

2 Challenges in studying prosody
3 and its pragmatic functions:
4 Introduction to *JIPA* special issue

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11 The impetus for this special issue was an all-day event at the 2015 meeting of the International
12 Pragmatics Association: The Panel on Prosodic Constructions in Dialog. This event had
13 several motivations: (i) we have enormous data sets and tools to process them, but as a field
14 we lack clear roadmaps for how to exploit these sets and tools to improve our understanding;
15 (ii) we know that prosody is more than just the single stream of intonation, but we find it hard
16 to accurately describe multistream phenomena; (iii) we have observed how prosody serves
17 many dialog and interactional functions, but cannot yet really model how; and (iv) we have
18 various schools of thought, each wielding its own methods, but we have difficulty reconciling
19 and connecting their various insights.

20 This diversity of approaches is a strength, but also a weakness, to the extent that it impedes
21 communication and progress. In this special issue we bring together four contributions, from
22 very different perspectives, spanning the ways researchers frame problems in the prosody of
23 dialog. We have worked with the authors to make their research accessible to researchers from
24 different traditions. Thus, this special issue is for all who wish to broaden their perspective
25 on the prosody of dialog. This includes of course those already involved in prosody research
26 or phonetics more generally but also others.

27 In particular, scientists from other fields see the importance of understanding prosody. It is
28 fundamental to face-to-face dialog, which is a prototype of human social interaction, and rich
29 in examples of the interpersonal coordination skills that make humans what we are, different
30 from all other animals (Clark 1996, Levinson 2006, Dale et al. 2013, Melis et al. 2016).
31 These abilities are of importance for psycholinguistics, sociology and the other sciences,
32 and are of more than academic interest. There are many active researchers and practitioners
33 working in micro-analysis and conversation analysis, including for such practical purposes
34 as couples therapy, optimizing service interactions, improving workplace communication,

35 and diagnosing, assessing, and treating communication disorders. There is also a great public
 36 demand for knowledge of how to communicate more effectively, with many practical questions
 37 as yet unanswered.

38 Another community that needs models of prosody is the speech engineering community.
 39 For example, speech synthesis is now highly intelligible, but it remains so rigid that its use
 40 in dialog applications makes them awkward and tiring for users. Prosody is recognized
 41 as a key problem here (Collier 2015). Can linguistic models contribute to solving this
 42 problem? Not everyone thinks so: there has been a recent burst of progress in black-box
 43 models of prosody for synthesis (Zen, Senior & Schuster 2013). These models are nothing
 44 more than generic neural-network architectures applied to huge corpora, from which they
 45 learn thousands of parameters that together enable the generation of fairly natural-sounding
 46 prosody, at least for read-style speech. Nowhere in these models is there any recognizable
 47 representation of knowledge about prosody. The same is true for many other practical tasks –
 48 recognizing emotion from prosody, recognizing turn-taking patterns, diagnosing medical
 49 conditions involving prosodic differences and deficits, and so on. In general, when the inputs
 50 and outputs are clear, knowledge-free machine-learning algorithms outperform sophisticated
 51 knowledge-rich models. However, black-box models do not meet all needs.

52 In particular, speech communication is about more than just the transfer of information:
 53 there are vital social and pragmatic functions that today's dialog applications are completely
 54 insensitive to. Ironically, it is the growing number of interactive machines in our everyday life
 55 that make this issue all the more salient. Speech synthesis and recognition systems already
 56 enable us to interact with machines at a basic level: we can ask questions and get answers or
 57 vice versa. But do we really LIKE talking to machines? Surely not; and one of the main reasons
 58 is that machines are still unable to produce and perceive social and/or pragmatic forms and
 59 functions of prosody (Mayo, Clark & King 2011, Wolters et al. 2014). While speech scientists
 60 are well aware of this deficit, industry is also becoming increasingly concerned with these
 61 issues, including issues of voice design and dialog design, across automotive, medical, and
 62 many other applications areas (Chebat et al. 2007, Wolters et al. 2014, Sandry 2015, Fischer
 63 2016, Niebuhr, Tegtmeier & Brem 2017, Rodero 2017). While some of these issues may in
 64 future succumb to black-box models, there are other applications – like helping adult learners
 65 to be effective in a new language, and producing highly-responsive dialog agents (Ward &
 66 DeVault 2016) – where we absolutely need proper, knowledge-rich models of prosody. In
 67 short, there is a need to improve our understanding and modeling of prosody, especially with
 68 respect to the prosody of dialog.

69 A challenge for the authors of this special issue was to consider prosody beyond just
 70 intonation. As discussed below, they addressed this to different degrees and in different ways,
 71 but all of their observations provide material for, and indeed challenges for, attempts to model
 72 prosody. The second major challenge for them was to work towards analyses in which the
 73 social and pragmatic functions are central. Below, after a brief historical survey that discusses
 74 why prosody is so hard to model accurately, we revisit these points, discussing fundamental
 75 challenges highlighted by the papers in this special issue and describing our hopes for future
 76 work.

77 **1 Some perspective on prosody and pragmatic functions**

78 To set the stage for the papers and to explain why we stress the role of pragmatic
 79 function as a prerequisite to prosodic modeling, this section takes a brief look at some
 80 historical developments in intonation research. Figure 1 provides an example-based overview
 81 of intonational representations. Starting with the strategy that Tuscan monks used in the
 82 15th century for remembering the Gregorian chants associated with Bible texts (in this way
 83 inventing the modern concept of musical notes, Kelly 2014), we see the styles used in the

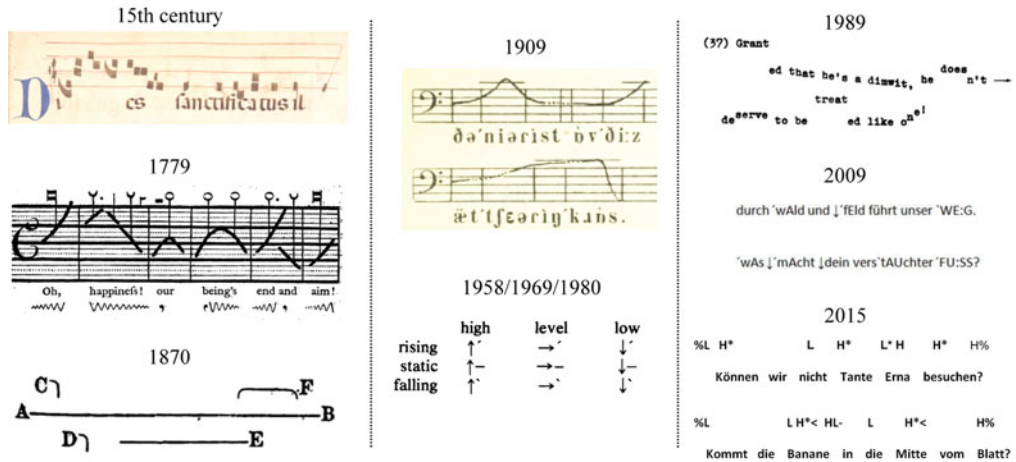


Figure 1 (Colour online) Representations of intonation through history.

84 early works of Steele (1779), Caswell (1870), Jones (1909), the meandering text of Bolinger
 85 (1989), the tonetic stress marks of the British School of intonation (Kingdon 1958), GAT2
 86 (Selting et al. 2009) and the DIMA variant of the autosegmental–metrical framework (Ladd
 87 2008, Kügler et al. 2015). This is just a sampling of the enormous range of methods that have
 88 been invented and used to represent and examine the melody of speech; and of course today
 89 we still have an enormous range of competing representation concepts and models.

90 This diversity of intonational representations contrasts sharply with the situation for the
 91 segmental aspects of speech. This is true even though all of speech is, ultimately, composed
 92 of ‘changes in the cavities of vocal tract – openings or closings, widenings or narrowings,
 93 lengthenings or shortenings’ (Liberman & Whalen 2000: 188). Nevertheless, description in
 94 terms of individual sound segments is far more convenient, and has remained as a heuristic
 95 instrument of international scholarly consensus, as in the International Phonetic Alphabet
 96 (IPA).

97 A key question is: Where does the relative stability and consensus in the representation
 98 of speech segments come from, and what does its absence for prosody imply for research?
 99 While many factors are doubtless involved, including the power of an established orthography
 100 and the tactile feedback of apical articulations and various oral-cavity constrictions that are
 101 lacking for prosody, we think the most important source of stability is the unit of the lexical
 102 item (Bolinger 1963). The existence of words enables articulatory sound patterns to ground
 103 out in solid semantics. That is, they are connected to and grounded in concepts understandable
 104 and transparent to all native speakers of a language, even though these concepts are often
 105 abstract or multifaceted (Harnad 1990, Lakoff 1990). For example, with semantics in the
 106 background it is relatively easy to determine that Dutch [*ɛxələk*], [*ɛɪxk*] and [*ɛɪk*] are all
 107 variants of the same ‘thing’ (*eigenlijk* ‘actually’, Ernestus & Smith, 2018; see also Hawkins
 108 2003). With such semantic grounding, syntagmatic boundaries within sound patterns can be
 109 defined consistently and (allowing for some coarticulatory tolerance) mostly unambiguously.
 110 Moreover, the semantic grounding serves as a constant point of reference to identify, describe,
 111 and model variation.

112 In comparison, in prosody, we constantly struggle with the question of whether some
 113 relatively small differences should be interpreted as belonging or not belonging to the
 114 same ‘thing’, that is, whether some variation is phonetic or phonological in nature. For
 115 example, autosegmental–metrical intonation approaches of German distinguish four pitch-
 116 accent categories in the Oldenburg model, five pitch-accent categories in the Stuttgart model,

and six categories in the GToBI model (Mayer 1995, Grice & Baumann 2002, Peters 2014); see also the discussions in Kohler (2005) and Rathcke & Harrington (2010). One reason for this is that we lack points of reference as good as those we have for lexical items; and one reason for this, in turn, is that intonational meanings are typically of a pragmatic nature and as such less tangible and definable than word meanings. However, the pragmatic meanings of intonational patterns have been a subject of intense and controversial discussions (Gussenhoven 2004, Ladd 2008, Arvaniti 2011, Prieto 2015), and it is to be hoped that better-defined pragmatic meanings will complement and eventually replace the roles that behavioral data – like reaction times and discrimination abilities – currently play in defining within- and between-category variation for prosodic phonology.

Therefore, as in the domain of morphosyntax, intonation research needs much closer integration of analyses of forms AND analyses of functions (Arvaniti 2016), so that ultimately the latter can provide solid grounding, as in lexical semantics. If we think of forms and functions as two sides of the same coin, in prosody, our understanding and modeling of one side of the coin has a decisive influence on understanding and modeling the other side of the coin. To date the success of black-box models has been in domains where this complexity can be ignored.

Against this background, the present special issue makes significant progress by providing new insights into both phonological representation AND pragmatic function.

2 Issues and challenges

First of all, we would like to emphasize that, in addition to their theoretical import, the papers in this special issue contribute a wide range of empirical facts to our understanding of prosody. The pragmatic functions considered include obviousness, greeting, reprimanding, self-repair, upgraded assessments and sarcasm, among others; the languages studied are Peninsular Spanish, Colombian Spanish, French, and British English. Across the differences in topic and approach, all four papers contribute to the goals of this special issue: all identify meanings for prosodic forms, all move beyond the traditional concerns of prosody research to explore dialog-related, interactional, and social meanings, and all examine prosody beyond just intonation. We would like to highlight five overarching issues.

One major issue across the papers relates to the stability of prosodic forms. It would be convenient if meaningful prosodic forms were always realized in the same way, but of course, as already noted, things are not this simple. Classic examples are the issue of truncation and compression of phrase-final f_0 movements or, more generally, the way intonational forms can stretch to cover the necessary time span or adjust to align with the phonetic structures of stressed syllables (Arvaniti, Ladd & Mennen 1998, Wichmann, House & Rietveld 2000, Atterer & Ladd 2004, Rathcke 2016). In this special issue, Francisco Torreira and Martine Grice's paper illustrates how complex this can be: they describe a meaningful melody that may, depending on utterance length, be partly truncated, and that contains a tonal component that may, depending on the lexical content, surface as pitch accent or as a boundary tone.

Aoju Chen and Lou Boves' paper is also relevant to the question of stability of form. The authors find that the intonational expressions of sarcasm vary with the syntactic form of the vehicle utterance. For example, sarcasm seems to be expressed with low pitch on a focused word in tag questions but not in declaratives. Along similar lines, Clara Huttenlauch, Ingo Feldhausen and Bettina Braun find that, for two pragmatic functions, greeting and seeking confirmation, the prosodic forms observed vary with the lexical content used. Thus the same function was realized differently when using a pure greeting, *hola* 'hello', versus when calling by name, for example *Manolo*. Not only do Huttenlauch et al. find differences in which intonation contours are most frequently used, they also find differences in spectral tilt

166 (as a measure of voice quality) and pitch range. They argue that these facts are incompatible
167 with models that assume a simple, direct form–function mapping in prosody.

168 The second issue is that of the role of context. While it would be convenient if prosodic
169 forms had consistent meanings across contexts, variations in nuance and implications are
170 known to be common (see Bolinger 1989), which brings many well-known challenges.
171 But Rasmus Persson’s work on the French ‘*accent d’insistance*’ goes much further: he
172 presents a meaningful prosodic form whose meaning appears to shift entirely depending on
173 the discourse context: varying from conveying simple indication of receipt of new information
174 to intensification and to self-correction. He reaches a radical conclusion: that intonational units
175 have no inherent meanings at all, instead serving merely as a kind of connecting elements
176 or hubs between other semiotic resources, including the sequential context and the lexical
177 items chosen. If this is true – that is, if the common practice of ascribing context-independent
178 meanings to prosodic forms is inadmissible – our field faces huge challenge, not least because
179 of the infinite diversity of contexts and pragmatic goals. Nevertheless, we see hope. While a
180 complete theory of meaning is a boundless task, the aspects of meaning relevant to prosody
181 are more limited, and are heavily skewed to social and interactional meanings. With increasing
182 attention to these aspects of language, we hope to see continuing progress towards effective
183 modeling of context.

184 The third issue we would like to highlight is that of methods. Readers will find in these
185 papers a broad sampling of methods and approaches to prosody, reflecting major differences
186 in evidence gathering, reasoning, and conclusions. Each of our authors has adapted, combined,
187 and extended standard methods to better suit their aims, but each is explicit about the fact that
188 there are still limitations with the techniques used. At the same time, it is clear that all have
189 an equally-strong awareness of the limitations of rival methods. The problem comes when
190 trying to integrate the insights arising from different approaches. Today this is a daunting task:
191 Persson (Section 6) goes so far as to suggest that ‘interactional linguistics and intonational
192 phonology may be dealing with different empirical realities’ because of methodological
193 differences. But as scholars we should not accept this: our challenge is to close the gaps, and
194 discover the underlying truth, that today we are only glimpsing from a few different angles. We
195 hope readers will be inspired to develop new, integrative approaches to the study of prosody,
196 or otherwise work to help put the various findings into one overarching big picture.

197 The fourth issue is that of the relation between intonation and the rest of prosody.
198 Historically pitch has been given priority, with other prosodic features receiving less attention.
199 Recently a radically opposite view has become common. For example, in the prosodic-
200 constructions approach to description (Hedberg, Sosa & Fadden 2004; Ogden 2010, 2012;
201 Day-O’Connell 2013; Niebuhr 2013b, 2015; Rao 2013; Ward & Gallardo 2017), pitch features
202 have no special status; instead they are one facet among others. Some recent models of aspects
203 of prosodic perception focus on how various acoustic parameters may merge into a much
204 smaller number of perceptual qualities, and how parameter trade-offs within this merger
205 are organized. Examples include the intensity-weighted tonal center of gravity of Barnes
206 et al. (2012), and the Contrast Theory of Niebuhr (2013a). It is also the case that in speech
207 technology essentially all applications that involve prosody use multi-stream modeling. For
208 example, automatic recognition systems of social (pragmatic) signals in speech invariably
209 obtain the ‘highest prediction accuracies ... by combining many features’ (Litman & Forbes-
210 Riley 2006: 586). Regarding this question, of the relation between intonation and the rest of
211 prosody, the papers in this special issue take a middle ground. They all start with observations
212 about intonation, but they also consider how other prosodic elements relate and contribute.
213 Looking ahead, finding ways to integrate insights and models derived from intonation-centric
214 approaches with those from comprehensive approaches will be a challenge.

215 The fifth issue is that of overcoming or leveraging the essentially bidirectional nature of
216 inquiry in this area. Going back to the two-sided coin analogy, Torreira and Grice start with
217 the pragmatic side, with the function of signaling obviousness, and by diligent examination
218 of the associated forms, discover a pattern of variation that they might never have seen if

219 they had focused entirely on the side of forms. Persson starts from the other side of the coin,
 220 focusing on one form, namely salient-initial/low-primary accent, and by diligent examination
 221 of the associated functions, in actual dialog, also discovers something unexpected. We foresee
 222 an era of rapid evolution in the study of the prosody, as more researchers more thoroughly
 223 examine both sides of the coin.

224 3 Outlook

225 This decade is an exciting time for prosody: we have new tools, new methods, and new needs,
 226 but also some of the same knotty problems in modeling.

227 In five-to-ten years, we expect that things will look very different. We will have models
 228 which are both theoretically satisfying and practically useful, both suitable for big-data
 229 analyses and accurate for describing specific productions, both easy to understand and
 230 empirically testable. It will not be easy getting there, not least because of the challenges
 231 raised by the papers in this special issue, which we hope will inspire and incite discussion
 232 and progress, but it will be a lot of fun.

233 Acknowledgments

234 We thank our authors, our reviewers, Richard Ogden and the *JIPA* Editor, Amalia Arvaniti, for their
 235 help with this special issue.

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