Consonant Types, Vowel Height and Tone in Yoruba

Jean-Marie Hombert

Department of Linguistics

University of California, Los Angeles

#### 1. Introduction

In this paper I shall address myself to three different issues: consonant types, vowel height, and distribution of tones. In the first part. I want to show how a voiced vs. voiceless consonant can affect the fundamental frequency of the following vowel depending on the tone of this vowel. These data are needed in order to be able to show that For perturbation caused by voiced/voiceless consonants in prevocalic position are important enough to allow a reinterpretation into a tone distinction if a voicing contrast disappears. In the second part, the intrinsic pitch of vowels as a function of tone will be investigated: the relevance of these data for rejecting or accepting current theories of intrinsic pitch of vowels will be examined. I will also try to show why the development of tones from the reinterpretation of intrinsic pitch of vowels is so rarely attested in languages. Finally, I will indicate that it is often the case that other cues than steady state fundamental frequencies are used to identify tones. The so-called Yoruba low level tone which is realized as a low falling tone, at least in some environments, is a good example of this.

#### 2. Consonant types

In an earlier study (Hombert 1976a) I asked five American speakers to read a word list consisting of ten tokens of each test word arranged in random order. These test words were 6 CV nonsense words using the consonants /p, t, k, b, d, g/. Only the vowel [i] was used since I was not interested in variations caused by vowel height in this experiment. With a reference point at the onset of the vowel,  $F_0$  values were measured at the onset and 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 msec after this onset. Under these conditions, data presented in Figure 1 were obtained. As to be expected, the largest differences between the two curves, obtained

respectively after voiceless and voiced consonants, were found at the vowel onset, with these differences decreasing as time increases. A statistical analysis of these data showed that these two curves were still significantly different at 100 msec after vowel onset.

In the second part of this study using synthesized stimuli I showed that these intrinsic perturbations can be perceived even when they are only 60 msec long. In relating these perceptual data and the production data to each other, we can see that there is an overlap of at least 40 msec between the time we start hearing significant differences and the time these differences cease to be significant.

These experimental data validate and explain the well-attested development of tone due to the loss of some voicing distinction in prevocalic position.

Tone systems are not static. A language can acquire tones and then increase the complexity of this tone system but it can also decrease the number of its tones and ultimately become non-tonal. These two processes, acquisition and recession of tones, have been termed tonogenesis (Matisoff, 1970, 1973) and tonoexodus (Lea, 1973). Cases of tonoexodus are rare<sup>3</sup> and it is not clear what the intermediate historical stages between the tonal and non-tonal stages are.

In the case of tonogenesis, the complete "scenario" is well attested. The development of contrastive tones on vowels due to the loss of a voicing distinction on obstruents in prevocalic position is probably the most well-documented type of tonogenesis. When such a development occurs, a relatively lower pitch register develops on vowels following the previously voiced series and a relatively higher pitch is found after the previously voiceless or voiceless aspirated series. Phonetic studies by House and Fairbanks (1953), Lehiste and Peterson (1961), Mohr (1971), Lea (1972, 1973), Löfqvist (1975) and Hombert (1976a) show how a voicing distinction in prevocalic position can affect the fundamental frequency of the following vowel.

Unfortunately, all these phonetic studies are based on non-tonal languages. Thus, they can explain how a non-tonal language can acquire two tones from the loss of some voicing distinction in prevocalic position but we do not have any strong basis for believing that these data can be extended to languages which are already tonal. Namely we do not know what the behavior of voiced or voiceless consonants is going to be at different frequency registers. Is a voiced consonant still going to affect the onset frequency of a vowel with low tone? Is a voiceless consonant going to perturbate the frequency of a high tone?

In order to answer these questions, two Yoruba subjects were asked to read<sup>4</sup> a word list of 42 CV tokens (2 consonants<sup>5</sup> x 7 vowels x 3 tones) put in the frame: so CV sókè<sup>6</sup> ("say CV louder"). Each token was read five times. The results are presented in Figure 2. On this graph each point represents the average of 70 measurements (7 vowels x 5 repetitions x 2 subjects). The thin lines represent the fundamental frequency of vowels after [k] or [g]. The wide lines represent the average F<sub>0</sub> after voiced and voiceless velar stops for the three Yoruba tones. The same stops for the three Yoruba tones.

My purpose was to compare the effect of voicing contrast at different frequency registers. From the data presented in Figure 2, three

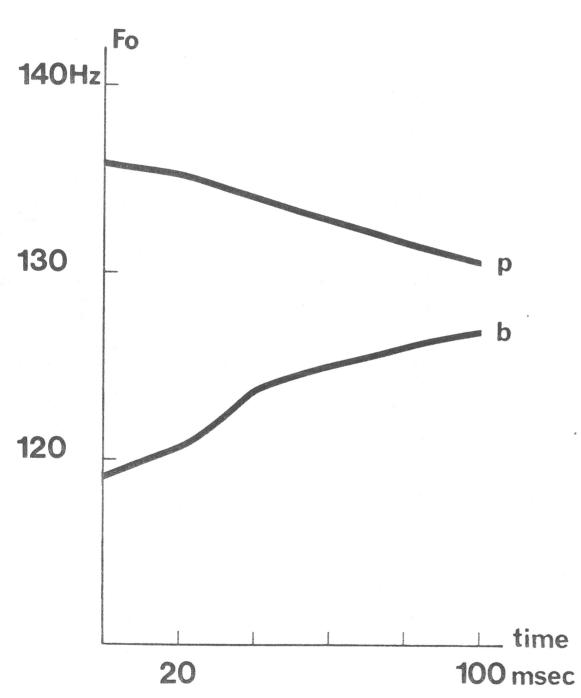


Figure 1: Averaged Fo of vowels after voiced and voiceless stops (from Hombert, 1976a) ([p] represents the voiceless stops and [b] represents the voiced stops)

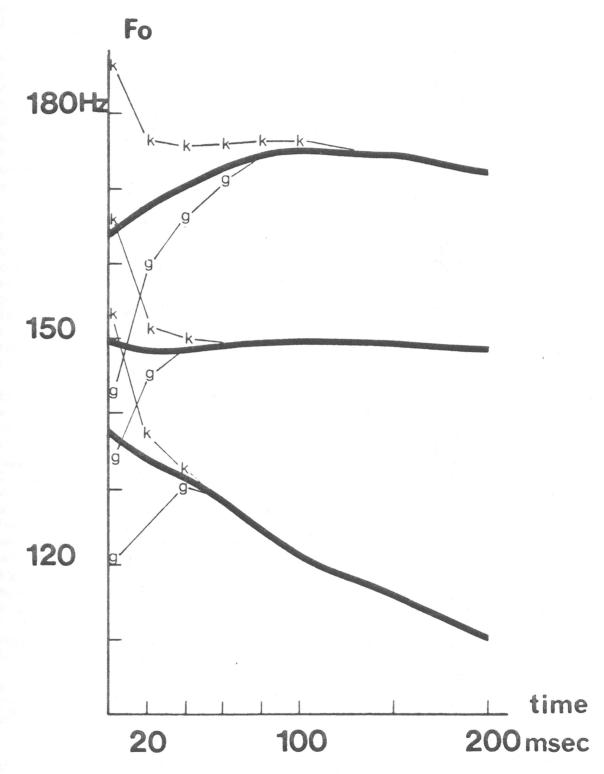


Figure 2: Influence of prevocalic voiced and voiceless stops on the fundamental frequency of the three Yoruba tones (2 subjects)

points should be emphasized:

- 1. The perturbation caused by a voiced consonant on a following high tone or by a voiceless consonant on a following low tone is greater than the effect of these two series of consonants on a mid tone.

  2. The effect of a voiced consonant on a high tone is greater than the
- 2. The effect of a voiced consonant on a high tone is greater than the effect of a voiceless consonant on a following low tone.
- 3. The duration of the perturbations caused by prevocalic consonants on the fundamental frequency of vowels is shorter in a tone language (Yoruba) than in a non-tonal language (see Figure 1).

It is interesting to point out that these results are in agreement with Gandour's findings (1974) in his investigation of "Consonant types and tone in Siamese". Gandour found that a shorter part of the vowel was affected by the preceding vowel (about 30 msec for voiceless consonants and about 50 msec for voiced consonants). It seems that there is a tendency in tone languages (which does not exist in non-tonal languages) to actively minimize the intrinsic effect of prevocalic consonants probably in order to keep the different tones maximally different perceptually.

## 3. Intrinsic fundamental frequency of vowels

In the second part of this paper, I shall address myself to the issue of intrinsic fundamental frequency of vowels. Essentially, four theories have been proposed to explain why high 8 vowels have a higher intrinsic fundamental frequency than lower vowels.

The first theory, proposed by Taylor (1933) and adopted by House and Fairbanks (1953) is called the "dynamo-genetic" theory. Taylor claims that the muscular tension of the tongue, required for the realization of high vowels, is transferred to the muscles of the larynx "via a kind of sympathetic resonance or radiation". This is not a viable theory anymore, since we know that electrical insulation in muscles and nerves is good enough to prevent serial contraction of adjacent muscles triggered by osmotic spread of excitability (Atkinson, 1973).

The second theory presented by Mohr (1971) relates width of the pharynx and pressure build-up behind the point of constriction to explain the fundamental frequency differences between low and high vowels. Since the width of the pharynx is about one-fourth as big for low back vowels as for corresponding high vowels, Mohr tries to relate smaller cavity and constriction further back with higher supraglottal pressure, leading to smaller pressure drop across the glottis and consequently lower fundamental frequency. Unfortunately Mohr's data do not support his theory. In any case, as Ohala (1973a) mentions

"...the air flow during vowels is rapid enough and the magnitude of the pressure small enough that whatever back pressure is caused by the vowel constriction will be manifested equally rapidly for all vowels".

The next theory, known as the source tract coupling theory, was

first proposed by Flanagam and Landgraf (1968). This theory assumes a possible coupling between the vocal cords and the vocal tract so that a low first formant (characteristic of high vowels) would attract and consequently raise the fundamental frequency. This sucking effect does not occur when the first formant is further away from the fundamental frequency (as it is in the case of low vowels). The intrinsic pitch difference between low and high vowels would then be explained. Unfortunately, predictions made by this theory do not receive empirical support. It would predict, for instance, that the difference in pitch between high and low vowels would be reduced when speaking with a helium-air mixture (since a property of helium (or other light gases) is to raise formants and consequently to increase the distance between F<sub>0</sub> and F<sub>1</sub>). Beil (1962) showed that this was not the case.

The tongue pull theory (Ladefoged, 1964; Lehiste, 1970) is based on the assumption that when the tongue is in high position for the realization of high vowels, it exerts an extra tension transmitted to the larynx via the hyoid bone. This vertical pull increases the tension of the vocal cords (Ohala, 1972) and gives rise to a higher pitch for these high vowels. This theory ran into great difficulty when Ladefoged et al. (1972) provided data showing that tongue height and hyoid bone height were inversely proportional. Ohala (1973a) admits that such findings show that the pulling is not done through the hyoid bone but he maintains that the tongue pull theory is still a viable theory provided that the pulling is done through other tissues.

I would like to show in this paragraph that tone languages such as Yoruba can bring some very useful data in this controversy. If we assume a correlation between larynx height and Fo (Ohala and Ewan, 1972; Ewan and Krones, 1974), it seems that the tongue pull theory would predict that the Fo difference would be smaller with vowels realized with high tones as opposed to vowels realized with low tones. Since the larynx is in higher position for high tones than for low tones, we expect that the tension exerted by the tongue will be less. This assumes a linear relationship between tension and larynx elevation (which would have to be tested). Figure 3 displays the averaged fundamental frequency values of the 7 Yoruba vowels depending on the tone under which they were realized. The measurements were made 100 msec after vowel onset. Each point is an average of 20 tokens (2 consonants x 5 repetitions x 2 subjects). From these data it is clear that the prediction made by the tongue pull theory is not verified; in fact the opposite is found, namely that the fundamental frequency difference between high and low vowels is more pronounced with high tone than with low tone.

Although it is obvious that more data are needed before refuting either the tongue pull theory or accepting the source/tract coupling theory, the data I just presented seems to be difficult to account for by the tongue pull theory.

The second point I would like to discuss with respect to intrinsic pitch of vowels has to do with tonogenesis. Phonetic studies indicate that the intrinsic perturbations caused by prevocalic consonants on the pitch of the following vowel are of about the same order of magnitude

as the intrinsic differences depending on vowel height. Lehiste (1970) mentions

"the influence of an initial consonant could counterbalance the influence of intrinsic pitch: the average for /kæ/ sequences was 171 Hz while that of /qi/ sequences amounted to 170 Hz."

However it is very rare to find languages making an extrinsic use of these intrinsic variations. In fact the only example I know of is Pilszczikowa-Chodak's study of Hausa (1972), in which she shows that tone assignment of verbs and noun plurals is largely predictable from the height of the final vowel in Hausa; high vowel predicting a high tone and vice versa. This confirms the prediction we would have made supposing that the intrinsic variations described earlier would become phonologized. Unfortunately this correlation has been criticized by Hausa scholars (Leben (personal communication), Newman, 1975). It seems important then to explain why the two kinds of tonal developments (from prevocalic consonants and from intrinsic  $\mathbf{F}_0$  of vowels) are not similarly attested.

First I want to show that different loudness levels cannot explain this asymmetry between the two potential possibilities of tonal developments:

We know that low vowels are perceived as louder than higher vowels (Fant, 1960) and we also know that loudness can affect our perception of pitch. If we can show that the produced intrinsic differences between high and low vowels are not perceived because of factors (such as loudness) affecting our perception of pitch, then we would have an explanation to the question of why languages do not develop tone from these intrinsic fundamental frequency differences.

Although the magnitude of the effect of loudness on pitch differs from one study to the other (Zurmühl, 1930; Stevens, 1935; Snow, 1936; Cohen, 1961), it is generally accepted that the effect of increased loudness (if amy) (see Cohen, 1961) will be to lower the pitch (at least within this frequency region). Thus, this effect will lead to an increase in the pitch difference between high and low vowels and would make it more difficult to explain why tone developments based on these differences did not occur historically. In fact, instead of comparing the overall amplitude values of vowels just by stating that low vowels are louder than high vowels, it would be more appropriate to compare the amplitude values of different vowels within the frequency region relevant for pitch discrimination. It has been shown (Plomp, 1967) that the frequency region around the fourth harmonic is more important for pitch perception than the fundamental frequency region. Under the best conditions (around 300 Hz), high vowels are 10 dB louder than low vowels (Fant, 1960). This amplitude difference is not enough to cancel out the intrinsic differences obtained in production. Thus, this explanation based on loudness is not satisfactory.

The second suggestion I want to propose is based on the well-known fact that whatever the sensory modality, our auditory mechanism is more sensitive to a signal varying from state 1 to state 2 (with a variation  $\Delta S = S_2 - S_1$ ) than to a static difference between the same two steady states  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  (Whitfield and Evans, 1965; Møller, 1973). If we apply

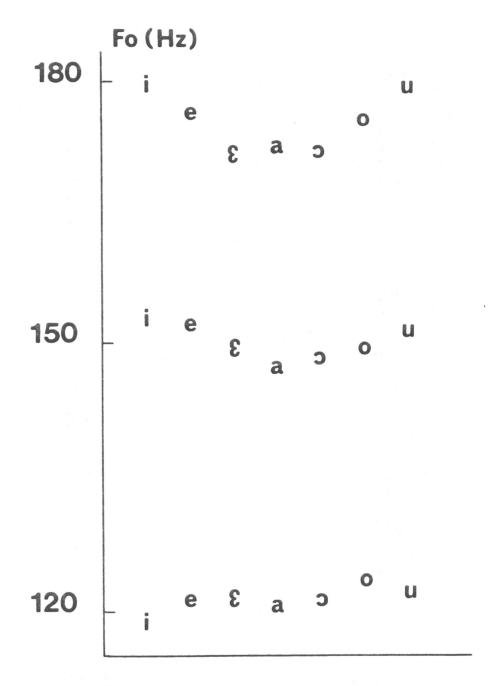


Figure 3: Intrinsic Fo of vowels for the three Yoruba tones (High, Mid and Low) (2 subjects)

this principle to pitch perception we can understand why tones develop from prevocalic consonants (where the intrinsic effects are realized as either rising or falling contours) but not from vowel height differences (where the intrinsic differences are in terms of steady state differences). A third possibility which is currently being tested (Hombert, 1976b) is that our perception of pitch of vowels is affected by vowel quality. Since intrinsic pitch and vowel quality are always associated for a given vowel (as opposed to the case of consonantal perturbation where the consonant can be removed) it is possible that the pitch of a high (vs low) vowel is lower (vs higher) than its intrinsic fundamental frequency as a result of a process of normalization done by our auditory system. If this is the case, the pitch differences between low and high vowels would be smaller than their fundamental frequency differences and this would account partially at least for the lack of development from vowel height.

#### 4. Distribution of tones

It has been shown that if we consider intensity and frequency as two independent parameters, about 350,000 different pure tones can be discriminated by the human ear over the whole auditory area (Stevens and Davis, 1938; Wever, 1949; Licklider, 1956; Winckel, 1968). About 1500 of these tones are discriminated from pitch differences only. The fact that it is very rare to find tone languages with ten or more distinctive tones can be explained by the following reasons:

- -- the amplitude parameter is not completely independent of the frequency parameter in speech (Hombert, 1975).
- -- the fundamental frequency range is a much smaller range than the auditory range.
- -- the historical unlikeliness of developing a huge number of tones in any one language.
- -- the most important point is the difference between discrimination and identification. In contrast with our amazing ability to decide if two tones presented successively are similar or not, our identification ability (i.e., our ability to identify and name sounds) is rather poor. For speech and music it has been estimated that a trained listener can identify about 50 sounds presented individually. Winckel (1938) indicates that fluctuations of less than 20 Hz are imperceptible, in noise (i.e., in everyday situations) 10 Figure 2 indicates that the three tones in Yoruba are from 20 to 30 Hz apart.

Pollack (1952) shows that a maximum of five level tones can be distinguished under laboratory conditions (when loudness cues have been removed).

Few languages have been reported as having as many as five level tones (Longacre, 1952). In fact it seems that when a language has more than two level tones, other cues than steady state fundamental frequency are used to identify some of the tones.

It has been shown by Pollack and Ficks (1954) that our auditory system is more efficient (i.e., transmits more information) at processing a stimulus with multiple encoding (i.e., more than one cue is used) as opposed to the processing of the same amount of information using a more sophisticated coding of only one parameter. This finding can be applied to pitch perception indicating that secondary cues such as loudness, duration and direction and speed of change, and phonation types are likely to be used in order to facilitate our tone identification (Hombert, in preparation). From Figure 2, we can see that the so-called "low" tone in Yoruba is in fact a falling tone. The fact that the falling contour is a more important cue than the  $F_0$  level has been shown by LaVelle (1974). LaVelle argues that Yoruba has a rule which lowers a low tone in phrase final position. I propose that the "unmarked" realization of the Yoruba low tone is in fact a low falling tone and that the falling tone is realized as a low level tone when followed by a non-low tone (i.e., when followed by either a mid or a high tone). When a low tone occurs in isolation or in final position, it is realized with its more distinctive perceptual characteristics. When it is followed by a higher tone, articulatory constraints (the complexity of going down for a falling tone and then up for the next tone) take over and the low falling tone is realized as a low level tone. But in that environment perception is made easier by the following tone which can be used as a reference for comparison. It has been shown by Han and Kim (1974) that "the pitch information in the neighbouring syllables serves as a basis on which the retrieval of the phonemic status of a tone is made".

#### 5. Conclusion

In this paper, I have shown:

1. How the three Yoruba tones were affected by voiced/voiceless consonants in prevocalic position. Voiced consonants have a greater effect on high tones and voiceless consonants on low tones. The duration of these perturbations is smaller in Yoruba than in a non-tonal language such as English.

These data show that an already existing tone system can multiply the number of its tones if the voicing contrast in prevocalic position is to disappear.

2. The fact that the intrinsic  $F_0$  differences between high and low vowels are smaller when these vowels are realized with a low tone as opposed to a high tone seems to be a counter-argument to the tongue-pull theory generally proposed to account for these intrinsic  $F_0$  differences between high and low vowels.

In the discussion it was also suggested that the fact that tones do not develop from intrinsic pitch of vowels as they do from intrinsic  $F_0$  perturbations caused by prevocalic consonants cannot be explained by loudness but may be by the dynamic effect of prevocalic consonants as opposed to the static effect of vowel height.

3. It is often the case that other cues than steady state  $F_0$  are used

to identify tones. It seems that Yoruba "low" tone is in fact a low falling tone, but that this low falling tone is changed into a low level tone when followed by a non-low tone.

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#### Footnotes

- 1. Analysis of variance followed by Duncan's test.
- 2. With a 1% confidence level.
- 3. Some cases can be found among Eastern Bantu languages.
- 4. The recording was done at University of Ibadan, Nigeria, and the data analysis was done in the Phonology Laboratory, University of California, Berkeley.
- 5. Only 2 consonants [k] and [g] were used in this experiment to represent voiced and voiceless stops. Recent data seem to indicate that velar stops have a more important perturbatory effect on the F<sub>0</sub> of the following vowel than other stops (Hombert and Ladefoged, 1976; Meyers, 1976).
- 6. The three Yoruba tones are represented as follows:
  - High Tone 'Mid Tone Low Tone
- 7. When the  $F_0$  values after voiced or voiceless stops were too close to the average value (wide line), they were not represented on Figure 2.
- 8. High refers to the tongue-height parameter.
- 9. See Atkinson (1973) and Ohala (1973a) for a more detailed review of these different theories.
- 10. 20 Hz is probably an overestimation considering on the one hand the richness of certain tone languages (in terms of number of tones) and on the other hand the maximum frequency range of vocal cord vibrations.

11. Pollack's experiment was done using a 100-5000 Hz frequency range, but his data show that the number of identifiable tones is negligibly affected by a lowering of the upper limit of the frequency range.

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Development of Tones from Vowel Height

Jean-Marie Hombert

[Department of Linguistics, University of California, Los Angeles]

## Introduction

In this paper I will attempt to provide one of the major reasons why the intrinsic fundamental frequency variations caused by vowel height rarely, if at all, give rise to the development of phonological tones. Explanations of sound changes based on physiological constraints of our articulatory and/or auditory mechanisms have been proposed for a long time (Durand, 1938; Grammont, 1933; Haden, 1938; Passy, 1891; Paul, 1891; Rousselot, 1891; Sweet, 1888). The interest in finding such explanations for widely (i.e. non-language specific) attested sound changes has been revived recently (Hombert, 1974, 1975a, b, c; Hombert, Ohala and Ewan, 1975, in preparation; Ohala, 1974a, b, 1975). These explanations imply that the pronunciation intended by the speaker may get distorted by the time it is perceived by the listener. This may be due to the action of articulatory constraints which affect the way the sounds were uttered or by the action of auditory constraints which affect the way the sounds were analyzed by the listener's ear. In order to demonstrate that a sound change is phonetically motivated, one has to demonstrate first that these intrinsic perturbations are present in the speech signal (at least in the case of articulatory motivated sound changes) and second, that their magnitude is sufficient to be perceived.

The role played by experimental phonetics in explaining sound changes is clear from this scheme. But the interaction between phonetics and historical linguistics is not unidirectional. In this paper, I want to illustrate a case in which historical data can lead us to new insights concerning perception and speech processing. I mentioned earlier that a phonetically motivated sound change will be explained if experimental data show that intrinsic perturbations (non-intended by the speaker) are present in the speech signal and of sufficient magnitude to be heard by the listener. Now let us suppose we can demonstrate these two points despite the fact that historical data do not show that this historical change is widely attested (i.e. probably phonetically motivated). At least two reasons can be proposed to account for this discrepancy: (1)