# Fundamental frequency declination is not unique to human speech: Evidence from nonhuman primates

Marc D. Hauser

Animal Communication Laboratory, Department of Zoology, University of California, Davis, California 95616-8761

#### Carol A. Fowler

Haskins Laboratories, New Haven, Connecticut 06511 and Department of Psychology, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire 03755

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In human speech, declination of the fundamental frequency  $(F_0)$  of the voice spans coherent units of an utterance and, therefore, signals where units begin and end. A rapid final fall at the end of an utterance provides a further indication of an utterance's ending. The occurrence of declination is sufficiently widespread across languages that several investigators have suggested it as a language universal. Language universals may be universal because they are part of a species-specific specialization for language or, alternatively, they may constitute conventionalizations of natural dispositions of the vocal tract that may serve a communicative function. Evidence is offered favoring the latter account for declination and the final fall by showing that vocal productions of vervet monkeys (*Cercopithecus aethiops*) and rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) show declination, and vervets show clear evidence of a final fall. Interestingly, the fall in  $F_0$  may serve some communicative role in the vocal exchanges of vervets and rhesus, analogous to its signalling function in human language.

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#### INTRODUCTION

Speech exhibits a number of low-level phonetic regularities that are widespread, if not universal, across languages. Examples include durational lengthening of vowels before voiced as compared to voiceless consonants (e.g., Chen, 1970), devoicing of word-final obstruents (see Locke, 1983, for a review), and declination of fundamental frequency  $(F_0)$  in a phrase or utterance (Bolinger, 1978; Chen, 1970). These low-level regularities also serve as resources for the development of phonological processes. [An occurrence that MacNeilage and Ladefoged (1976) call "triggering."] The following phonological regularities are parallel to the foregoing phonetic ones. By some accounts (e.g., de Chene, 1985; MacNeilage and Ladefoged, 1976), English is developing a phonological vowel length distinction before voiced and voiceless consonants as the latter distinction weakens, at least for intervocalic /d/ and /t/; German and Russian have final devoicing rules, whereby word-final consonants must be unvoiced (Kenstowicz and Kisseberth, 1979); it has been proposed that English has intonational "downstep" rules (Pierrehumbert, 1980), and some tone languages have "downdrift" rules for lexical tones produced in sentences (Hyman, 1973).<sup>1</sup>

Some linguistic universals are ascribed to a special-tohuman language faculty whereas others are ascribed to their functional utility in communicative exchanges [e.g., Comrie (1981) for a discussion of explanations for language universals]. Two functional explanations offer more plausible accounts of the low-level regularities described above than does an account in terms of a universal language faculty.

First, the regularities may reflect dispositional features of the vocal-tract—that is, regularities that are easier to allow to occur than they are to inhibit or to offset. Second, they may enhance the perceptual distinctiveness of otherwise similar phonetic properties in speech. A dispositional account of final devoicing is likely (e.g., Flege and Brown, 1982), and, compatibly, it is characteristic of infants' prelinguistic babbles (Oller et al., 1976). Both articulatory (e.g., Chen, 1970) and perceptual accounts (Javkin, 1976; Kluender et al., 1988; Fowler, in press) of the relation between vowel duration and voicing have been proposed. Likewise, both speaker-based (Gelfer, 1987; Maeda, 1976) and listener-based (Breckenridge, 1977; Cooper and Sorenson, 1981) accounts have been proposed to explain declination. As to the latter, Breckenridge (1977) and Cooper and Sorenson (1981) propose that listeners use  $F_0$  resettings at major phrase boundaries to help them recognize the boundaries as such. Breckenridge speculates, in addition, that listeners extrapolate from the declining contour to predict how long the remainder of the utterance will be.

Our research focuses on declination and on a rapid fall in  $F_0$  that occurs in the terminal portion of an utterance, called the "final fall." In the case of each pattern, most likely both speaker-based and listener-based accounts are correct. Declination is likely to be dispositional in part. For example, in a recent account, 't Hart et al. (1990) show that air pressure below the vocal folds (subglottal pressure or  $P_S$ )—one of the variables affecting  $F_0$ —will tend to fall dispositionally over the course of an expiration. In particular,  $P_S$  will fall, and, other things equal,  $F_0$  will fall with it if there is a lag between expiration of some volume of air from the lungs and

the initiation of maneuvers to reduce thoracic-cavity volume. Whereas the reduction in thoracic-cavity volume offsets the lowering of  $P_S$  that the reduction in lung volume would otherwise cause, the compensation will be partial given a time lag between the maneuvers. However, as 't Hart et al. point out, neither  $P_S$  nor  $F_0$  need fall during an utterance, and, indeed, some researchers have found flat or nearly flat  $P_S$  and  $F_0$  contours in speech (e.g., Ladefoged, 1967; Lieberman, 1967). No one, to our knowledge, has reported a general tendency for  $F_0$  to rise, although this is physiologically possible as well. Accordingly, the two commonly reported patterns are flat or falling, suggesting that either the dispositional tendency for  $F_0$  to fall is counteracted, or it is not.

Other findings reveal that declination is not wholly a dispositional consequence of lung deflation. Lung deflation can be either accelerated or slowed by production of consonants that are associated with characteristically either high (e.g., /fa/) or low (e.g., /ma/) airflow during closure. Gelfer and colleagues (Gelfer et al., 1987) found comparable  $P_S$  declinations for utterances composed of reiterant /fa/ or /ma/ despite marked differences in lung volume declination. This indicates that talkers offset the effects on  $P_s$  of the rapid decrease in lung volume caused by reiterant /fa/ production; most likely, they did so by recruiting action of the internal intercostal muscles of the respiratory system, which foster expiration (e.g., Ladefoged, 1967).  $P_S$  nonetheless did fall over both sets of utterances suggesting, perhaps, that talkers ensure sufficient  $P_S$  out to the end of a phrase or utterance, but they do not always attempt to keep  $P_S$  level. An additional active contribution to declination is tensing of the cricothyroid muscle of the larynx at the start of a declination contour (Gelfer, 1987). The cricothyroid stretches the vocal folds and increases  $F_0$ ; therefore, tensing it at the beginning of a declination contour enhances the already high  $F_0$  at the beginning of a phrase or utterance. Similarly, Cooper and Sorenson (1981) reported that their speakers sometimes "reset" the declination contour (that is, they raised  $F_0$ to begin a new declination contour) at the beginnings of major syntactic units where they did not take a breath. In these cases, the resetting must be active; presumably it is designed to signal the beginnings of major syntactic and/or semantic units to listeners.

The following integrated account of declination may handle most of the findings. The origins of declination in vocal production derive from expiration, its effects on  $P_s$ , and the effects of  $P_S$  on  $F_0$  that will occur unless the talker actively intervenes. However, because talkers do not take breaths (and hence reset  $F_0$ ) at random locations in an utterance (i.e., they tend to take breaths at locations where they stop to plan ahead, and hence, between major semantic and/or syntactic units) the declination contour tends to span integral units in an utterance. Because it spans integral components of an utterance, it provides redundant information to listeners as to where such units start and end. Insofar as listeners use that information as previously suggested, talkers may tend to provide it intentionally, enhancing the  $F_0$  rise at the beginnings of units and resetting  $F_0$  even at the beginnings of units where they do not take a breath. Having been conventionalized in these ways, the contour is readily

noticed by listeners, and this may pave the way for "triggering" in some language communities that then conventionalize the contours further by developing downstepping intonational or tonal patterns.

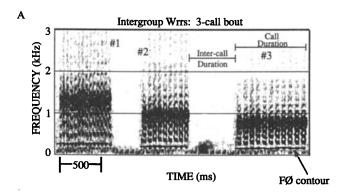
As for the utterance-final fall in  $F_0$ , the rather rapid rate of the fall has suggested relaxation of laryngeal muscles rather than a reduction in  $P_S$  to some researchers (Liberman and Pierrehumbert, 1984). As such, of course, it is a natural consequence of utterance termination. However, it can begin rather early in an utterance, and this may suggest augmentation of any dispositional consequences of ending an utterance. Silverman (1987) suggests that it may begin as much as two seconds before utterance termination. Perhaps because the fall can provide useful information to listeners. speakers enhance the fall just as they may enhance the declination contour. Indeed, there is evidence that listeners use a precipitous fall in  $F_0$  as information that a speaker's conversational turn is ending (Beattie et al., 1982; Beattie, 1983). Consequently, falls in the middle of an utterance foster interruption by other participants in the conversation.

If, at its origins, declination and the final fall are dispositional features of vocal production, they may occur widely not only in spoken languages (e.g., Bolinger, 1978; Cooper and Sorenson, 1981; Ohala, 1978), but also in vocal productions of some nonhuman animals that have lungs, a larynx, and voiced calls sufficiently long in duration for lung deflation to have a noticeable effect on  $F_0$ .

We should point out before pursuing this idea, however, that some investigators disagree that declination is common in spontaneous speech by human talkers. Lieberman (1967) reports that the "unmarked breath group," produced on standard declarative sentences, has a flat  $P_S$  and  $F_0$  out to its end where there is the terminal fall. Using a regression analysis to get a declination slope, Lieberman and his colleagues (Lieberman et al., 1985a) found negative slopes (that is, decreases in  $F_0$  over time) for over 70% of read sentences, but for just 55% [in fact, 63% as 't Hart (1986) points out] of spontaneous utterances. They conclude that declination is not particularly characteristic of spontaneous speech (see also, Umeda, 1982). The methods used by Lieberman et al. have been severely criticized (see Repp, 1985, and 't Hart, 1986), and responses to them by Lieberman and colleagues (Lieberman et al., 1985b; Lieberman, 1986). We will not review the controversy here, but only make the following three arguments in favor of declination as a dispositional contour.

First, there are reasons other than that declination is peculiar to read speech as to why declining  $F_0$  contours may be more readily observed in read than spontaneous speech. The surface  $F_0$  contour of any utterance includes contributions from sources other than declination—from the component consonants and vowels of the utterance [that is, variation due to consonant voicing (e.g., Hombert, 1978; Ohde, 1984) and intrinsic vowel  $F_0$  (e.g., Silverman, 1987)] from the intonation contour, which may, but need not be downstepping and even from the emotional tone of the utterance (e.g., Scherer et al., 1984). Neither declination nor the segmental composition of speech is likely to differ between spontaneous and read speech. The intonation contours used,

however, as well as the emotional tone of the utterances, are likely to differ. Remez et al. (1986) in fact report that spontaneous speech shows more variation in  $F_0$  than does the same speech read aloud. The more sources of  $F_0$  variation that converge with a tendency for  $F_0$  to decline, the more difficult it will be for regression analyses as employed by Lieberman et al. (1985a) to detect declination if present. That is, in the absence of independent variables in the regression models to factor out those other influences on  $F_0$ , variability that they contribute will serve as noise in the analysis, reducing the detectability of declination. Second, as we indicated earlier, investigators have reported that listeners expect a fall in  $F_0$ , and would be surprised if  $F_0$  were not typically declining.<sup>2</sup> Consistent with this claim, 't Hart et al. (1990) report that synthesized utterances with a declining  $F_0$  contour are given higher naturalness ratings by listeners than are other contours having no declination. These other contours included utterances having overall larger  $F_0$  falls than rises, but no general downward tilt apart from that. In any case, our claim is that a fall in  $F_0$  is dispositional, not that it must occur. Even the utterances reported by Lieberman et al. (1985a), which are least consistent with the declination



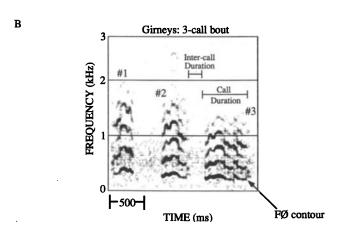


FIG. 1. (a) Narrow-band spectrogram of a three-call bout of intergroup wrrs showing  $F_0$  declination. The  $F_0$  contour of each call is indicated by a dark line. (b) Narrow-band spectrogram of a three-call bout of girneys showing  $F_0$  declination. The lowest band of energy in each call is the  $F_0$  contour. Calls were sampled at 5 kHz and a 256-pt FFT used to generate the spectrograms (frequency resolution = 19.5 Hz, time resolution = 51.2 ms).

hypothesis (spontaneous speech with terminal falls removed), contain more negative than positive slopes and a modal value to the left of zero.

In the present research, we investigated the possibility that vocalizations of wild vervet monkeys (Cercopithecus aethiops) and rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta) would exhibit declination and a final fall in  $F_0$ . Although there are fundamental differences in the vocal tracts of humans and nonhuman primates—particularly in the height of the larynx and, therefore, the relatively small size of the pharynx in nonhuman primates (e.g., Lieberman, 1975; Negus, 1949)—both primates appear to produce most of their vocalizations on an expiratory airflow, and frequently their productions are voiced (Lieberman, 1985; Hauser, 1989). Accordingly, physiological conditions described earlier as favoring declination and the final fall in humans are generally present in these nonhuman primates as well. Having obtained some positive evidence for declination and the fall in  $F_0$  for vocalizations of vervets and rhesus macaques, we attempted to draw inferences as to whether either feature serves a communicative function in exchanges among conspecifics.

To test for declination, we looked for two characteristics of  $F_0$  as it is described in the literature on human speech. First, and most importantly, was there a consistent fall in  $F_0$ ? Second, was there a tendency for  $F_0$  to start higher in longer utterances, a pattern that is sometimes (e.g., Bruce, 1982; Cooper and Sorenson, 1981), but not always (e.g., Maeda, 1976) found in human speech? To test for the final fall, we asked whether there was evidence of a marked terminal fall in  $F_0$  and whether there was reduced variability in the terminal as compared to the initial  $F_0$  across utterances of different lengths (e.g., Maeda, 1976; Cooper and Sorenson, 1981).

# I. MATERIALS AND METHODS

## A. Subjects and study area

Six vervet monkey (Cercopithecus aethiops) groups were observed in Amboseli National Park, Kenya from August 1983 to June 1985. Approximately 3000 h of behavioral and vocal observations were collected during this period (see Hauser, 1987, 1988, 1989; Cheney and Seyfarth, 1990 for details of the study area and sampling procedures), and both males and females of all ages were sampled. Acoustic analyses focused on the "intergroup wrr" [Fig. 1(a)], a vocalization given during aggressive interactions with a neighboring group (Hauser, 1989).

One group of rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta*) living on Cayo Santiago, Puerto Rico (Rawlins and Kessler, 1987) was observed from November 1988 to June 1989. Approximately 1200 h of behavioral and vocal data were collected from adult males and adult females. Acoustic analyses were conducted on the "girney" [Green, 1975; Masataka, 1988; Fig. 1(b)], a call produced during the initiation or maintenance of affiliative social interactions.

For both vervet monkeys and rhesus macaques, vocalizations were recorded with a Sony TC-D5M cassette recorder and a Sennheiser MKH816 directional microphone (foam windscreen and K3U power module). Subjects in

both study areas were well habituated to the presence of human observers and thus, most vocalizations were recorded at a distance of 0.5-2 m.

There were three reasons why the intergroup wrr and girney were selected for analyses. First, both calls were often given in pure bouts (i.e., one call type per string of calls). Second, both calls are given during vocal "volleys" or exchanges, and thus appeared to be communicative. Third, both calls tend to have exemplars in which  $F_0$  can be readily resolved from the power spectrum. The particular tokens selected for analyses consisted of data regarding caller identity as well as the identity of all individuals involved in the vocal interaction. Tokens employed in the analyses were limited to those vocalizations in which descriptions of the context and identification of the caller were unambiguous, and the quality of the recording was high. For some individuals. two or more call bouts were available and consequently, means were taken for the purpose of statistical analysis. Descriptions of the context were often incomplete due to poor observation conditions (e.g., dense vegetation) and vocalizations were commonly interfered with by environmental noise (e.g., other animals vocalizing in Kenya and helicopters from a naval base in Puerto Rico). Consequently, although a large number of vocalizations were recorded during the study period, only a limited sample could be used for acoustic analyses.

#### **B.** Acoustic analyses

Acoustic analyses were performed using the SIGNAL digital sound analysis program (Beeman, 1990), which operates on an IBM-compatible 80386 computer. Each analyzed call was first low-pass filtered at 2 kHz and then sampled at 5 kHz. Spectrographic and power spectrum displays were obtained with a 1024-point Fourier transform and a Hanning window; these settings provided a frequency resolution of 5 Hz.  $F_0$  values were obtained from power spectra calculated over a 50-ms interval at the center of each call. As Figs. 2 and 3 illustrate, extracting  $F_0$  from these calls was relatively unambiguous since the  $F_0$  peak was distinct and was readily confirmed by inspection of the waveform. Although wrrs and girneys are given in bouts of one to eight calls, only two and three call bouts are considered; these intermediate bout lengths predominate in the data set.

# **II. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### A. Declination in vervet monkeys

Adult vervets (n=8) producing two-call bouts [n=23; Fig. 4(a)] show a significant decrease in  $F_0$  from call one to call two (Wilcoxon signed ranks test: z=2.52, p<0.006). The fall is consistent with declination or with the terminal fall characteristic of human speech. For adults (n=11) producing three-call bouts [n=26; Fig. 4(a)], there was a significant decline from call one to two (z=1.98, p<0.02) and from call two to three (z=2.40, p<0.008). The early fall is consistent with declination, whereas the final fall may reflect a terminal fall in addition. Ninety-eight percent of all adult bouts (n=49) show a decline in  $F_0$  from the first to the last call in the bout. The total

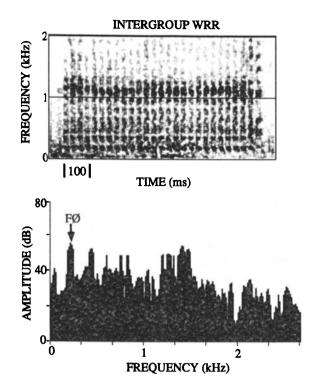
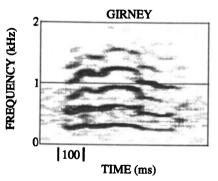


FIG. 2. Top: Narrow-band spectrogram of a vervet intergroup wrr. Bottom: Power spectrum, calculated at the midpoint of the intergroup wrr, with the  $F_0$  peak marked.



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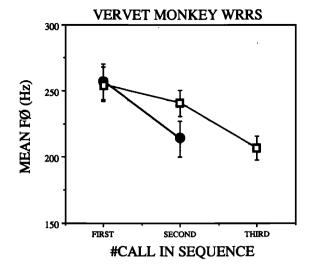
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FREQUENCY (kHz)

FIG. 3. Top: Narrow-band spectrogram of a rhesus macaque girney. Bottom: Power spectrum, calculated at the midpoint of the girney, with the  $F_0$  peak marked.



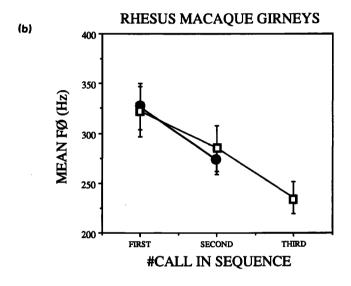


FIG. 4. Changes in  $F_0$  for two-call (closed circles) and three-call bouts (open squares) for (a) vervet intergroup wrrs and (b) rhesus macaque girneys. Standard deviations shown. Y axis shows the mean fundamental frequency ( $F_0$  in Hz) and the x axis represents the number of the call within the call bout.

fall in  $F_0$  was invariant over two-call (50 Hz) and three-call (51 Hz) bouts—a finding that some investigators (e.g., Maeda, 1976) but not others (e.g., Sorenson and Cooper, 1980) report as characteristic of declination. In contrast to Maeda, Sorenson and Cooper report a higher starting  $F_0$  for longer utterances and so a greater  $F_0$  fall (to an invariant terminal value) for longer utterances. There was a significant correlation between magnitude of the fall in  $F_0$  and bout duration for two-call bouts (rho = 0.51, p < 0.01), but not three-call bouts (rho = 0.29, p > 0.05). Similarly, the correlation between starting  $F_0$  and bout duration was positive but not significant. In contrast to adults, juveniles and infants failed to show a consistent pattern of  $F_0$  change in either two- or three-call bouts. However, it is worth pointing

out that the inter-call interval was significantly (z = 7.17, p < 0.0001) longer for juvenile and infant bouts (mean = 623.6 ms, s.d. = 169.5, n = 19) than for adult bouts (mean = 273.4, s.d. = 82.8, n = 49), suggesting that young animals may have been taking breaths between calls.

Looking now at evidence specifically relating to the terminal fall in  $F_0$ , among adults, the evidence is supportive of a terminal fall in two respects. In 78% of three-call bouts, the decline in  $F_0$  between calls two and three was greater than between calls one and two (z=2.36, p=0.02). In addition, there was greater variation (CV = coefficient of variation) in  $F_0$  at the start of the bout (two-call bouts: CV = 26.5%; three-call bouts: CV = 25.9%) than at the end of the bout (two-call bouts: CV = 13.2%; three call bouts: CV = 22.0%).

#### **B.** Declination in rhesus macaques

For adult rhesus (n=11), two-call bouts [n=24; Fig. 4(b)] showed a significant decline in  $F_0$  from call one to two (z=2.19, p<0.02). For adults (n=6) producing three-call bouts [n=20; Fig. 4(b)], there was a significant  $F_0$  decline from call one to two (z=2.18, p<0.01) and from call two to three (z=2.20, p<0.01). 72% of all bouts showed a decline from the first to the last call (z=2.20, p<0.03). The total fall in  $F_0$  was nonsignificantly lower for two-call (87 Hz) than for three-call bouts (104 Hz). For neither bout type was there a significant correlation between bout duration and magnitude of the fall or starting  $F_0$ .

Turning to evidence for a terminal fall, the evidence is mixed. Just 60% of all three-call bouts showed a greater decline in  $F_0$  between calls two and three than between calls one and two. The difference in the magnitude of the fall was nonsignificant. However, there was slightly greater variation in  $F_0$  at the start of the bout (two-call bouts: CV = 29.5%; three-call bouts: CV = 34.8%) than at the end of the bout (two-call bouts: CV = 23.2%; three call bouts: CV = 20.5%).

# C. Does declination serve a communicative function in nonhuman primates?

Thus far, studies of conversational exchanges in nonhuman animals have suggested that temporal cues are of primary importance in determining turn-taking (e.g., Biben et al., 1986; Biben and Masataka, 1987; Bush and Narins, 1989). To determine whether vervets or macaques use frequency information to identify bout termination as humans may do (Beattie et al., 1982), we examined "interruptions" of bouts by other animals. Interruptions were defined as the production of a vocalization by one individual that overlapped with the vocalization of another individual. All of the interruptions occurred toward the terminal portion of the call and therefore did not interfere with our calculations of  $F_0$ . The individual responsible for the interruption had to be involved, either directly or indirectly, with the initial communicant. For vervets, we predicted that young animals should be interrupted more frequently than adults, because they had shown no consistent pattern of  $F_0$  change throughout a bout. In agreement with our expectations, only one of

49 adult vervet bouts was interrupted, whereas 6 of 19 bouts by young vervet monkeys were interrupted. Of course, young animals may be interrupted more frequently than adults for reasons other than that listeners cannot determine when a bout is completed. However, five of the six interrupted calls showed precipitous falls (range 36-58 Hz) to a near terminal value between the first two calls of a three-call bout. Only one of the 13 uninterrupted calls showed a similar pattern. Once individuals were interrupted, there were no consistent changes in  $F_0$  for the calls that followed. That is, there was no evidence of resetting. Those bouts without interruptions showed no consistent pattern of  $F_0$  change.

For rhesus, although developmental data were not available, interruptions of adult calls were more common than for vervets: of 44 girney bouts, 13 were interrupted. When individuals were interrupted, either between the first and second call (n = 10) or between the second and third (n=3), the  $F_0$  for the call preceding the interruption was lower than the call following the interruption in eight cases. However, it was not lower than  $F_0$  in comparable locations in noninterrupted calls; accordingly, adult rhesus, in contrast to young vervets, were apparently not interrupted because they had inappropriately signaled utterance termination.  $F_0$  declined, as expected, for bouts without interruption. Thus there is some evidence that individuals reset following an interruption. Moreover, the intercall duration for interrupted and noninterrupted bouts was not statistically different, and thus individuals do not appear to be starting a new bout by taking a second breath following interruption.

Is the decline in  $F_0$  the only acoustic parameter that predicts bout termination and interruptions? For wrrs, there was no evidence that other acoustic measures, such as maximum or minimum frequency of the call, bout duration, call duration and intercall duration, signaled bout termination. The same was true of girneys with the exception that the second call in two-call bouts was significantly longer than the first call  $(z=2.2,\,p<0.01)$ . The previously listed variables also failed to explain the presence/absence or timing of interruptions.

Our findings suggest two conclusions. First, the fall in  $F_0$  that is universal or nearly so in human vocal communication may be even more widespread still. Declination occurs reliably in the vocal communication of vervet monkeys and rhesus macacques; the final fall was present reliably only in the vocalizations of the vervets. Possibly, both features are disposed to occur in the vocalizations of any animal with a respiratory system and larynx similar to those of humans and a tendency to vocalize on an expiratory airflow. A second conclusion is that a high starting  $F_0$  and a low final  $F_0$  can provide information in human and nonhuman primate vocal communication about utterance beginnings and endings. Speakers and listeners may use such information to guide conversational "turn taking."

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 $^1$  An example of a downstepping intonation contour is that associated with spoken lists (Pierrehumbert, 1980; Liberman and Pierrehumbert, 1984). In this contour, a level  $F_0$  is maintained on unaccented syllables (where the unaccented syllables are associated phonologically with low tones), whereas decreases in  $F_0$  occur on successive accented syllables (where the accents are realized phonologically by high tones). The decrease in frequency is identifiably not due to declination, because of the way  $F_0$  falls—in clear steps rather than gradually. Tonal downdrift occurs, for example, in Akan (Kenstowicz and Kisseberth, 1979), where a high tone separated from a previous high tone by a low tone is stepped down in frequency.

<sup>2</sup>Other interpretations of these findings have been offered. Silverman (1987) interprets Pierrehumbert's findings and his own differently from the interpretation offered in Pierrehumbert (1979). He proposes that listeners expect the terminal fall at the end of a speech utterance—not necessarily a gradual fall from utterance onset to the terminal fall. An inference from Lieberman's (1967) breath-group theory is that the first peak of the two in Pierrehumbert's contours was interpreted as a prominence peak ([+P]) that would cause sufficient lung deflation that  $F_0$  is expected to be particularly low utterance finally. Whereas both of these interpretations are possible for Pierrehumbert's findings, neither apparently explains a finding of Leroy's [1984; cited in 't Hart et al. (1990); see also Terken, 1991] that listeners show larger compensations for declination in utterances having falling as compared to monotonous baselines.

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368

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369