A phonological model of Uyghur intonation

Travis Major and Connor Mayer

Abstract

This chapter presents an intonational model for Uyghur (Turkic: China). First, it is demonstrated on the basis of acoustic measurements that Uyghur is a stress language that only uses edge-marking intonation, which is typologically unusual. Next, a phonological model of Uyghur intonation is provided in the autosegmental-metrical framework, where the basic prosodic constituents and edge-marking tones are described. We finish by applying this model to various sentence types and outlining areas for future research.

Keywords: Uyghur, intonation, prosody, autosegmental-metrical, stress

6.1 Introduction

Uyghur (ISO 639-3: uig) is a southeastern Turkic language with roughly ten million speakers in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region in the People’s Republic of China, and neighboring regions such as Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan, and Kyrgyzstan. It is a synthetic, agglutinating language with SOV word order and a rich case marking and agreement system. It is typologically most similar to modern Uzbek (Engesæth, Yakup, & Dwyer, 2009/2010).

The goal of this chapter is to present a model of the intonational phonology of Uyghur in the autosegmental-metrical (AM) framework (e.g. Pierrehumbert, 1980; Beckman & Pierrehumbert, 1986; Ladd, 1996/2008), extending previous work (Major & Mayer, 2018). The AM theory proposes that the continuous pitch contour of utterances can be broken down into a string of discrete pitch targets that consist only of high (H) or low (L) tones, or complex combinations of the two (e.g. LH or HL). These tones are associated with particular parts of the segmental string in two ways:
(i) head-marking tones, or pitch accents, associate with a prominent syllable or mora; and (ii) edge-marking or boundary tones associate with the edges of prosodic constituents. Phonetic interpolation determines the pitch contour between tonal targets. The AM model provides a useful set of theoretical assumptions for analyzing the intonational systems of languages, and the analysis of Uyghur in this framework will allow for typological comparisons with the systems of other languages.

This chapter is structured as follows. We first describe the relationship between stress and pitch in Uyghur: we find evidence supporting past descriptions of Uyghur as a stress language with only edge-marking intonation. This makes Uyghur unique among languages that have been modeled in the AM framework. We then outline the basic prosodic constituents and edge-marking tones of our proposed model. We end by discussing the intonational properties of a range of different sentence types, including more naturalistic speech. All data and recordings used in this chapter can be found at https://github.com/connormayer/uyghur_intonation_model.

6.2 Background

There has been little work to date on intonation in Uyghur, although there has been some on the prosodic systems of related languages like Turkish and Chuvash.

6.2.1 Past work on Turkic prosody

The status of lexical stress in Turkish has been heavily debated in the literature. Turkish has been traditionally analyzed as a stress language (e.g., Lees, 1961; Kaisse, 1985; Barker, 1989; Inkelas, 1999; Inkelas & Orgun, 1998; Kabak & Vogel, 2001; Ipek & Jun, 2013; Ipek, 2015), while others have argued that Turkish is a lexical pitch accent language (e.g., Levi, 2005; Kamali, 2011; Günes, 2015). It has been noted that the nuclear pitch accent in Turkish is realized in a more compressed pitch range than the pre-nuclear pitch accent (Kamali, 2011; Kan, 2009). More recently, Ipek and Jun (2013) show that the nuclear pitch accented word is marked on its left edge by an H tone in
addition to the pitch range compression, while there is an additional H target associated with the
right edge of NPs and PPs.

The study of the Turkic language Chuvash in Dobrovolsky (1999) also suggests that it is a
stress language, with duration and intensity serving as important cues. No correlative measures of
pitch were done, however.

### 6.2.2 Past work on Uyghur prosody

The status of stress in Uyghur is not well understood. Nadzhip (1971) describes Uyghur stress
as being “remarkable for its complexity and instability,” (p. 63). He suggests that stress typically
falls on the final syllable in the word, but that there are numerous exceptions to this generalization,
particularly among loanwords.

Hahn (1991a, 1991b) claims that stress is assigned predictably based on a number of prosodic
factors, and is reflected by increases in pitch, duration, and intensity. Under this account, the
rightmost heavy syllable (CVV, CVC, CVVC, etc.) that occurs in ultimate or penultimate position
will receive stress. If no such heavy syllable is present, stress defaults to the final syllable of the
word. Heavy syllables that occur before the penultimate syllable receive secondary stress. Hahn
also notes the existence of suffixes that attract or repel stress to the preceding syllable (so-called
“pre-stressing suffixes”). In addition to stress, Hahn (1991b) briefly discusses the use of pitch
in Uyghur (p. 29). He claims based on impressionistic data that utterances, including questions,
tend to end in low tones, and that focus and question phrases tend to exhibit an expanded pitch
range.

Engesæth et al. (2009/2010) agree that Uyghur is stress language that defaults to word-final
stress, but suggest that the interaction of stress with syllable weight is a tendency, and not a rule.
They suggest that stress tends to fall on the first heavy syllable in a word (e.g., tápshuruq ‘homework’,
murékkep ‘complicated’), but note exceptions to this (e.g., Turpán ‘Turpan’). In addition, they
suggest that loan words maintain stress patterns from the original language (e.g., gimnáštika
‘gymnastics’ from Russian; bála ‘disaster’ from Farsi; cf. the native Uyghur word balá ‘child’).
They also suggest that the primary acoustic correlate of stress is duration, not f0 or intensity.

A series of production and perception experiments by Yakup (2013) supports this claim. These experiments targeted stress minimal pairs or near minimal pairs such as bálá ‘disaster’ and balá ‘child’ in both single word utterances and continuous speech, and showed that only duration served as a significant correlate of stress location. f0 and intensity were not significantly correlated with perceived prominence by speakers, which suggests that Uyghur uses a more limited set of acoustic features to mark stress than other stress languages. However, Yakup also found that speakers sometimes disagreed as to which syllables were stressed in many words, indicating that stress may not be robustly perceived or produced, even by native speakers.

Özcèlik (2015), on the other hand, presents formal and experimental evidence that Uyghur is a predominantly footless language that features intonational prominence on the right edge of prosodic words. He is careful to state that this prominence is not stress, but a boundary tone at the right edge of the prosodic word, and shows no accompanying increase in duration. Suffixes that generate prominence on non-final syllables (i.e., those that either attract or repel stress) are cases of true stress: they are claimed to have underlying trochaic foot structure, which necessitates footing the word in such a way that produces non-final stress. These exceptionally stressed syllables are claimed to have greater f0 and duration. Although some of the claims from this paper are corroborated by previous research and the current chapter (e.g., intonational prominence on the rightmost edges of words, the presence of idiosyncratic stress), the study contains a large number of methodological issues that undermine the validity of many of its claims: to name just two, the claim that exceptional stress is correlated with increased f0 is based on differences in production between declarative and interrogative sentences, with no attempt to control for f0 differences arising from sentence or utterance level intonational properties; and the claim that final syllables are not lengthened is based on a statistical analysis of measurements made from a single token of a single word (paqa, ‘frog’) from just five speakers.

Though we acknowledge there is much work to be done to better understand stress in Uyghur, we adopt an account that is broadly consistent with Engesæth et al. (2009/2010) and Yakup (2013):
the only reliable acoustic correlate of stress in Uyghur is increased duration, and although stress prefers to fall at the right edge of a word and on heavy syllables, there are many exceptions, particularly in loan words. This means that stressed syllables in Uyghur cannot be identified from the pitch contour of an utterance. This differs from Turkish, where intonational tones do associate with stressed syllables.\footnote{Stress in Turkic languages was historically realized on the root, but eventually got shifted to the final syllable with certain exceptions. This tendency for final stress is robust across Turkic, but each language has developed a unique system (Menges, 1995).} In the AM theory of intonation, intonational tones mark lexical heads (i.e. stressed syllables) and the edges of prosodic units. That is, if a language has stress, the stressed syllable is expected to be marked by intonation. Therefore Uyghur would be somewhat unusual from the perspective of the prosodic typology outlined in Jun (2005), which does not identify any languages that have stress word prosody but only edge-marking intonation.\footnote{An additional possibility that bears mention here is that Uyghur has no stress at all, but simply a distinction between long and short vowels (e.g., Hahn, 1991a, 1991b, though Hahn also assumes stress). It is unclear how to differentiate empirically between phonemic contrasts in vowel length and lexical stress whose sole acoustic correlate is duration. We assume the latter for several reasons: stress-based analyses are more common in the previous literature; no Uyghur orthography distinguishes between long and short vowels despite being an accurate phonemic representation of the language in most other respects (Mayer, 2020); and minimal pairs that differ in stress position/vowel length appear to be relatively uncommon compared to other languages with a recognized phonemic length distinction.}

To our knowledge, the sole description in the AM framework of a language with a stress system that has no intonational marking is Abbas (2021), which describes the intonational phonology of Farasani Arabic. Farasani Arabic is claimed to have lexical stress, but exhibits head-marking intonation only in focus constructions: that is, when a word is focused the pitch peak falls on its stressed syllable, but when it is not focused, the peak always falls on its final syllable. A number of other languages also appear to have a stress system with no intonational marking, but these have not been described in the AM framework: Lindström and Remijsen (2005) suggest that Kuot, a non-Austronesian language of Papua New Guinea, displays similar properties, with strong effects of duration for word stress and f0 for intonational marking, but no interaction between the stress and intonational systems. Similarly, Kisseberth and Abasheikh (2011) report that Chimwiini intonation is independent of vowel length, which correlates with stress. The description of the Turkic language Chuvash in Dobrovolsky (1999) also has some intriguing suggestions of mismatches.
between stress and intonation, but there is not sufficient data presented to determine whether pitch accents are present or not.

If it is indeed the case that Uyghur is a stress language with only edge-marking intonation, formalizing this into an AM model will be a useful step towards expanding our typological inventory of intonational systems. The next section will provide experimental evidence that this is the case, which will subsequently be used to motivate our proposed model of Uyghur intonation.

6.3 Stress and intonation in Uyghur

Yakup (2013) shows that stress in Uyghur is reflected only by vowel length, not f0 or intensity. This suggests that although Uyghur can be described as a stress language, stress and intonational tone are independent. In this section, we use acoustic measurements to confirm that vowel duration is the only acoustic correlate of stress, while f0 is used to mark the boundaries of prosodic constituents (see Section 6.4). This is largely a replication of Yakup (2013), but we introduce one addition: we examine the same words in both sentence-initial and sentence-medial positions, while the studies in Yakup (2013) only looked at words in isolation and in sentence-medial contexts.

6.3.1 Data collection

Data for the acoustic stress study were collected from eight adult speakers of Uyghur, four male and four female. Four of the speakers (2M, 2F) are from the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region in the People’s Republic of China: three from the greater Urumqi area, which is the capital of Xinjiang located in the northern part of the region, and one from Qashqar, located in southwestern Xinjiang. The other four (2M, 2F) are from the Almaty region in southeastern Kazakhstan. All speakers were educated in Uyghur and raised speaking primarily in Uyghur. The speakers from Xinjiang are all currently pursuing post-secondary degrees in the United States or working as academics, while the speakers in Kazakhstan were teachers at a Uyghur high school in Almaty.

Sentences were elicited by having the consultants read from a randomized list prepared by the
authors. Sentences were checked for grammatical acceptability with consultants before recording them. The recordings for speakers from Xinjiang were made in sound booths in the UCLA and University of Kansas departments of linguistics. The recordings for speakers from Almaty were made in a quiet room at the Uyghur high school in Almaty.

6.3.2 Stimuli

We tested the independence of stress and intonation in Uyghur by eliciting a series of minimal and near-minimal stress pairs from Yakup (2013) for which speakers showed a high level of agreement about stress location. These pairs were elicited in both sentence-initial and sentence-medial position in the following carrier phrases:

- X bek yaxshi söz – “X is a very good word”
- Mahinur X deydu – “Mahinur will say X”

These carrier phrases were chosen to accommodate the various parts of speech of the target words. Although these carrier phrases set off the target words somewhat from the rest of the sentence, this applies equally to all target words, and hence comparison between them is justified. Our target words are shown in Table 6.1. Stress is indicated by capitalization. Because Uyghur orthography does not mark stress, we disambiguated between stress minimal pairs by inserting Russian (in Kazakhstan) or English (in the United States) translations of the target words when necessary. This design allowed a balanced number of stressed and unstressed vowels in similar contexts and with mostly the same vowel quality. This resulted in 64 vowel tokens per speaker (16 words x 2 vowels per word x 2 sentence contexts). Due to errors in data collection, two speakers from Xinjiang are missing several tokens, for a total of 504 vowel tokens across all speakers.

Figs. 6.1 and 6.2 contrast Acha “elder sister” and aCHA “branching” in sentence-initial position.

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3 In Uyghur Latin orthography, the character ē represents the sound /e/, while e represents /æ/. To avoid confusion, we use capital letters throughout to denote the stressed syllable rather than accents.

4 One speaker is missing a token of daDA in sentence-initial position; a second speaker is missing tokens of baHA in sentence-medial position, DACHA in sentence-medial position, and daDA in sentence-medial position.
Compare the relative duration of the two vowels in each word: the first and second vowels in Fig. 6.1 are 131 ms and 78 ms respectively, while in Fig. 6.2 they are 80 ms and 118 ms.⁵

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word 1</th>
<th>Gloss 1</th>
<th>Word 2</th>
<th>Gloss 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D'Aka</td>
<td>gauze</td>
<td>daLA</td>
<td>plain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'Azə</td>
<td>base</td>
<td>baHA</td>
<td>price</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D'Acha</td>
<td>villa</td>
<td>daDA</td>
<td>father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D'Ora</td>
<td>medicine</td>
<td>doQA</td>
<td>forehead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C'HAsə</td>
<td>square</td>
<td>chaTAQ</td>
<td>problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A'cha</td>
<td>elder sister</td>
<td>a'CHA</td>
<td>branching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B'Ala</td>
<td>child</td>
<td>baLA</td>
<td>disaster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A'ra</td>
<td>fork</td>
<td>a'RA</td>
<td>between</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6.1:** Near-minimal and minimal stress pair target words.

**Figure 6.1:** Pitch track of the word *Acha* ‘elder sister’ in sentence-initial position. This sentence means “‘Elder sister’ is a very good word.” The contents of the tone tier are explained in Section 6.4.

### 6.3.3 Analysis

The two vowels in each word were segmented using Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2021), and the mean intensity (in dB), f0 (in Hz), and duration (in seconds) were extracted. We ran three linear mixed effects models using the *lme4* package in R (R Core Team, 2017; Bates, Mächler, Bolker,

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⁵Note that the target word in Figs. 6.1 and 6.2 is focused, and the material following the target word is deaccented, resulting in a fairly linear decline in f0. We return to this phenomenon in Section 6.5.1.
Figure 6.2: Pitch track of the word aCHA ‘branching’ in sentence-initial position. This sentence means “‘Branching’ is a very good word.” The contents of the tone tier are explained in Section 6.4.

& Walker, 2015). Significance values were generated using the lmerTest library (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen, 2017). Our dependent variables were duration, intensity, and f0 respectively. Our independent variables were stress (stressed or unstressed), position in the word (initial or final syllable), and position of the word in the sentence (initial or medial), as well as an interaction term between position in word and position in sentence. We included random intercepts for word and participants.

6.3.4 Results

The duration model showed a significant main effect of stress ($\beta = 0.016, t = 6.312, p < 0.001$), with stressed vowels being significantly longer; a significant main effect of position in the word ($\beta = 0.013, t = 3.674, p < 0.001$), with vowels in the final syllable of words being significantly longer; and a significant main effect of position in sentence ($\beta = -0.008, t = -2.071, p < 0.05$), with vowels in sentence-medial words being significantly shorter. Duration values are plotted in Fig. 6.3.

The intensity model showed significant main effects of position in sentence ($\beta = -1.083, t = -3.762, p < 0.001$), with words in sentence-medial position having significantly lower intensity, as well as a significant effect of position in word, with vowels in word-final position having higher
Figure 6.3: Vowel duration broken down by position of word in sentence, position of vowel in word, and whether or not the vowel is stressed. Values are reported in Z scores rather than seconds to facilitate comparison between speakers.

Intensity ($\beta = 1.079, t = 3.764, p < 0.001$). There was no significant effect of stress on intensity. Intensity values are plotted in Fig. 6.4.

The f0 model showed a significant main effect of position in the word ($\beta = 42.574, t = 18.267, p < 0.001$), with word-final syllables having a significantly higher f0, and a significant main effect of position of the word in the sentence ($\beta = -8.479, t = -3.622, p < 0.001$), with vowels in sentence-medial words having a lower f0, suggesting declination. In addition, there
was a significant interaction between position in word and position in sentence, with word-final vowels in sentence-medial words having a significantly lower f0 ($\beta = -17.247, t = -5.213, p < 0.001$). We interpret this interaction as capturing the pattern of exponential decay that has been observed for f0 declination in other languages (e.g. Liberman & Pierrehumbert, 1984; Prieto, Shih, & Nibert, 1996). There were no significant effects of stress on f0.

![Figure 6.5: Mean vowel f0 broken down by position of word in sentence, position of vowel in word, and whether or not the vowel is stressed. Values are reported in Z scores rather than Hz to facilitate comparison between speakers.](image)

These results show that stress location is a significant predictor of duration, but not f0. f0, rather, is predicted by the position in the word (word-final syllable > word-initial syllable), reflecting the edge-marking function of pitch, and the position of the word in the utterance, reflecting declination. These results support treating Uyghur as a stress language with only edge-marking intonation. In the remainder of the chapter, we present a phonological model of Uyghur intonation that incorporates these findings.
6.4 The Intonational Phonology of Uyghur

6.4.1 Data collection

The data that serves as the basis for the model presented in the remainder of the chapter was collected from six native Uyghur speakers from Xinjiang (3M, 3F). Elicited sentences were constructed to contain as many sonorants and voiced sounds as possible to allow extraction of a clear f0 contour. Sentences were always elicited using a preceding question to provide an appropriate context. Broadly speaking, these preceding questions fall into three groups that differ in the kinds of focus they are intended to produce.

- **Neutral declarative example:**
  
  *Videoda néme boldi?*  
  ‘What happened in the video?’
  
  *Meryem Alimgha méwe berdi*  
  ‘Meryem gave fruit to Alim’

- **Wh-question example:**
  
  *Kim Alimgha méwe berdi?*  
  ‘Who gave fruit to Alim?’
  
  *Meryem Alimgha méwe berdi*  
  ‘Meryem gave fruit to Alim’

- **Contrastive focus example:**
  
  *Mahire Alimgha méwe berdimu?*  
  ‘Did Mahire give fruit to Alim?’
  
  *Yaq, Meryem Alimgha méwe berdi*  
  ‘No, Meryem gave fruit to Alim’

Not all data points were elicited from all participants, but the model presented here is consistent with the observed data from all participants. In cases where elicitation was done with a single participant, the investigator read the preceding questions. When elicitation was done with more than one Uyghur speaker, speakers took turns reading question and answer pairs. We also include several more naturalistic utterances towards the end of the chapter.

6.4.2 Prosodic levels

Based on evidence from the distribution of intonational tonal targets, as well as phonological and syntactic properties, we argue that the Uyghur intonational system has three distinct levels of
prosodic constituency: the accentual phrase (AP), the intermediate phrase (ip), and the intonational phrase (IP). A schematized representation of the hierarchical structure of these constituents is shown in Fig. 6.6.

Figure 6.6: A schematic representation of the proposed prosodic hierarchy for Uyghur. Links between prosodic constituents and boundary tones are indicated by dotted lines. Prosodic tones associated with higher prosodic constituents override tones associated with lower ones when realized on the same syllable (i.e. % \gg H- \gg Ha).

### 6.4.3 The accentual phrase

The accentual phrase (AP) is the lowest level of prosodic constituency to which Uyghur intonational phonology is sensitive. An AP minimally consists of a single prosodic word, but may contain multiple words. Our data suggest that APs are generally no longer than two prosodic words.

The underlying tone pattern associated with an AP is LHLHa, where L is a low tone, H is an AP-internal high tone, and Ha is an AP-final high tone (this is similar to the tone pattern described for APs in Korean; Jun, 2000). H and Ha may be distinguished in several ways: all else being equal, the f0 peak corresponding to an Ha tone is generally higher than one corresponding to an H tone. As well, Ha tones invariably occur at the right edge of words, while AP-internal H tones may occur elsewhere (see, e.g., Figs. 6.16, 6.9, 6.10, 6.21).

The final Ha tone is invariably realized on the final syllable of the AP, except when it is overridden by a tone associated with a higher prosodic level (see Fig. 6.6). The realization of the other tones
is variable, and depends partially on the number of syllables in the AP. The most common realizations in our data are LHa and LHLHa. We occasionally see other realizations such as LLHa, LHHa, HHa, and HLHa. The final two are particularly uncommon, as APs generally begin with an L tone.

The factors determining the specific realization of AP-internal tones are not completely clear. Following Jun (2000), we transcribe the surface realizations we have encountered while leaving a careful analysis of their distribution as a topic for future research. We do note that APs containing fewer than four syllables will invariably elide one or more of the first three tones (LHL). It is common, however, for these tones to be elided even in APs with enough syllabic material to support them all. This seems to be particularly common in more rapid speech, such as the newscaster speech presented in Fig. 6.24.

Fig. 6.7 contains two APs that contain multiple prosodic words: nérwa momay “nervous grandmother” and ram onglidi “fixed a frame” (we will discuss the H- annotation in Section 6.4.5). The first word in each of these APs exhibits an L tone on the left edge and an H tone on the right edge. Notice that the H tone on the right edge of the adjective nérwa “nervous” is somewhat lower than the Ha tone on the right edge of momay “grandmother”: this difference is more striking when expected pitch declination is considered. There is a small pitch rise at the end of ram “frame” corresponding to the H boundary tone, followed by an f0 descent across the verb resulting from the L% tone associated with declarative utterances (see Section 6.4.6).

In addition to the tonal patterns described above serving as evidence of prosodic boundaries, there are segmental phonological processes that occur at word boundaries within an AP, but not at AP boundaries. One of these processes is vowel reduction: although there are many lexical and morphological complications that must be considered (see, e.g., Mayer, 2020), broadly speaking this process requires that the vowels a (IPA: /a/) and e (IPA: /æ/) raise to i in medial, open syllables.6 Examples are shown in Tables 6.2 and 6.3.

Although vowel reduction is generally described as a word-level phenomenon (i.e., word-

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6Uyghur has a second phonological process, called umlaut that raises the same vowels in certain contexts to [e] rather than [i]. The term vowel reduction is used to refer to the specific raising process discussed here.
medial open syllables raise), raising may be observed in word-final syllables in certain contexts. For example, in utterances like *Adil Hesenge berdi* ‘Adil gave it to Hesen’, the dative suffix -**ge** may raise, producing *Adil Hensengi berdi*.\(^7\) Our data suggests that the domain for raising is the AP: that is, vowel reduction may occur at word boundaries within an AP, but not at AP boundaries. Thus vowel reduction may be used as a diagnostic tool for prosodic grouping.

In Fig. 6.7, the final vowel in *nérwa* raises, suggesting that the right edge of this word is not aligned with the boundary of an AP or higher constituent. This is particularly noticeable when this vowel is compared to the [a] in *ram*, which cannot raise because it is in a closed syllable.

\(^7\)Note that word-medial raising is represented orthographically, while word-final raising is not.
In this token, the mean F1 value for the vowel in *ram* is 654 Hz, while the mean F1 for the final vowel in *nérwa* is 338 Hz.

A second diagnostic involves hiatus resolution by vowel deletion, which occurs between words within an AP, but does not occur across APs. This is clearly demonstrated by the juncture between *alma* “apple” and *ewetti* “sent” in Fig. 6.8, where the final vowel of *alma* is entirely deleted. The cases of hiatus resolution by vowel deletion that we have observed target the final vowel of the first word. We have not observed alternative resolution strategies such as coalescence.

![Figure 6.8: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence Mahire Alimgha alma ewetti](image)

**Figure 6.8:** Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Mahire Alimgha alma ewetti* “Mahire sent Alim an apple.”

We can thus differentiate AP boundaries from AP-internal word boundaries by looking at not only the height of the H peak at the end of the phrase, but also by whether vowel reduction or hiatus resolution by deletion takes place between two words.

Finally, AP boundaries may be distinguished from AP-internal word boundaries by their greater juncture (that is, greater phrase final lengthening). The next section presents a small phonetic study that quantifies the juncture differences between these two boundary types.

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8If hiatus resolution occurs across an AP or higher boundary, it is typically achieved by glottal stop insertion.
6.4.4 Quantifying differences in juncture between word and AP boundaries

To provide more systematic empirical support for the intuition claim that AP boundaries have greater juncture size than word boundaries with APs, we carried out a small phonetic study that compares simple sentences like *Qurban mangidu* “Qurban will walk” (Fig. 6.9) against more complex sentences like *Qurban bilen Ziba mangidu* “Ziba will walk with Qurban” (Fig. 6.10) or *Qurban bilidighan Ziba ketti* “Ziba, who knows Qurban, arrived”.

Notice that each of the sentences introduced above begins with the name *Qurban*, which is the standalone subject in the first case, the complement to the post position *bilen* “with” in the comitative construction, and the subject of a relative clause in the third case. Our intention is to determine whether there is a correlation between the amount of material, syntactic structure, and intonational properties of the first constituent.

![Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Qurban mangidu* “Qurban will walk.”](image)

**Figure 6.9:** Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Qurban mangidu* “Qurban will walk.”

In 6.9, that *Qurban* forms an AP. When this is compared to the comitative construction in 6.10, notice that Qurban does not display an AP boundary tone on its right edge; instead, the Ha tone is realized on the right edge of the entire postpositional phrase. This demonstrates that there is a relationship between syntactic structure and prosodic phrasing.

We predicted that in simple sentences when the initial word is the grammatical subject of the
Figure 6.10: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Qurban bilen Ziba mangidu* “Ziba will walk with Qurban.”

matrix clause, that it would always form its own AP. In complex sentences when the first name is not the subject, but rather is embedded in a larger constituent such as a prepositional phrase or a relative clause, we predicted that the entire constituent would form an AP, with the initial word forming one of the prosodic words within the AP. These predicted differences in phrasing mean that in simple sentences the final syllable of the initial word should display greater f0 and duration due to its occurrence at the right edge of an AP than in complex sentences where it occurs AP-medially. We designed a simple experiment to test for these predicted differences.

We asked six native Uyghur speakers to read a set of 18 sentences, for a total of 108 tokens. Sentences had the following three question and response structures:

- **Simple:**
  
  *Néme boldi?*  ‘What happened?’

  *NAME VERB*  ‘NAME VERB’

- **Complex comitative:**
  
  *Néme boldi?*  ‘What happened?’

  *NAME₁ bilen NAME₂ VERB*  ‘NAME₂ VERB with NAME₁’

- **Complex relative clause:**
‘What happened?’

NAME₁ bilidighan NAME₂ ketti ‘NAME₂, who NAME₁ knows, arrived.’

The values for NAME were Ziba or Qurban⁹ and the values for VERB were yūridu ‘will go’, mangidu ‘will walk’, bardi ‘went’, or yighlaptu ‘wept.’ The tense changes across verbs were made to prevent speakers from getting bored and falling into list intonation.

The final syllables of the initial word in each of these utterances were segmented using Praat. We extracted duration in seconds, mean f0, and mean intensity for each syllable. As in the stress study presented in Section 6.3, we fit linear mixed effects models for each of these measurements. The independent variable was subjecthood: whether the name served as a subject (simple sentences) or as a non-subject (complex sentences). The duration model also included two independent variables not present in the other models. The first was whether the syllable had a coda (as in Qurban) or not (as in Ziba); we expected that syllables with codas should have longer overall duration. The second was the total number of syllables in the utterance; we predicted that longer utterances should have shorter syllable durations (?, ?). We included random intercepts for each participant in all models.

The duration model showed a significant effect of subjecthood on duration: the final syllable of subjects tends to be longer than that of non-subjects in the same position (Fig. 6.11; $\beta = 0.047, t = 3.126, p < 0.01$). Unsurprisingly, there was also a significant positive effect of coda presence on duration ($\beta = 0.039, t = 6.921, p < 0.001$). There was also a significant positive effect of number of syllables ($\beta = 0.008, t = 2.43, p < 0.05$). Though this effect was in the opposite direction than expected, it was quite small. Neither the f0 or intensity models showed significant differences based on subjecthood.

We interpret these differences in duration of final syllables between utterance-initial subjects and utterance-initial non-subjects to reflect a difference in their constituency. Research has shown that larger prosodic boundaries are associated with a longer duration on the last syllable of the prosodic unit (e.g., Klatt, 1975; Lehiste, Olive, & Streeter, 1976; Wightman, Shattuck-Hufnagel,

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⁹Due to researcher error, Adil was erroneously used instead of Qurban in the complex relative clause construction by two speakers.
Figure 6.11: Comparison of duration of final syllables between subjects and non-subjects in word-initial position. Durations are normalized to Z scores to facilitate comparison across participants.

Ostendorf, & Price, 1992), and the systematic difference in syllable length between the two positions supports the claim that AP boundaries and AP-internal word boundaries may be differentiated based on juncture size.

The lack of a significant difference in f0 based on boundary type suggests that absolute f0 is not an effective means of distinguishing between H and Ha tones: rather the height of the peak with respect to other peaks in the same utterance must be considered.

6.4.5 The intermediate phrase

This section introduces the the intermediate phrase (ip), the next highest level on the prosodic tree shown in Fig. 6.6. We describe the properties of the ip primarily by comparing their properties to the properties of the AP.

Like the AP, the ip has a high tone associated with its right edge, which we write as H-. The most salient differences between ips and APs are that ip boundaries break declination/enable pitch range expansion and they are followed by a greater degree of juncture (similar to the difference in juncture between word boundaries and AP boundaries).

Declination is a universal property of speech prosody whereby maximum f0 tends to decline over the course of an utterance (e.g. Liberman & Pierrehumbert, 1984; Prieto et al., 1996). This can be observed in many of the figures in this chapter: Fig. 6.12, for example, shows a simple
Figure 6.12: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Adil bughdayni baghidi* “Adil bound the wheat.” Note the effect of declination on the f0 peak of the second Ha tone.

Example of this where the f0 peak of the first Ha tone is higher than that of the second.

Ip boundaries will typically trigger pitch reset, where the trend of declination is broken and the maximum f0 of the following peak returns to roughly its utterance-initial height. An example of this is shown in Fig. 6.8, where the f0 peak at the end of *alimgha* is roughly the same (or even slightly higher) than the peak at the edge of preceding *mahire*. This also generally manifests as more distinct L tones immediately following an ip boundary.

Ip boundaries are often employed to produce a pitch reset for the purpose of focusing a particular prosodic constituent (see Section 6.5.1). Their use is not limited to focus constructions, however: they may also be used to break up a long utterance into smaller phrases. Fig. 6.13 shows another instance of an ip boundary triggering pitch reset. This figure shows the affirmative answer to the question “Did Ziya slowly give Alim a wild apple in the bazaar?” This answer is *given*: that is, the entire utterance has already been introduced into the discourse, which means that the utterance
does not contain a focused constituent.\textsuperscript{10}

Notice that after the first noun phrase ziya, the f0 peaks on bazarda “in the bazaar” and alimgha “to Alim” display descending high boundary tones. There is a break in declination following alimgha, where the peak f0 on the adverb asta “slowly” is considerably higher than the peak on alimgha. Following asta “slowly”, there is declination across the next two words, yawa “wild” and alma “apple”, which leads into the end of the utterance, which is marked with an IP-final L% tone. That ziya bazarda alimgha forms a single ip is supported by both the pattern of declination within the phrase and the pitch reset observed at the beginning of the following phrase. Also, the juncture following alimgha is larger than the junctures following ziya and bazarda. Because this sentence lacks a focused element, it illustrates the natural tendency for a pitch reset to break up a long utterance.

Figure 6.13: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence He’e, Ziya bazarda Alimgha asta yawa alma berdi “Yes, Ziya slowly gave Alim a wild apple at the bazaar.”

In longer neutral contexts such as this, there seems to be considerable variability as to how the utterance should be broken into ips. In our investigation, we have yet to find an ip that consists of more than three accentual phrases. In non-neutral contexts, the options for prosodic phrasing are more rigid, and are largely determined by information structure, which we address in Section\textsuperscript{10}

\textsuperscript{10}A given constituent is one that has been mentioned previously in the discourse. To give a clear example from English, consider the following discourse (from Wagner, 2012):

**Q:** Smith walked into a store. What happened next?

**A:** A detective arrested Smith

In the second sentence, the discourse referent “Smith” has already been introduced into the discourse. “Smith” is thus considered given in the second sentence.
6.5.1.

Finally, although there is a general tendency for ips to correspond to syntactic constituents, this is not always the case. This is also illustrated by 6.13. Despite the fact that *ziya bazarda alimgha* does not form a syntactic constituent, it does form a single ip.

6.4.6 The intonational phrase

Like ips, *intonational phrases* (IP) are marked by a boundary tone on their final syllable. An IP boundary will generally cause substantial lengthening of the preceding syllable, be followed by an explicit pause, and trigger pitch reset. IPs bear one of four final boundary tones: L%, H%, HL%, or LH%. The complex boundaries tones HL% and LH% are differentiated from the tone sequences H L% and L H% by the domain of realization of the tonal targets: the complex tones are generally realized on a single syllable (e.g. Figs. 6.13 and 6.15), while the tone sequences are realized across multiple syllables (e.g. Figs. 6.10 and 6.23).

Note that these are the only cases of complex tones in our model. The pragmatic distinction between the simple and corresponding complex tones is not clear, and we return to this issue in the discussion.

Generally speaking, L% and HL% mark the end of declarative utterances while H% and LH% mark the end of polar and wh-questions, emphatic sentences, or serve as an indicator that the speaker plans to continue speaking on the same topic. All figures presented up to this point include examples of declarative L% or HL% tones. An example of an H% tone is provided in Fig. 6.14, which represents a simple yes/no question. In this case, the H% target is hosted by the final question particle *mu*.

We will postpone further discussion and examples of IP-final tones to the next section, where we will discuss the intonational properties of various utterance types.
6.5 The intonational properties of various utterance types

The previous section provided an overview of the core aspects of our intonational model. In this section, we will present the characteristic intonational patterns of a range of different utterance types.

6.5.1 Focus and questions

Because of the absence of head-marking tones in Uyghur, prominent prosodic elements are indicated by (a) positioning them at the beginning of ıps such that they are preceded by a fairly large juncture and undergo pitch range expansion; (b) deaccenting of following material; and (c) additional pitch range expansion. This is similar to the strategies used in other edge-prominence languages like Korean (Jun, 2005).

Recall the simple sentence *Adil bughdayni baghlidi* “Adil bound the wheat” in Fig. 6.12, which represents prototypical neutral Uyghur prosody: the first Ha on *Adil* displays the highest f0 peak in the utterance, followed by a slightly lower f0 peak for the second Ha on *bughdayni*.

11 Though note again the interesting case of Farasani Arabic, which lacks head-marking tones in neutral contexts but applies pitch accents to stressed syllables in focused contexts (Abbas, 2021).
“wheat”, followed by the sentence-final declarative L%. We can compare this with the same sentence but with the additive/focus clitic =mu “even/also” added to the object, as in Fig. 6.15. Notice that there is a substantial juncture preceding the focused object and the f0 peak of the Ha tone associated with the right edge of the focused object displays substantial pitch range expansion (indeed, expansion beyond that which might be expected in an unfocused constituent that begins an ip, such as asta in Fig. 6.13. Both these observations suggest that the focused constituent begins an ip. Further, the juncture following (=mu) is smaller than that following adil, suggesting that the focused constituent constitutes an AP rather than an ip.

![Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence Adil bughdaynimu baghli “Adil even bound the wheat.”](image)

**Figure 6.15:** Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence Adil bughdaynimu baghli “Adil even bound the wheat.”

The prosody of focus when there is no explicit focus particle is essentially identical. Fig. 6.16, for example, shows a case where the adverb bügün ‘today’ receives focus. Note the large juncture preceding, bügün and the pitch range expansion on the word itself.

Wh-expressions generally receive the same kind of intonational prominence as other types of focused NPs, as demonstrated in Fig. 6.17. Like the polar question shown in Fig. 6.14, wh-questions are also marked with an IP-final H% or LH% tone. In addition to this final tone, the wh-expression kimge “to whom” is focused. The right edges of amine and dūšenbe display similar juncture sizes, while the final syllable of kimge, which receives focus in this utterance,
Figure 6.16: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Momay bügün ram ongli*di ‘The grandmother fixed a frame today.’

Figure 6.17: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Amine düşenbe kimge méwe berdi?* “Who did Amine give fruit to on Monday?”

displays a lesser degree of lengthening, despite the fact that it has peak f0. This again supports the claim that focused constituents occur as the first AP in a new ip. Note as well that Fig. 6.17 demonstrates clear deaccenting following the focused element: there are almost no tonal targets in the AP constituting *méwe berdi* aside from the initial and final tones.

The same properties are observed in the answer to Fig. 6.17, provided in Fig. 6.18. Notice that the the only new information that is introduced is *Meryemge* “to Meryem”, which receives
focus. It begins the new ip following “Monday”, has the highest f0 peak in the utterance, and triggers pitch compression of the material that follows it. The only substantial difference between the question and its answer is the status of the IP-final tone, which is marked with L% in the answer because it is a declarative utterance.

Corrective focus receives the same prosodic treatment as answers to questions. Consider the adverb *asta* “slowly” in Fig. 6.19. The context is one in which the interlocutor suggests that the event was carried out quickly. The speaker accepts the entire sentence except for the manner adverbial. As a result, the speaker offers a correction to the appropriate manner adverbial, replacing “quickly” with “slowly”, and making “slowly” the most prominent word in the sentence. As above, the prominence of *asta* is indicated by placing it at the beginning of a new ip. Note as well that although both *alimgha* and *asta* begin ips (evidenced by the preceding juncture size and pitch range expansion in both cases), the ip containing *asta* displays a greater degree of expansion, which is typical of focused elements.
Figure 6.19: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for the sentence *Yaq, Ziya almini bazarda Alimgha asta berdi* “No, Ziya slowly gave the apple to Alim at the bazaar.”

### 6.5.2 Discourse and turn taking

In addition to marking questions, IP-final H% and LH% can also be used to mark a continuation rise, indicating that the speaker intends to continue speaking. For instance, the utterance represented by Fig. 6.20 is a response to the question “Where is the apple?” The precise context is one in which there is an apple in the common ground of the two interlocutors, but the questioner cannot find it. The first sentence *Alma yoq* “The apple is gone” bears an LH% tone on its right edge, which indicates that the speaker has not yet finished speaking. The second part of the utterance *Almini Ziya y´edi* bears normal declarative intonation. “Apple” undergoes topicalization, but does not receive special intonational marking. Instead, it forms an AP, marked on its right edge by an Ha tone. The next word *Ziya* similarly bears an Ha marker on its right edge, showing declination from the f0 peak on the right edge of “apple”.

This use of H% or LH% is also very common when one gives orders or instructions; in particular, when the the order or instructions consist of more than a single sentence or clause. This is exemplified by the naturalistic utterance in Fig. 6.21.

In this particular case, the speaker is giving instructions to her interlocutor about how they will read our stimuli. She indicates that the first time, the interlocutor will be the one reading the questions and she will answer. The LH% boundary tone at the end of this utterance indicates that she has not finished providing instructions, and that her interlocutor should not interrupt.
She goes on to say that the second time, the questioner and responder roles will be reversed (this portion of the utterance is not shown).

Uyghur also displays an H% or LH% IP-final tone in contexts where the speaker plans to speak uninterrupted until they are finished, particularly in narratives. Consider Fig. 6.22, which shows the final two sentences of a response to an interview question about the speaker’s experiences as a teacher.
The first utterance is the penultimate utterance in the chain, and ends with an LH% tone, indicating that the speaker is not yet relinquishing her turn. The final utterance bears the declarative HL%, indicating that she has finished speaking.

IP boundaries marked with H% or LH% are also commonly used in multi-clause utterances. For instance, the converbial, clause-chaining suffix -ip often carries an H% or LH% tone in conjunction with a substantial pause. This is exemplified by Fig. 6.23, which consists of a sequence of three clauses in a single utterance, the first two inflected by -ip and the last one fully finite. The first two clauses bear H% tones, reflecting the incomplete status of the utterance, while the final clause does not.
6.6 Discussion

The model proposed in this chapter is intended as a significant, but still somewhat preliminary, step toward a comprehensive model of Uyghur intonational phonology. It proposes that Uyghur intonation is sensitive to three prosodic levels above the word: the accentual phrase, the intermediate phrase, and the intonational phrase. Based on the previous literature, as well as the study presented in Section 6.3, the model also encodes the observation that the Uyghur intonation system is not influenced by stress: that is, increased duration is the only reliable correlate of stressed syllables. This makes Uyghur unique within the set of languages that have been analyzed in the ToBI framework (though cf. Abbas, 2021).

Moving forward, there are various ways in which the model can be expanded upon and improved. One crucial expansion will be the incorporation of specific break indices for annotating boundaries. As we have presented the model here, we have combined edge-marking tones with break indices (that is, annotating a syllable with H- tells us something about the tone as well as the size of the following juncture). Separating break indices from tones will increase the expressive power of the model, and allow more flexibility in cases where there are mismatches between tonal behavior and other properties dependant on juncture strength.

Furthermore, there are many constructions that bear interesting intonational properties and require independent investigation. There seem to be differences that vary with tense/evidentiality, agreement, clitics vs. suffixes, clausal embedding, and different types of mood marking. Even in the context of focus, where we suggest that focused constituents associate with left edges of ips, more research is necessary to determine the properties of non-focused constituents in constructions that contain focus (see, for example, the deaccenting that appears to take place following the focused word in Figs. 6.1, 6.2, and 6.18).

Investigating more naturalistic speech and varying the types of discourse is one important step in this process. The model as presented here offers a framework for investigating such complex data. Despite our model having been created and validated based on a limited set of constructions elicited specifically for this purpose, we are confident that is flexible enough as it currently stands.
to robustly describe the majority of intonational patterns encountered in Uyghur: that is, these outstanding issues will likely focus on predicting the prosodic realization of particular utterance types rather than substantially altering the existing structure of the model.

Take for instance the long naturalistic utterance presented in Fig. 6.24, which is from a broadcast on Radio Free Asia (Hoshur, 2010). Despite the fact that we did not explicitly discuss some of the structures present in this example, such as embedded clauses, there are no tonal patterns present that are incompatible with those discussed in this chapter (though the tone plateau on the final AP merits further attention).

Figure 6.24: Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for a complex, naturalistic utterance from Radio Free Asia: *U so'al jawab arisida, Yutubning n´eme üch¨un taqalghanliqi heqqide ¨ozining xewersiz ikenlikini bild¨urgen*, which means “During the Q&A, he let us know that he does not have any information about why YouTube was shut down.”

One area of the model that requires additional investigation is the difference between the simple (L% and H%) and complex (HL% and LH%) IP boundary tones. The complex tones are generally used in similar circumstances to their simple counterparts: that is L% and HL% mark declarative utterances while H% and LH% mark interrogatives and continuation rises. It is not clear from our elicitations whether there are significant semantic or pragmatic distinctions between these pairs: our speakers generally treat both as acceptable in the same contexts. Subsequent production and perception studies will be valuable for understanding the distribution and function of these IP-final tones.

We have also observed, especially among Uyghur speakers in Kazakhstan, a complex HL% contour at the ends of certain questions, as shown in Fig. 6.25. The general pattern found for
questions involves either a gradual (H%) or sharp (LH%) rise towards the final syllable of the utterances in questions. It is unclear what function the HL% contour is serving in this case.\textsuperscript{12}

![Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for a polar question ending in an HL% contour. This sentence means “Did Mahinur squeeze the strawberry?”](image)

\textbf{Figure 6.25:} Pitch track, spectrogram, and annotation for a polar question ending in an HL% contour. This sentence means “Did Mahinur squeeze the strawberry?”

One final point worth discussing is related to the implications of the present model for future investigation of other other languages. As mentioned in the introduction, Uyghur is one of few languages that has stress that is not implicated in the intonational system. For this reason, we hope that this chapter sets the groundwork that can lead to deeper investigation of other languages with similar patterns.

\section{6.7 Conclusions}

In this chapter, we have presented a preliminary model of the intonational phonology of Uyghur. We have shown that duration is the most reliable indicator of prominence in Uyghur words, in line with Yakup (2013). Furthermore, \( f_0 \) does not associate with prominent syllables, but rather with the edges of phrases. As such, Uyghur appears to be a language with prosodic heads that are ignored by the intonational system. We then motivated the following prosodic constituents in Uyghur: the accentual phrase, intermediate phrase, and intonational phrase. APs contain one

\footnote{An anonymous reviewer notes that HL\% is the default polar question marker in Bengali.}
or more prosodic words and have an underlying tonal melody of LHLHa, though all but the final tone may be elided depending on the size of the AP and other considerations such as speaking rate. AP boundaries also exhibit greater juncture size than AP-internal word boundaries, and prevent the application of certain phonological processes such as vowel hiatus and vowel raising. IPs are distinct from APs in that their boundaries trigger pitch range expansion and have greater juncture size. Finally, IPs are the largest prosodic constituent in our model, which serve higher level functions, such as indicating sentence type (e.g. declarative vs. interrogative) or other discourse information.

We are optimistic that this model will help facilitate further study of Uyghur intonation, particularly as it interfaces with syntax. We have already used a version of this model to explore how intonation can be used to diagnose direct quotation vs. indexical shifted readings of embedded clauses (Major & Mayer, 2019), and we hope that it will be useful for other researchers studying Uyghur prosody and phonology, as well as for theories of intonational typology.

6.8 Acknowledgements and notes

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