2) syllables were measured. Moreover, the rms amplitudes of the vowel nuclei of the first (A_1) and last (A_2) syllables was measured, and the relative amplitudes of these syllables was calculated by the formula $20\log_{10}(A_2/A_1)$. Both duration and intensity are traditionally considered reliable cues to phrase-level prominence, with prominent syllables having higher intensity and longer duration (88-92). If listeners' imitations of these phrases show differences in the relative intensity and duration of the two syllables (i.e., the extent to which either of the syllables with potential stress is more intense or longer than the other), it could be a sign that changes in F0 peak location may influence assigned prominence, since listeners would have transferred the perceived relative prominence of each syllable into produced differences across the wide range of acoustic properties that characterize prominence.

4.2. Results and Discussion

Separate one-way ANOVAs were conducted on T_N for each of the five blocks (*millionaire*, *Lannameraine I*, *Lannameraine II*, *lemonade*, *nonrenewable*) with stimulus step as the factor. The results of these ANOVAs are shown in Table 3. There was a significant effect of stimulus step across all five stimulus blocks at $p < .01$ or less, supporting a shift in categories part way through each stimulus series. These data are therefore consistent with the presence of multiple categories for all stimulus blocks, as changes in stimulus step heard by participants affected in turn the normalized timing of the F0 peak or valley, with the clearest shifts observed for the *millionaire*, *Lannameraine I*, *Lannameraine II*, and *lemonade* blocks.

Table 3: Results of one-way ANOVAs for each stimulus block for Experiment 3. Stimulus item was the factor in each analysis.

Stimulus block	F -ratio	p -value
<i>millionaire</i>	$F(12,192) = 13.129$	$p < .001$
<i>Lannameraine I</i>	$F(10,150) = 24.201$	$p < .001$
<i>Lannameraine II</i>	$F(10,160) = 13.187$	$p < .001$
<i>lemonade</i>	$F(9,144) = 13.738$	$p < .001$
<i>nonrenewable</i>	$F(12,132) = 2.997$	$p < .005$

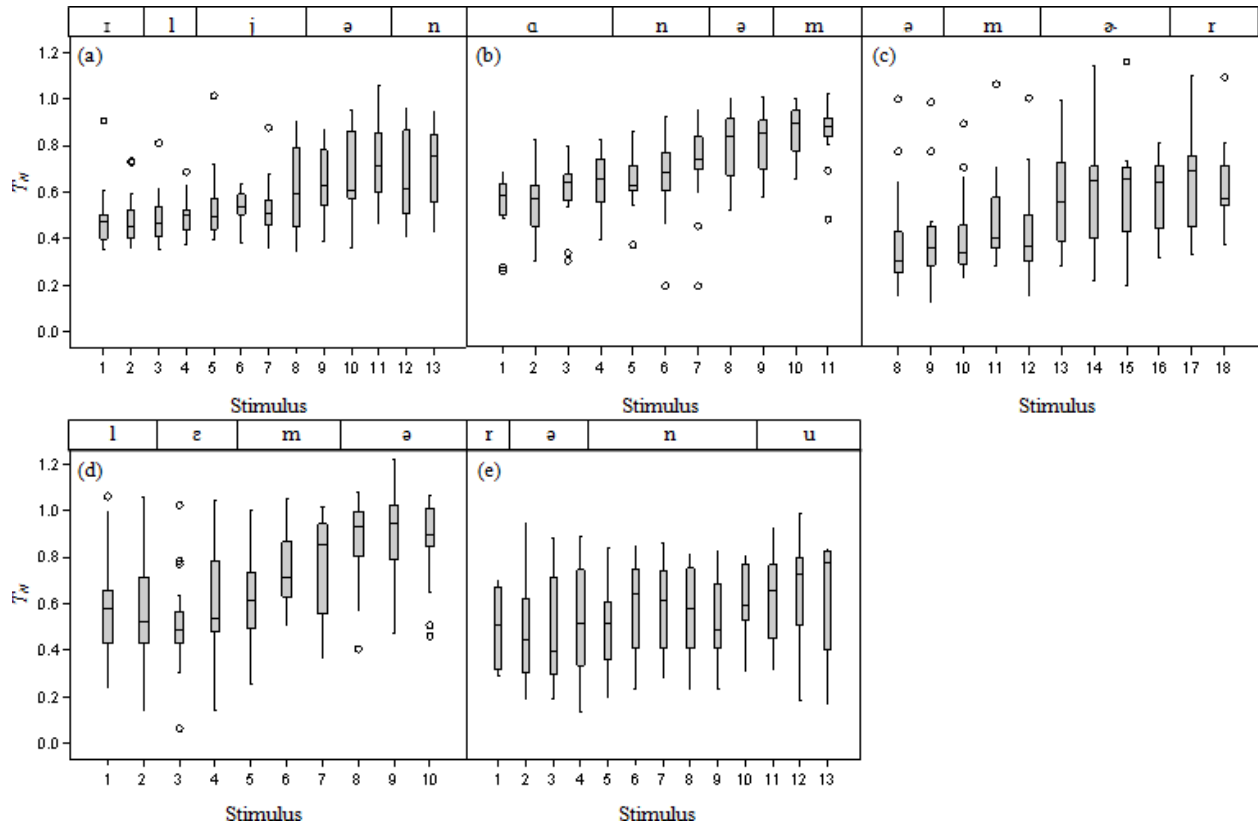


Figure 8: Normalized turning point time, T_N , in imitated versions of stimuli in (a) the *millionaire* block, (b) the *Lannameraine I* block, (c) the *Lannameraine II* block, (d) the *lemonade* block, and (e) the *nonrenewable* block in Experiment 3. Single points represent outlier responses. Boxes at top of each panel illustrate the time-alignment of peaks or valleys of stimuli with segments.

Boxplots of T_N for each of the five blocks are shown in Figure 8. There is a clear, discrete shift in the timing of produced peaks and valleys in Figures 8(a), 8(c), and 8(d), but not in 8(b) or 8(e). Figure 8(b) also shows a shift in T_N , but this shift is not as clearly discrete as the others and may be somewhat gradual. In contrast, the data plotted in Figure 8(e) don't clearly show evidence of a discrete shift in T_N . These data are nevertheless consistent with the presence of two categories for the stimulus blocks in Figures 8(a)-8(d). To investigate these results quantitatively, as well as to determine crossover points between categories, logistic regressions were employed, using median T_N values for each stimulus step, similar to the regressions performed in Experiment 2. To conduct the logistic regressions, raw median values of T_N were first normalized using the formula described by Earle (93) as shown in formula (3), below, which resulted in median T_N values being rescaled from 0 to 1, similar to data in Experiment 2. In (3), x_{max} is the largest value (here, of median T_N) for any step in a given stimulus series or range, x_{min} is the smallest value for any step in a given stimulus series or range, and x is the actual value for any member of

a given stimulus series or range. Finally, x_{norm} is the normalized value for that member of the stimulus series or range.

$$(3) \quad x_{norm} = (x - x_{min}) / (x_{max} - x_{min})$$

The regressions were then calculated using the formula in (1). Based on this procedure, crossover points were identified as follows: for *millionaire*, between stimuli 8 and 9; for *Lannameraine I*, between stimuli 6 and 7; for *Lannameraine II*, between stimuli 12 and 13; for *lemonade*, between stimuli 5 and 6; and, for *nonrenewable*, between stimuli 8 and 9. These crossover points were identical compared to those in Experiment 2 for the *millionaire* and *Lannameraine* series, and the crossover points were very similar to those of Experiment 2 for the *lemonade* series. The only inconsistent results were found for the *nonrenewable* series.

The results from this experiment provide converging evidence with Experiments 1 and 2, using a third type of task (an imitation task) and provide additional support for the conclusions drawn earlier about the number of categories present in each stimulus series and the locations of category boundaries. Consistent with the results of Experiments 1 and 2, support was found for two distinct categories for the *millionaire* series, three for the *Lannameraine* series (as, again, the effects of stimulus series were found twice for *Lannameraine* as whole, in both *Lannameraine I* and *Lannameraine II* blocks), and two for the *lemonade* series. In contrast, results from the *nonrenewable* series did not show a clear pattern with respect to categories.

Table 4 shows results of the comparison of average durations and average relative amplitudes of the first and last syllables (i.e., whether the first syllable had higher amplitude and/or was longer in duration) in polysyllabic items from the *millionaire*, *Lannameraine*, and *lemonade* blocks over ranges of stimuli defined by category boundaries in Experiment 1. The *millionaire* block shows evidence of a shift in relative prominence, as predicted for AM pitch accent categories, as indicated by significant differences in average relative duration and amplitude of the first and last syllables for stimuli 1-8 as compared with 9-13, with the last syllable being significantly longer and louder relative to the first syllable in stimuli 9-13 than in stimuli 1-8. There is evidence of a change in relative prominence for the *Lannameraine I* block, as indicated by a significant difference in average relative amplitude of the first and last syllables for stimuli 1-6 as compared with 7-11, with the last syllable being significantly louder relative to the first syllable in stimuli 7-11 than in stimuli 1-6. There is also evidence of a change in relative prominence for the *Lannameraine II* block, as indicated by a significant difference in average relative duration and marginally significant difference in average relative amplitude of the first and last syllables for stimuli 8-12 as compared with 13-18, with the last syllable being significantly longer relative to the first syllable in

stimuli 13-18 than in stimuli 8-12. Finally, there were no significant differences in average duration or relative amplitude for the *lemonade* series stimuli 1-5 as compared with 6-10, providing no clear evidence of a shift in relative prominence for this series. However, the results trended in the same direction as for the peaks, which may indicate that the statistical power was simply not great enough in the present measurement set to detect effects.

Table 4. Average relative duration and average relative amplitude of the first and last syllables of polysyllabic (pseudo)words over stimulus ranges defined by category boundaries from Experiment 1 for the *millionaire*, *Lannameraine*, and *lemonade* series. All *t*-tests are two-tailed, paired-samples tests.

	Average over?	$D_2 - D_1$ (s)	Significant?	$20\log_{10}(A_2/A_1)$ (dB)	Significant?
<i>millionaire</i>	1-8	0.028	$t(16) = -2.810,$ $p < .05$	-6.8	$t(16) = -4.567,$ $p < .001$
	9-13	0.046		-5.8	
<i>Lannameraine I</i>	1-6	0.054	$t(15) = -1.554,$ $p = .14, NS$	-7.6	$t(15) = -5.329,$ $p < .001$
	7-11	0.062		-6.6	
<i>Lannameraine II</i>	8-12	0.067	$t(16) = -2.288,$ $p < .05$	-5.9	$t(16) = -1.749,$ $p = .10$
	13-18	0.080		-5.6	
<i>lemonade</i>	1-5	0.026	$t(16) = -1.110,$ $p = .28, NS$	-7.2	$t(16) = -1.485,$ $p = .157, NS$
	6-10	0.027		-7.0	

5. Experiment 4

Experiment 4 involved an explicit relative prominence judgment task. There were several purposes to this experiment. First, the experiment provided an initial test for the hypothesis that the productive capacity of alignment differences in American English involved changes in phrase-level relative prominence. It is well known that differences in phrase-level relative prominence can sometimes cue focus differences (41). Thus, the establishment of F0 extremum alignment as a cue to relative prominence within a word would provide an important starting point for future studies that might attempt to test whether this phonetic cue is involved in cueing focus differences in similar stress contexts (e.g., S#US in *big#parade* giving rise to a focus contrast on *BIG* vs. *PARADE*). Recall from Section 2.1.3 that it was of critical importance that stimuli contain ambiguous stress patterns within a single word, in order to ensure that a F0 peak or valley could only be attributed to a pitch accent, rather than a word boundary-related phrase accent or boundary tone (11).

The second purpose of this experiment was to contribute to knowledge of the role of F0 in cueing stress differences in English. F0 timing differences have been shown to affect perceived relative prominence in pairs contrasting in the location of primary stress in verb/noun pairs, for example, imPORT vs. IMport, and other words with adjacent strong syllables (91, 94, 95); however, this work has examined adjacent syllables with full vowels or S₁S₂ stress patterns. The present experiments examined relative prominence of stressed syllables in *nonadjacent* positions. In particular, we evaluated the hypothesis that when an F0 peak or valley was aligned with a stressed syllable, S₁ in S₁U(U)S₂ contexts, syllable S₁ would sound stronger than S₂. In contrast, we predicted that a peak or valley which was aligned with a U syllable would cause the *following* syllable, S₂, to sound stronger than S₁, even if the peak or valley was never aligned with S₂.

The third purpose of the experiment was to attempt to further substantiate and clarify aspects of the AM ToBI inventory for American English, in several respects. In particular, inspection of AM theory (and ToBI) categories suggests that a shift in F0 peak and valley alignment should generate a shift in phrase-level relative prominence from H* on S₁ to H+L* on S₂ for the *millionaire* series and from L* on S₁ to L+H* on S₂ for the *lemonade* series, respectively. The explicit relative prominence judgment task of Experiment 4 provided an opportunity to test this prediction about the change in phonological affiliation of the starred tone across these two stimulus series. In addition, Experiment 4 provided an opportunity to obtain converging evidence for pitch accent interpretations of the three categories found from earlier experiments for the *Lannameraine* series. According to reasoning described in Section 6.1, stimuli in the early part of the series (approximately 2-5) should correspond to H* on S₁, predicting a predominance of responses that S₁ is the strongest stress for these stimuli. Moreover, stimuli in the middle part of the series (approximately 8-11) should correspond to H*+H on S₁, predicting a predominance of responses that S₁ is the strongest stress for these stimuli. Finally, stimuli in the middle part of the series (approximately 14-17) should correspond to H+L* on S₂, predicting a predominance of responses that S₂ is the strongest stress for these stimuli. In other words, our pitch accent category interpretation predicts we should see evidence of a clear shift in perception from S₁ to S₂ being heard as the strongest syllable somewhere between stimuli 11 and 14.

5.1. Method

5.1.1. Participants

There were 24 participants ranging in age from 18 to 45 years. All were students or staff at MIT, and all were self-reported native speakers of English with normal hearing and a range of musical

experience. None of the participants had any known training in linguistics or phonetics. Some had participated in another experiment reported here. Each participant was paid a nominal sum for participation.

5.1.2. Stimuli

Stimuli were those from the *Lannameraine*, *millionaire*, and *lemonade* series of Experiment 1. Stimuli from the *nonrenewable* series were not used, since this series had given equivocal evidence of categories in the previous three experiments and the categories which it tested were redundant with those of the *lemonade* series.

5.1.3. Design and task

The within-subjects factors in this experiment were stimulus series (*millionaire*, *Lannameraine*, and *lemonade*) and stimulus identity. All stimuli from a given series were presented as a block. The order of presentation of stimulus blocks was counterbalanced across subjects.

Subjects were told that they would hear a spoken phrase containing a target word that could have one of two stress patterns. They were instructed to decide which of the two stress patterns the speaker intended, to expect both stress patterns in each block of trials, and not to pay attention to loudness alone in making their judgments.

Stimuli were presented via computer over studio-quality headphones using MATLAB (The MathWorks, Inc.) in a sound-attenuated booth. To hear a stimulus, subjects used a mouse to click a button on the computer screen labeled "Play". Subjects checked the box corresponding to the stress pattern they heard, where capital letters indicated the strongest stress in a word; for example, participants could click on "*MILLionaire*" or "*millioNAIRE*" for each stimulus in the *millionaire* series. Each block was preceded by a set of practice trials; stimuli were then presented in random order for judgments. All three blocks were repeated three times in counterbalanced order over the course of the 30 minute experiment; this resulted in three judgments per stimulus per subject for each of the three continua. Data from each series were analyzed separately. Two participants failed to respond on more than half of the trials for the *Lannameraine* series and were therefore discarded from that series.

5.2. Results

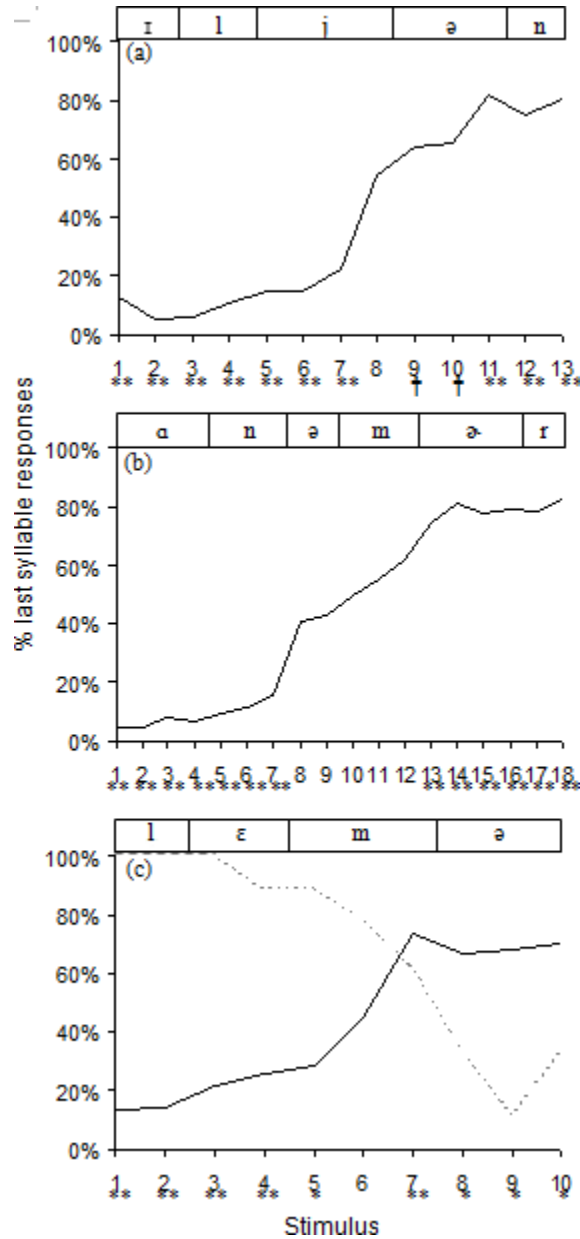


Figure 9. Rate of classifying the last syllable in the word as strongest for all stimuli in Experiment 4 for (a) the *millionaire* series, (b) the *Lannameraine* series, and (c) the *lemonade* series. “**”, “*”, and “†” indicate stimuli for which classification rates were significantly different from chance (50%) at $p < .01$, $p < .05$, or $p < .10$, respectively. The transitions between the categories are clearly better-defined here than in Figure 7. The dotted line in panel (c) refers to responses of three participants who showed an opposite pattern from the majority as shown in a hierarchical cluster analysis. Boxes at top of each panel illustrate the time-alignment of stimuli with segments.

For each series, it was necessary to first determine whether subjects could indeed hear stress on either of the two syllables in each series. For the *millionaire* series, only two participants reported hearing stress predominantly on a single syllable, i.e., *mil-*; these participants reported hearing stress on *-naire* on

0% and 8% of trials, respectively. Instead, the vast majority of participants heard stress variably on *mil-* or *-naire*; these participants reported hearing stress on *-naire* on average 36% of trials (range: 11%-62%). The percentage of responses for these participants in which they indicated that the last syllable was strongest are shown in Figure 9(a) for each stimulus. For each stimulus, a two-tailed, single-sample *t*-test was conducted against the chance rate of response (50%). Stimulus pairs for which $t(21) \geq 3.88$, $p < .01$ are marked with “***”, while those for which $t(21) \geq 1.76$, $p < .1$ are marked with “†”.

For the *Lannameraine* series, only one participant had trouble hearing stress variably on *Lan-* and *-raine*; this participant reported hearing stress on *-raine* for only 2% of trials. The large majority of participants readily heard stress on either syllable; these participants reported stress on *-raine* on an average of 43% of trials (range: 21%-85%). Responses for this majority of participants are shown in Figure 9(b). For each stimulus, a two-tailed, single-sample *t*-test was conducted against the chance rate of response (50%). Stimulus pairs for which $t(20) \geq 3.627$, $p < .01$ are marked with “***”. It can be seen that the *t*-test results separate the *Lannameraine* series into three response regions of stimuli. In particular, for stimulus ranges 1-7 and 13-18, listeners predominantly perceived the strongest stress on the first or the last syllable, respectively, while for stimuli 8-12, perceptions of the location of strongest stress were ambiguous. This fairly wide region of ambiguity may be a reflection of the increased number of syllables within the F0-manipulated region.

Lastly, for the *lemonade* series, only one participant had trouble hearing stress on both *lem-* and *-nade*; this participant reported hearing stress on *-nade* on 100% of the trials. The vast majority of participants instead readily reported stress either on *lem-* or *-nade*; these participants heard stress on *-nade* on an average of 46% of trials (range: 13%-83%).

Three participants for the *lemonade* series appeared to show an opposite strategy with respect to classifying responses, compared with the other subjects. To assess this, hierarchical cluster analysis was carried out on the proportion of last syllable responses using SPSS v.14; this technique provides a means of partitioning data based on a common trait. The method used for the cluster analysis was between-groups linkage, which is a common approach; additionally, the distance metric selected was squared Euclidean distance. The results verified that the three participants indeed clustered together as separate from the rest of the participants. Responses from these three participants are displayed in Figure 9(c) as a grey dashed line, while responses from all other participants (except the individual who never heard *lem-* as stressed) are displayed as a solid black line. For each stimulus, a two-tailed, single-sample *t*-test was conducted on participants shown as the solid line against the chance rate of response (50%). Stimulus pairs for which $t(19) \geq 2.964$, $p < .01$ are marked with “***”, while those for which $2.342 < t(19) < 2.964$, $.01 \leq p < .05$ are marked with “*”.

Finally, for each stimulus series, logistic regression was conducted to determine the location of the category boundary for each solid curve, following methods outlined for Experiments 2 and 3 (see sections 3.2.2 and 4.2). For the *Lannameraine* series, previous studies had shown evidence of three categories, but there were only two response categories in the present experiment. Moreover, *t*-test results here showed three different predominant patterns of listener perceptions regarding stress for this series, as described above. To determine the extent of convergence with previous experiments regarding crossover points for the *Lannameraine* series, logistic regressions were separately calculated across two consecutive, overlapping regions delineated by the range for which stress perception had been ambiguous in this study: stimuli 1-12 (*Lannameraine I*), and stimuli 8-18 (*Lannameraine II*). Normalization was conducted on the dependent variable (i.e., percentage of last syllable responses) separately for each of these two regions using the formula in (3), in order to allow rescaling of responses within the *Lannameraine I* and *II* ranges to a minimum of 0 and maximum of 1. No normalization step was carried out for the *millionaire* or *lemonade* series, since responses for these series already had a minimum and maximum possible response value of 0 or 1, respectively.

Table 2(c) gives the parameters for the logistic regression as well as the mean squared error values for each regression. The category boundary was found to be between stimuli 8 and 9 for the *millionaire* series, and between stimuli 6 and 7 for the *lemonade* series. Moreover, the category boundary for *Lannameraine I* was between stimuli 8 and 9, while that for *Lannameraine II* was between stimuli 11 and 12.

5.3. Discussion

The results verified the hypothesis that F0 alignment differences cue phrase-level relative prominence differences in American English. In particular, when the peak or valley was on S₁ in a S₁U(U₂)S₂ context, listeners perceived S₁ to be the strongest syllable. However, when the peak was on a U syllable immediately preceding S₂, participants perceived S₂ to be the strongest syllable. Since the relative prominence differences were in these materials also differences of primary vs. secondary stress, the present results contribute to the body of work (cf. 90, 91, others) showing that F0 can cue stress differences (90, 91, 95); results here show that a stimulus with an F0 peak on a U syllable can cue an upcoming S syllable to be heard as the primary stressed syllable in a word. This indicates that differences in the alignment of pitch peaks or valleys with respect to stressed syllables, not just the absolute F0 level on stressed syllables alone, can affect the perception of metrical stress, echoing previous studies (e.g., 49). This does not necessarily mean that F0 alone is the only cue that triggers perception of lexical stress—duration and intensity cues certainly play a role, and may do so even in the absence of fundamental

frequency cues (88-92)—but, nonetheless, the timing of fundamental frequency contours with respect to stressed syllables here was used to determine the location of stress in words even without simultaneously manipulating duration or intensity. It may be desirable to try to integrate those cues in subsequent experiments, to determine their relative prominence in the ways prosody contributes to stress placement (cf. Fry, 1958, for explicit lexical contrasts without sentential context).

These findings also supported AM theory and ToBI-based predictions regarding the relationship of F0 alignment to pitch accent distinctions. In particular, it was correctly predicted that shifting a valley from S_1 to U in the S_1US_2 word *lemonade* should result in a stress shift from S_1 to S_2 consistent with a change from L^* on S_1 to $L+H^*$ on S_2 . It is speculated that the three participants who showed an opposite categorization pattern for the *lemonade* series may have been basing their responses across all series on the relative pitch of stressed and unstressed syllables across the critical target region, which would be expected to give rise to the observed pattern. Similarly, it was correctly predicted that shifting a peak from S_1 to U in S_1US_2 in the word *millionaire* would result in a change in the location of the strongest prominence from S_1 to S_2 , consistent with a change from H^* to $H+L^*$. Finally, findings of a consistent shift in the strongest prominence for the *Lannameraine* series from S_1 to S_2 for later stimulus numbers is also consistent with a change from H^* on S_1 to $H+L^*$ on S_2 .

These results yield converging evidence for our interpretations of pitch accent categories for the *Lannameraine* series in the case when the F0 peak was on U_1 in a $S_1U_1U_2S_2$ context. Modeling by logistic regression across two consecutive, overlapping regions of stimuli that included those stimuli for which relative prominence was ambiguous (*Lannameraine I*: stimuli 1-12, *Lannameraine II*: stimuli 8-18) suggested evidence of two category boundaries, one corresponding to a crossover point between stimuli 8 and 9 and the other corresponding to a crossover point between stimuli 11 and 12. Both crossover points are similar to those identified in other experiments, providing converging evidence across experiments for three categories for the entire *Lannameraine* stimulus series. The fact that there were three categories and but only two response choices for relative prominence may have caused some individuals to equate a perceived changes in category with perceived changes in relative prominence, which may have contributed to the ambiguity of responses across stimuli 8-12.

Critically, the responses regarding relative prominence of syllables for the *Lannameraine* series were quite consistent with the predictions regarding the phonological interpretations of categories. In particular, for stimuli in the early part of the series (up through around stimulus 8), a preponderance of participants heard the first syllable as stronger, consistent with a H^* accent on S_1 . Moreover, for stimuli in the final part of the series (from about stimulus 14 to 18), a preponderance of participants heard the last syllable as stronger, consistent with a $H+L^*$ accent on S_2 . Finally, we also obtained support for the prediction that stimuli in the middle part of the series (approximately 8-11) should show a predominance

of responses that S_1 was the strongest stress; this is consistent with our interpretation that these stimuli corresponded to H^*+H on S_1 . Other interpretations of the phonological categories present are possible; these are considered in the General Discussion.

6. General Discussion

The present experiments investigated predictions of AM theory regarding the relationship of F0 peak and valley alignment to phonological categories by using multiple experimental paradigms. This permitted evaluating the extent of converging evidence for AM theory's phonological categories across a series of different techniques. Stimuli in all experiments involved shifting an F0 peak or valley across a syllable sequence with a specific stress pattern. Experiments 1 and 2 were categorical perception experiments utilizing AX discrimination and AXB identification paradigms, respectively, while Experiment 3 utilized an imitation task. Finally, Experiment 4 used a prominence judgment task to test the AM prediction that relative prominence differences would be triggered by F0 peak and valley alignment shifts. These experiments share a few similarities with classic experiments in segmental perception; Experiment 4, in particular, provides parallels to studies of prominence judgment in speech. However, the primary aims of these experiments were directed towards examining theories of intonational phonology, which is situated more broadly within the context of exemplar and articulatory theories of speech sound perception and production.

Three main findings were obtained in these experiments. First, there was broadly converging evidence across intonation paradigms regarding the nature and number of intonational categories for most stimulus series (i.e., *millionaire*, *Lannameraine* and *lemonade*, while results from *nonrenewable* were equivocal); this pattern of consistency is apparent in Table 5, which shows the estimated crossover points for each stimulus series. Consistent evidence about the number, nature, and placement of categories and category boundaries was found using discrimination (Experiment 1), identification (Experiment 2), imitation (Experiment 3), and relative prominence judgment tasks (Experiment 4). Each individual result on its own contributes some information about the perceptual categories at play. Experiment 1 allowed for a first pass at the number and location of perceptual boundaries; Experiment 2 helped establish the shape of the perceptual boundaries observed; Experiment 3 confirmed that perceptual categorization turned up in production, too; and Experiment 4 showed that the differences in categorization can be associated with changes in meaning. More importantly, though, these results suggest that the number of intonation categories underlying an F0 continuum can be profitably investigated by using a combination of discrimination, identification, and/or imitation tasks. This combination of phonetic approaches to

investigating categories may be particularly useful in the case of intonation, since assessing meaning differences often can be problematic or inadequate for assessing phonological contrast in pitch.

Table 5: Approximate locations of category boundaries identified in Experiments 1-4 for each stimulus continuum.

Here, the notation *x-y* means “between stimuli *x* and stimulus *y*”.

Exp.	Stimulus Continuum				
	<i>millionaire</i>	<i>Lannameraine</i>		<i>lemonade</i>	<i>nonrenewable</i>
		<i>I</i>	<i>II</i>		
1	7-8	6-7	12-13	5-6	6-7
2	8-9	6-7	12-13	6-7	5-6
3	8-9	6-7	12-13	5-6	8-9
4	8-9	8-9	11-12	6-7	n/a

Second, F0 alignment differences of a given magnitude differentially affected representations, depending on the precise alignment of the peak or valley with segments and the stress pattern of the word. These results provide broad perspective on recent studies which have investigated factors associated with fine differences in F0 alignment in production (e.g., 7, 9, 13, 17, 18). This suggests that some timing differences have little or no impact on phonological representations for intonation, while other timing differences of comparable magnitude have a quite significant impact on representations. While a full account of F0 variability will incorporate all factors affecting F0 alignment, the present results illustrate that the representational significance of fine differences in F0 timing depends on the precise way in which the F0 peaks and valleys are aligned with segments. Across experiments and series, participants frequently aligned category boundaries with vowel onsets, suggesting a privileged role for the vowel onset in determining the location of boundaries in tonal perception, with regard to F0 peak or valley placement. (See also, e.g., 96, for similar findings.)

Third, there was broad support for a number of specific phonological claims stemming from AM theory, including support for a prediction that differences in F0 peak and valley timing should engender a shift in relative prominence and pitch accent affiliation with stressed syllables (Experiment 4). The evidence also suggests certain qualifications and clarifications relevant to other AM theoretic predictions. The following section discusses the specific findings of these experiments within the context of the AM framework. Some broader implications of these findings for phonetics and phonology are then considered.

6.1. Perceptual categories and their implications for AM theory

A number of findings here clearly supported the predictions of AM theory. In particular, evidence from the *lemonade* series was consistent with AM theory's predictions regarding the relationship between F0 valley alignment and phonological categories. AM theory claimed that different patterns of F0 valley alignment with respect to a US or SU syllable sequence should give rise to two contrastive categories, L+H* and L* (cf. Figures 2a and 2b). Consistent with this claim, shifting an F0 valley across a SU syllable sequence *lemon-* in *lemonade* gave rise to evidence of two distinct categories across both categorical perception experiments (Experiments 1 and 2) and an imitation experiment (Experiment 3); this shift also engendered a change in the perceived relative prominence of the initial and final stressed syllables (Experiment 4), consistent with different pitch accent representations. These findings provide the first perceptual evidence in American English supporting the proposed AM distinction between L+H* and L*. Moreover, the findings present the first imitation-based evidence of discreteness in F0 valley timing in response to an F0 valley alignment continuum, consistent with distinct categories.

The results for the *nonrenewable* series, which similarly probed the distinction between L+H* and L*, were not as clearly interpretable as those from the *lemonade* series. Recall that for the *nonrenewable* series, an F0 valley was shifted across a US sequence *renew-* in *nonrenewable* (as opposed to a SU sequence in the *lemonade* series). Evidence for categories was inconsistent across experiments. Evidence of two categories was obtained in a labeling experiment (Experiment 2); however, the results from the discrimination study (Experiment 1) suggested either two or three categories, while evidence from the imitation study (Experiment 3) failed to show evidence distinguishing any categories. The inconsistency in findings likely does not present evidence against AM theory's claims of the distinction between L+H* and L*. Rather, acoustic cues to the canonical representations in the *nonrenewable* series may not have been as distinct as for the *lemonade* series, as evidenced by the low d' values across the series for Experiment 1. As a result, the *nonrenewable* series may not have presented clear enough exemplars of L+H* and L* in order to adequately test this distinction, or else the longer phrase length relative to the *lemonade* series may have introduced memory limitations. That this series contained categories but that they were either relatively less clear or less memorable—leading to a floor effect—is bolstered by the systematicity of d' values for stimulus pairs across this series that were observed in Experiment 1 (successively rising to local maxima and falling to local minima), consistent with other series, as well as the statistical significance of some differences before Bonferroni corrections were applied.

Next, results from the *millionaire* series helped to clarify a well-known conflict in AM criteria regarding the relationship between F0 peak timing and pitch accent categories. It is well-recognized that written descriptions of pitch accent categories under AM theory entail conflicting statements about whether an F0 peak in a U syllable in a S_1US_2 context corresponds to H* on S_1 with a “late peak,” or H+L* on S_2 (see 49). Clear evidence was obtained across Experiments 1-4 that for S_1US_2 contexts, an F0

contour with a peak during S_1 belongs to a different category than an F0 contour with a peak during U (e.g., Figure 1(d)). The precise location of the crossover point was the onset of the postaccentual vowel, a finding which is reminiscent of the difference in accentual rises in Dutch (10) and Greek (9, 97). Thus, the present results suggest that the AM category of H^* corresponds to a contour with a peak on a stressed syllable or as late as the consonantal onset of the poststress syllable, but no later, at least for nuclear accents. It is expected that similar patterns could be obtained for non-nuclear accents, based on similar results found by, for example, Ladd and colleagues (10), who employed only a production task and found that, on average, F0 peaks in prenuclear pitch accents were found either just before the end of the pitch accented vowel or just into the next consonant. Examining whether this relationship holds across the methodologies employed here merits consideration. Further implications of this finding are considered later in this discussion.

Finally, results from the *Lannameraine* series failed to support AM theory regarding the number of categories expected when an F0 peak traverses a $S_1U_1U_2$ sequence in a $S_1U_1U_2S_2$ context. AM theory claims that there should be a maximum of two categories for such a context: H^* and $H+L^*$. However, consistent evidence across three experiments was obtained that the *Lannameraine* series spanned three categories. Two of these categories are consistent with AM categories. In particular, the category associated with an F0 peak during S_1 (*Lan-*) may be interpreted as H^* on S_1 , while the category associated with an F0 peak during U_2 (*ma-*) may be interpreted as $H+L^*$ on S_2 . The third category, corresponding to an F0 peak during U_1 (*na-*), is difficult to accommodate under current standard versions of AM theory.

One possibility is that the three categories for *Lannameraine* corresponded to different combinations of two accents, H^* on *Lan-* and $H+L^*$ on *-raine*, a phenomenon which is possible in words such as this which have a secondary stressed syllable (98). Under this interpretation, the two categories with an F0 peak during S_1 and U_2 correspond to H^* on S_1 and $H+L^*$ on S_2 , respectively, while the third category associated with an F0 peak during U_1 corresponds to *both* H^* on S_1 and $H+L^*$ on S_2 . If this is correct, then for stimuli having an F0 peak during U_1 , participants would be expected to hear *two* accents: one on *Lan-* and one on *-raine*. To investigate this possibility, an experiment was conducted using 57 undergraduate students at the Ohio State University. The participants first received an explanation about the difference concerning stress and accentuation, with examples provided. Participants then heard stimuli in the *Lannameraine* series in random order. For each stimulus, participants responded whether there was a single accent on *Lan-*, a single accent on *-raine*, or accents on both *Lan-* and *-raine*. If the category associated with contours with an F0 peak during U_1 corresponds to the combination of both H^* and $H+L^*$, then participants should have overwhelmingly responded that both *Lan-* and *-raine* were accented over this range of stimuli. The rate of responding that both syllables are accented was not different from chance (33.3%) for this stimulus range, $t(56) = 0.196$, $p = .845$. This experiment may rule out the possibility that

instances of *Lannameraine* with an F0 peak during U₁ are heard as being double-accented, suggesting that the three categories in the *Lannameraine* series cannot be interpreted merely as different combinations of two accents, H* and H+L*.

We propose that the intonation category corresponding to contours with a peak during U₁ for the *Lannameraine* series corresponds to H*+H on S₁. In Pierrehumbert (20), H*+H was assumed to correspond most often to a plateau following a high accent, but it could also correspond to a single F0 peak. To this effect, Pierrehumbert (20) states that “[H*+H] contrasts with H* only in environments where spreading can occur... the H*+H in a nonspreading environment would be realized as a single peak, just as H* is.” (p. 228) Moreover, it is stated that the contrast between H*+H and H* is neutralized in nuclear position (p. 230). It is proposed that the +H in H*+H corresponds to the F0 peak on U₁ in SU₁U₂ contexts; thus, the H* portion is associated with S₁ according to this proposal. The results of stress judgments in Experiment 4 are compatible with this interpretation, since the majority of participants indicated that S₁ was stronger than S₂ for most stimuli with a F0 peak during U₁. In contrast, results from Experiment 4 suggest that H+L* is the correct analysis when an F0 peak occurs on a U₂ immediately preceding an S₂ syllable. It is worth noting that H* +H is a possible annotation in the recently proposed Rhythm and Pitch (RaP) prosodic labeling system for corpora and other recorded speech samples (99, 100), which presents an alternative to the ToBI system and which builds on AM theory and work in phonetics and linguistics which has taken place since the early 1990s.

Other phonological interpretations of the category with a peak during U₁ for the *Lannameraine* series may be considered, but seem less plausible to us than H*+H. One possibility is that this category is L+H*, an accent which has been noted to have a peak that sometimes occurs after the stressed syllable (11). However, such an accent is associated with a low F0 associated with the unstarred L+ tone on a prestress syllable(s) immediately preceding the starred tone (11). The *Lannameraine* series was specifically designed with prestress syllables which were high in the pitch range and evidenced a rising contour in order to preclude a L+H* interpretation, as described in Section 2.1.3. Another possibility suggested by a reviewer was that the category with a peak during U₁ for the *Lannameraine* series corresponds to L*+H, which has been often noted to evince an F0 peak after the stressed syllable (7, 11, 32). However, this accent is defined by an F0 on the accented syllable (which would be S₁ in such a scenario) which is low in the speaker’s pitch range (7, 11, 32); however, S₁ in these stimuli had an F0 which was high in the speaker’s pitch range. Therefore, we cannot find support for the interpretation of L*+H for this category.

It is noteworthy that while all participants across these experiments were speakers of American English, they likely represented a diverse set of dialectic backgrounds. Dialectic variation may have contributed some variability to the results across experiments and stimulus series, though this variability

did not hinder obtaining significant differences on relevant variables. Production differences in alignment have been noted for distinct dialects of American English. For example, speakers of English dialects spoken in southern California show later peak alignment than speakers of English dialects spoken in Minnesota (101); see also Ladd, Schepman (102) for British English. However, it is not known whether these dialect-based production differences translate to perception differences, or whether some categorical differences may have been triggered by familiarity with dialectic differences.

Finally, it is noteworthy that while all four stimulus series involved varying the timing of an F0 extremum across part of a critical SU(U)S syllable sequence, three of the stimulus series (*lemonade*, *nonrenewable*, and *millionaire*) contained a SUS syllable sequence while only one (the Lannameraine series) contained a SUUS sequence. This was done due to the substantial ambiguity in phonological analysis of F0 peaks on unstressed syllables under AM theory, in contrast to its rather clear phonological analysis of F0 valleys as tones (see Sections 1.1.2 and 1.1.3). As a result, these experiments were not designed to test whether varying an F0 valley across a SUU sequence would have given rise to two categories or three, a question which awaits further experimentation. However, based on our findings across experiments that word-internal syllable boundaries tend to give rise to evidence of phonological category boundaries, we would predict that varying an F0 valley across a SUU sequence would give rise to evidence of three categories.

6.2. Implications for Previous Studies of Intonation

The present results have implications for interpretations of previous studies of American English intonation. First, Silverman and Pierrehumbert's (15) study of phonetic factors influencing high F0 peak timing has been interpreted as supporting the idea that the F0 peak for H* can be timed to occur well past the associated syllable, for example, in the nucleus of an adjacent poststress syllable (24). Our data suggest that the F0 peak for H* may occur as late as the onset of the following poststress syllable, but no later, without hearing the contour as a different accentual category.

These results also have implications for interpretation of data presented by Pierrehumbert and Steele (46). In that study, an F0 elbow-peak sequence was shifted through the $U_1S_1U_2S_2$ sequence *a million-* in the phrase *Only a millionaire*. The peak itself was shifted from the S_1 to the following U_2 syllable. Pierrehumbert and Steele interpreted their findings as support for the distinction between L+H* and L*+H accents. However, the fact that the word *millionaire* has variable lexical stress in general American English was not considered in that study. Results from the present experiments suggest that an F0 peak on a prestress U syllable causes the immediately following stressed syllable to sound accented. The results of our Experiment 4 cast Pierrehumbert and Steele's findings in a different light by suggesting

that contours with an F0 peak on S_1 versus an adjacent U_2 (e.g., in $U_1S_1U_2S_2$) are heard as having different relative prominence patterns. That is, our results suggest that the pitch accent is heard as being on S_1 if the peak is on S_1 but as being on S_2 if the peak is on U_2 . This “stress shift” could have explained the bimodal patterning of data, and our results are inconsistent with their phonological interpretation that the two categories involved $L+H^*$ on S_1 vs. L^*+H on S_1 . Thus, support for the $L+H^*$ vs. L^*+H distinction is less clear following these experiments, although the present study supports the distinction between the related accent distinction of L^* vs. $L+H^*$. We do not dispute the existence of a phonological representation that involves L^*+H . Rather, we take the present experiments as support for the phonological analysis offered by the RaP system and Dilley (30), namely, that the contour on *millionaire* analyzed by Pierrehumbert and Steele with a L^*+H accent (i.e., as $L^*+H L H\%$) should instead be analyzed as double-accented: $L^* +H L^* H(\%)$.

6.3. Implications for Phonetic Interpolation Functions in AM Theory

The present results also have implications for phonetic models under AM theory. Two types of phonetic interpolation functions have been put forward explicitly in the literature as part of phonetic models. First, monotonic interpolation was proposed in Pierrehumbert (20) to occur between any pair of adjacent tones except adjacent H tones. Second, a specific type of nonmonotonic interpolation function was assumed in Pierrehumbert (20) to connect pairs of adjacent H tones. This nonmonotonic interpolation function has been referred to as a “sagging” nonmonotonic interpolation function because it involved an F0 fall and subsequent rise, thereby generating a low F0 turning point or “sag” which was assumed not to be a tone. That this “sagging” F0 transition was assumed to arise from something other than a L tone has been a point of controversy within AM theory ever since (103). Subsequent phonetic evidence suggests instead that this low “sag” actually arises from a phonological L tone (40).

These two types of interpolation functions – monotonic functions and nonmonotonic “sagging” interpolation functions – are the only two which have been explicitly discussed in the literature. However, theoretical revisions in the AM framework which have taken place since Pierrehumbert’s original (20) proposals have given rise to effective assumptions of two additional types of interpolation functions connecting H tones which have received no discussion in the literature. The first of these is a monotonic function which connects adjacent H tones; recall that adjacent H tones were assumed in Pierrehumbert (20) to be connected by a nonmonotonic “sagging” interpolation function. The assumption of a possible monotonic interpolation function connecting adjacent H tones arose due to the merging of H^*+H with H^* by Beckman and Pierrehumbert (21); the plateau contours originally described as $H^*+H H^*$ by Pierrehumbert (20) were subsequently treated as $H^* H^*$ by Beckman and Pierrehumbert (21). The H^*+H

accent was originally assumed to give rise to a plateau, and not a series of sags, due to “spreading” of tones (i.e. perseveration of the phonological tone in time). H*+H was eliminated in a footnote in Beckman and Pierrehumbert (21) with little explanation and no discussion of the implications for AM theoretic treatment of interpolation functions.

Finally, the last type of interpolation function that has arisen through theoretical developments since Pierrehumbert (20) is what might be called a nonmonotonic “bulging” function; this corresponds to the contours in Figure 1(c)-ii and 1(c)-iii. In this case, the underlying phonological H starred tone arising from a H* (or L+H*) accent is assumed to occur on (i.e., be phonologically associated with) the stressed syllable, but an F0 peak occurs temporally later than this H tone by one or two syllables and is thus “late” relative to the stressed syllable with which the H tone is phonologically associated. The contour connecting the H tone on the stressed syllable thus must nonmonotonically rise and then subsequently fall, giving rise to an F0 peak which is not itself assumed to be a direct reflection of an underlying tone. This type of nonmonotonic function arose as a result of the assumption which became widespread following the work of Silverman and Pierrehumbert (15) that H* accents may be realized with a peak which occurs temporally late due to production factors (15, 24).

The foregoing review suggests that current standard versions of AM theory permit three means of connecting H tones to other tones via interpolation functions. That is, an H tone can be connected to another tone either via a nonmonotonic “sagging” interpolation function as proposed originally in Pierrehumbert (20), a monotonic interpolation function, or a nonmonotonic “bulging” interpolation function. The principles distinguishing these cases have not been discussed anywhere in the literature, nor their existence tested empirically.

The present results provide evidence against the existence of nonmonotonic “bulging” interpolation functions (15, 20). In particular, these results show that in SU₁(U₂) contexts, when F0 contours have a high F0 peak aligned with a poststress syllable (U₁ or U₂), listeners hear the contour as belonging to a different category than F0 contours which have a high F0 peak on the stressed syllable. Furthermore, our data suggest that alignment of an F0 peak on a syllable U₁ also results in perception of a different category from alignment of an F0 peak on a syllable U₂.

By extension, the present results provide evidence that F0 contours with extrema on different sides of a syllable boundary are likely to be heard as distinct phonological categories. In particular, the present results revealed that distinct patterns of alignment with respect to a SUU syllable sequence yielded evidence of three intonational categories. Since F0 contours with a high peak during a stressed syllable are recognized as being canonical examples of H*, F0 contours with a high peak during the nucleus or rhyme of a poststress syllable must therefore be something different from H*. It was suggested earlier that these latter contours are instances of H*+H or H+L*, depending on the number of poststress syllables.

Moreover, evidence against nonmonotonic “sagging” interpolation functions has been accumulating. First, the original theoretical justification by Pierrehumbert (20) for assuming that a dip between H tones was not a L tone but instead nonmonotonic “sagging” interpolation – namely, that an L tone should obligatorily trigger lowering of the upcoming high tone – was later rescinded (45). In addition, Ladd and Schepman (40) presented data showing that when speakers produce an F0 valley (dip) in the context of two surrounding high peak accents, the valley is consistently aligned with the unstressed syllable before the second stressed peak. This consistent alignment suggests that the dip is actually a L tone, rather than a nonmonotonic “sagging” F0 transition between H tones.

6.4. Implications for Speech Perception

The experiments presented here also have interesting implications for studies of speech perception. This becomes particularly apparent when considering the results of Experiment 2, where logistic analyses were performed just for the Higher Sensitivity Group. What does it mean for intonational categories to be more easily perceived by some participants than others? First, it spotlights the role of individual differences in perception of phonological contrasts, complementing previous studies, for example, in language acquisition (104, 105). Speakers of tonal languages, in which listeners are required to make use of fundamental frequency characteristics of speech in order to distinguish lexical items, differ in their neural responses to linguistic pitch information (106-108). Musical abilities also influence pitch perception. Those with musical training have more acute pitch processing abilities than those without (109), whereas those with the congenital impairment of amusia may have difficulty with pitch processing both in music and in speech (110, 111). These findings collectively suggest that individuals differ in their pitch perception ability as a function of both listening experience and innate ability; these factors can affect how accurately individuals detect pitch changes in speech, which is an issue of ongoing research. The participants in this experiment had a range of typical musical experience, which may have translated to differences in F0 contour perception.

Another possible explanation for individual variability in ability to perceive F0 categories which is not mutually exclusive with those mentioned above concerns the choice of stimuli for the present experiment. Collectively, Experiments 1-4 supported the hypotheses that alignment differences signal different intonation categories; Experiment 4 in particular supported our hypothesis that such alignment differences signal shifts in relative prominence. In our stimuli, F0 extremum alignment was shifted through individual lexical items, in order to eliminate the possibility that F0 alignment differences could be attributed to factors other than type of pitch accent, such as different phrase accent configurations. However, were the F0 extrema to have been shifted across a word boundary in a short phrase, we would

likely have expected differences in meaning due to differences in focus arising from the relative prominence difference. For example, if the critical SU sequence were “red um-” in the phrase *She took the red umbrella*, then based on our results we would expect different alignment characteristics of an F0 extremum across this sequence to generate distinct patterns of relative prominence, and hence different patterns of focus (i.e., meaning). For example, a peak on “red” would be expected to generate the perception that the strongest stress was on “red” (i.e., *She took the RED umbrella*, with narrow focus on “red”), whereas a peak on “um-” would be expected to generate the perception that the strongest stress was on “umbrella” (i.e., *She took the red umbRELLa*, with narrow focus on “umbrella” or else broad focus across the whole phrase). However, differences in relative prominence across a single word (e.g., on the first vs. last syllable of ‘millionaire’) did not generate such meaning differences. We expect that some listeners might have been more sensitive to the fine-grained pitch changes investigated here if the perceptual categories had readily mapped to meaning differences, while other listeners were more able to perceive and remember the characteristics of the perceptual categories themselves.

Alternatively, a reviewer suggested that the F0 contours used in the study might not have provided a viable means of signaling a word-final stress through intonation cues. We feel that this interpretation is unlikely, for two reasons. First, the intonation patterns associated with pitch accents and used in the present studies are well-attested in American English based on corpus data (50). Second, listeners as a group responded with a high degree of consistency in reliably associating certain alignment patterns with word-final stress, as revealed in Experiment 4. Still, subtle, as-yet unidentified characteristics of the stimuli may have made caused a subset of listeners to perceive the stimuli in a less categorical fashion than other listeners, where these characteristics may have related to differential viability of cues to signaling stress on distinct syllables of one or more target words.

Moreover, preliminary analyses of spoken corpora support the idea that the differences found in F0 peak alignment and resulting relative prominence differences likely generalize to spontaneous speech. Shattuck-Hufnagel and colleagues (49) found that sequences such as those discussed here are not uncommon in spontaneous speech, and the peak alignment for such sequences is subject to substantial variation between speakers. Furthermore, differences in peak alignment led to the perception of differences in relative prominence of syllables in the sequence. Further exploration of the issues raised here in spontaneous speech awaits more refined corpus analysis or experimental manipulations of spontaneously-produced sentences.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the present paper. First, variability in F0 peak and valley alignment has differential significance for phonological representations; this finding provides perspective on recent studies aimed at investigating fine-grained variation in F0 alignment by demonstrating that such variability has differential importance for phonological representations. Second, evidence for the proposed

distinctions in AM theory between two valley-related pitch accents – L* and L+H* – and among three peak-related pitch accents – H*, H+L*, and H*+H – was presented. Third, positive evidence was found against nonmonotonic “bulging” interpolation functions, which have arisen as a possibility due to other theoretical developments in AM theory since interpolation functions were originally addressed in Pierrehumbert (20). Finally, this work served to validate a combination of perception and production tasks as useful methodologies for investigation of the types and number of intonational categories underlying F0 continua by demonstrating broadly converging evidence about categories across the different tasks (see also 33). Each individual experiment shed light on certain aspects of phonological representations: something about their size, shape, or realization. Collectively, these experiments ultimately elucidate our understanding of the relationship between acoustic variables, perceptual representations, and higher-level linguistic constructs.

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