

# Consequences of high vowel deletion for syllabification in Japanese

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@NYU

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Yale University



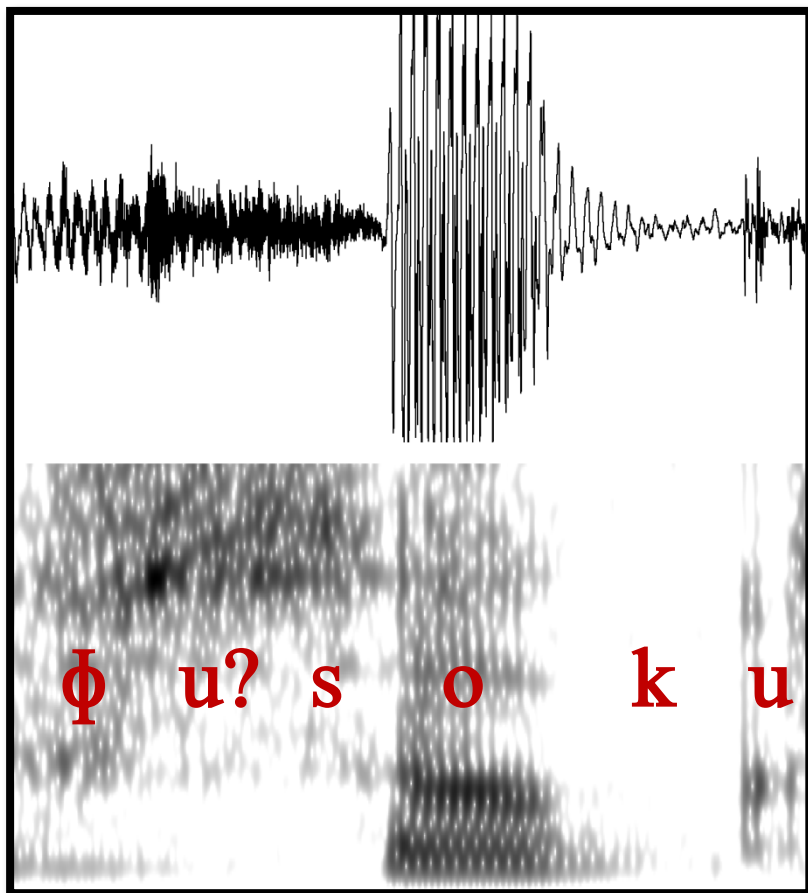
慶應義塾大学 言語文化研究所  
The Keio Institute of Cultural and Linguistic Studies

# Introduction

# Introduction

- Japanese is known to be a language without consonant clusters.
  - Epenthesis breaks up consonant clusters in loans:  
“strike” => [sutoraiku]; Wurmbrand => [urumuburando]
  - “Perceptual epenthesis” in French/Portuguese clusters,  
e.g., *ebzo* (Dupoux et al., 1999; 2011)
- However, Japanese is also known to devoice high vowels, which result in apparent consonant clusters  
(Beckman 1982; Beckman & Shoji 1984; Kawakami 1977; Kondo 1997; Matsui 2017; Whang 2014)

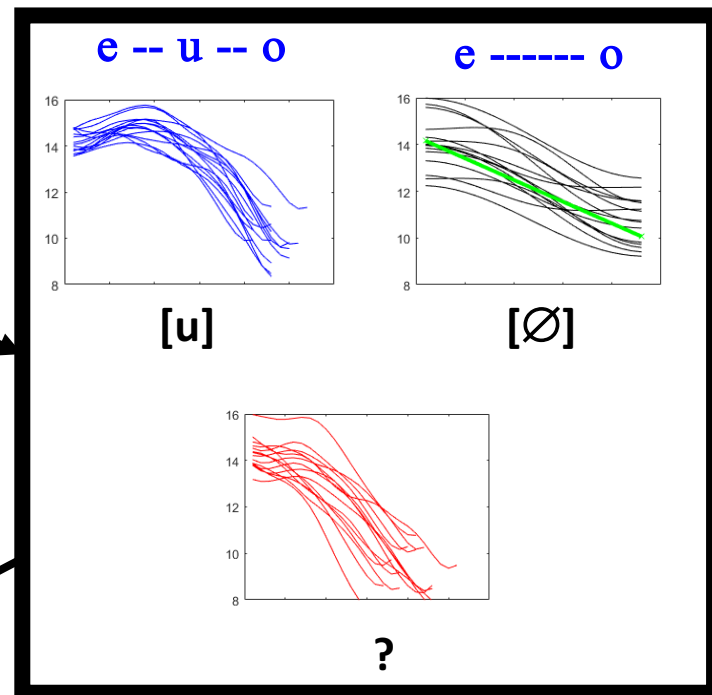
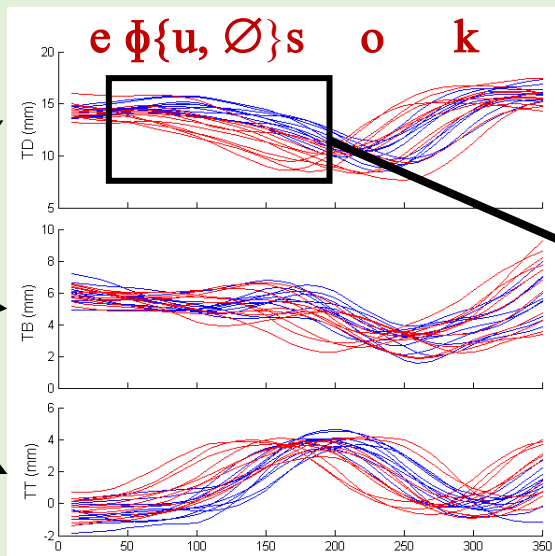
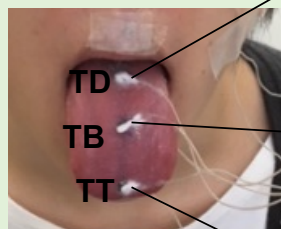
*Acoustically*, there is no vowel.



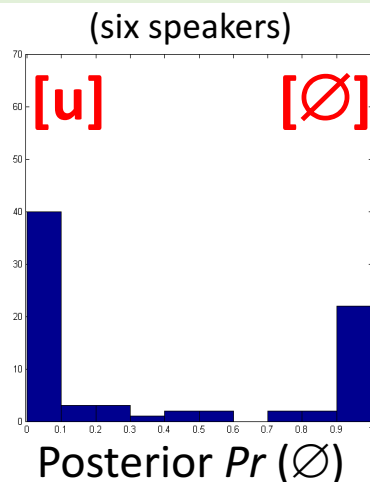
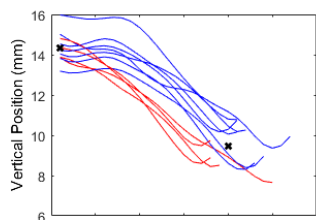
# Articulatorily, there are vowel ~ $\emptyset$ alternations

“oke e  $\emptyset$  u z o k u to itte”

EMA trajectories



Largely categorical results—most tokens either [u] or [∅]



Bayesian classification of devoiced trajectories

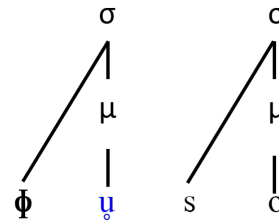
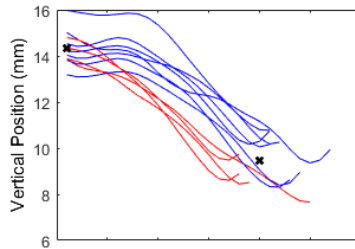
Shaw, J. A., & Kawahara, S. (not yet rejected).  
The lingual articulation of devoiced /u/ in Tokyo Japanese. *Journal of Phonetics*, 62 pgs.

# Main question

- What are the consequences of **high vowel deletion** for **syllabification** in Japanese?
- Two lines of evidence:
  1. Phonological processes sensitive to syllable structure: prosodic truncation, pitch accent placement (e.g., Ito 1990; Kubozono 2011)
  2. Patterns of temporal stability in speech production (e.g., Browman and Goldstein 1988; Shaw et al. 2009)

# Assumptions and hypotheses

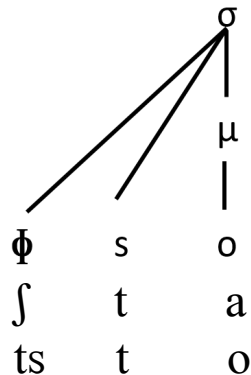
- We assume **full vowel targets** are parsed as  $C_{\text{u}}.CV$



- Two hypotheses for **vowel deletion** cases:

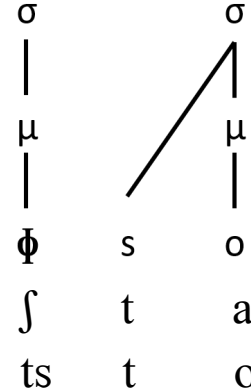
$H_1$  Re-syllabification

(Kondo 1997)



$H_2$  Syllabic consonant

(Matsui 2017)



# Phonological considerations



# Evidence that the mora remains

- For the purposes of bimoraic truncation (Poser 1980 *et seq.*) “devoiced” vowels count (Kawahara 2015; Tsuchida 1997).

E.g. [s<sub>ɸ</sub>u<sub>ɸ</sub>to] < [s<sub>ɸ</sub>u<sub>ɸ</sub>toɾaiki] (loanword truncation)

E.g. [tɕi<sub>ɸ</sub>ka(-tɕa<sub>ɸ</sub>N)] < [tɕi<sub>ɸ</sub>ka<sub>ɸ</sub>ko] (hypocoristic)

E.g. [ɸu<sub>ɸ</sub>ka-ɸu<sub>ɸ</sub>ka] (mimetics)

- Devoiced vowels also count in *haiku* (Hirayama 2009)

# Syllable remains too: truncation

Bimoraic truncation patterns (Ito 1990; Kawahara 2016)

- a. [de.mon.su.to.ree.ʃON] → [de.mo] ‘demonstration’
- b. [ri.haa.sa.ru] → [ri.ha] ‘rehearsal’
- c. [ro.kee.ʃON] → [ro.ke] ‘location’

Monosyllabic outputs are not allowed: a light syllable is appended

- a. [dai.ja.mon.do] → [dai.ja], \*[dai] ‘diamond’  
(Ito and Mester 1992)
- b. [paa.ma.nen.to] → [paa.ma], \*[paa] ‘permanent (hair style)’
- c. [kom.bi.nee.ʃON] → [kom.bi], \*[kON] ‘combination’
- d. [ʃim.po.ɕi.u.mu] → [ʃim.po], \*[ʃiN] ‘Symposium’

Devoiced vowels count

- a. [mai.ku.ro.ɸO.ON.] → [mai.ku], \*[mai] ‘microphone’
- b. [am.pu.ri.ɸai.aa] → [am.pu], \*[aN] ‘amplifier’

PrWd must branch

(Ito and Mester 1992)

a devoiced vowel  
projects a syllable

# Syllable remains too: Accent

- Japanese default accent pattern is Latin Stress Rule  
(Kubozono 2011).
  - Place accent on the penultimate syllable if it is heavy:  
[fu-re'n-do] “friend”.
  - Otherwise place accent on the antepenultimate syllable:  
[re'-ba-non] “Lebanon”.
- Devoiced syllables do not disrupt the Latin Stress Rule:  
[bu.ra'n.ku] “blank” cf. [fu-re'n-do]  
[pu.ro'.se.su] “process” cf. [re'-ba-non]

# Phonological evidence favors H<sub>2</sub>

- Both moras and syllables remain for devoiced high vowels; **evidence favors H<sub>2</sub>**

H<sub>1</sub> Re-syllabification  
(Kondo 1997)

H<sub>2</sub> Syllabic consonant  
(Matsui 2017)

*Higher level moraic and  
syllabic structure appear  
unperturbed by vowel  
devoicing/deletion*

# Temporal stability analysis

# Temporal stability analysis

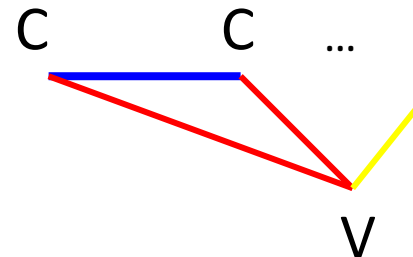
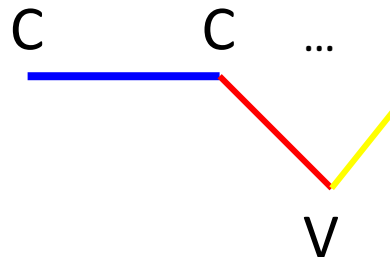
- Cross-linguistic work on the **articulatory timing of consonant clusters** has shown that timing differences sometimes correlate with **syllable structure**.
- These differences are reflected in patterns of temporal stability across CVX and CCVX sequences  
(Browman and Goldstein 2007; Hermes et al. 2013, 2017; Marin and Pouplier 2010; Marin 2012; ; Shaw et al. 2009; Shaw and Gafos 2015).

# Patterns of temporal alignment

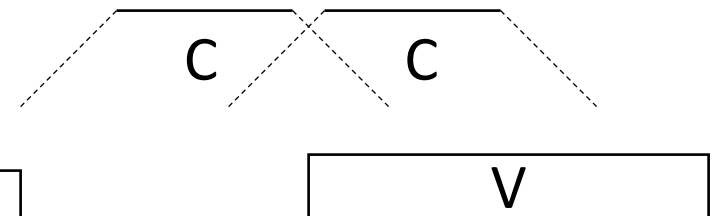
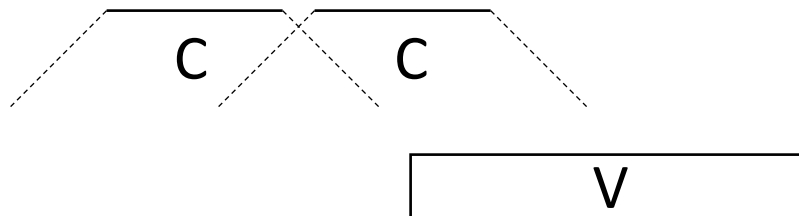
Syllable Parse	Heterosyllabic parse (simplex syllable onsets)	Tautosyllabic parse (complex syllable onsets)
	[C.CV]	[CCV]

On the hypothesis that the syllable nucleus is coordinated with the syllable onset...  
(Browman and Goldstein, 2000)

Coordination  
Topology



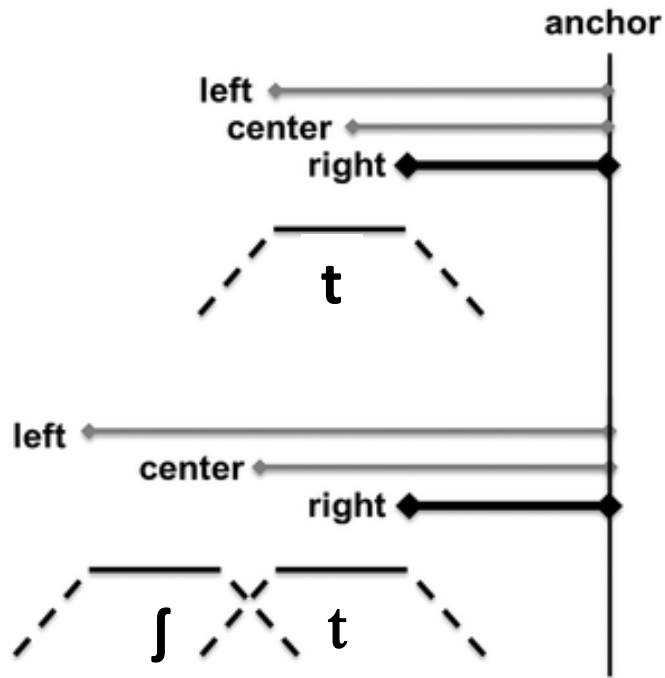
Surface  
Pattern



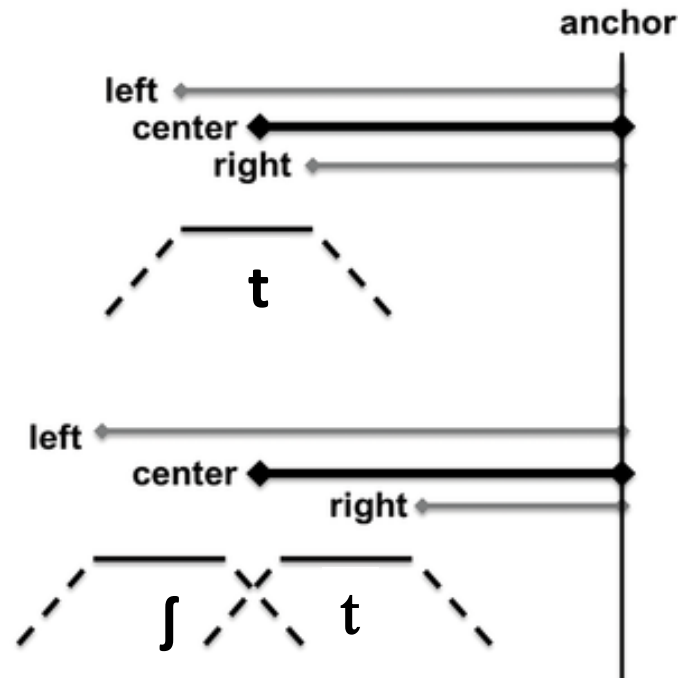
# Temporal stability metrics

Following: Browman CP, Goldstein L (1988) Some Notes on Syllable Structure in Articulatory Phonology. *Phonetica* 45: 140–155. PMID: 3255974

## [C.CV]



## [CCV]



### Relative Standard Deviation (RSD)

left	center	right
.12	.07	<b>.04</b>

### Relative Standard Deviation (RSD)

left	center	right
.05	<b>.02</b>	.07



# Experimental stimuli

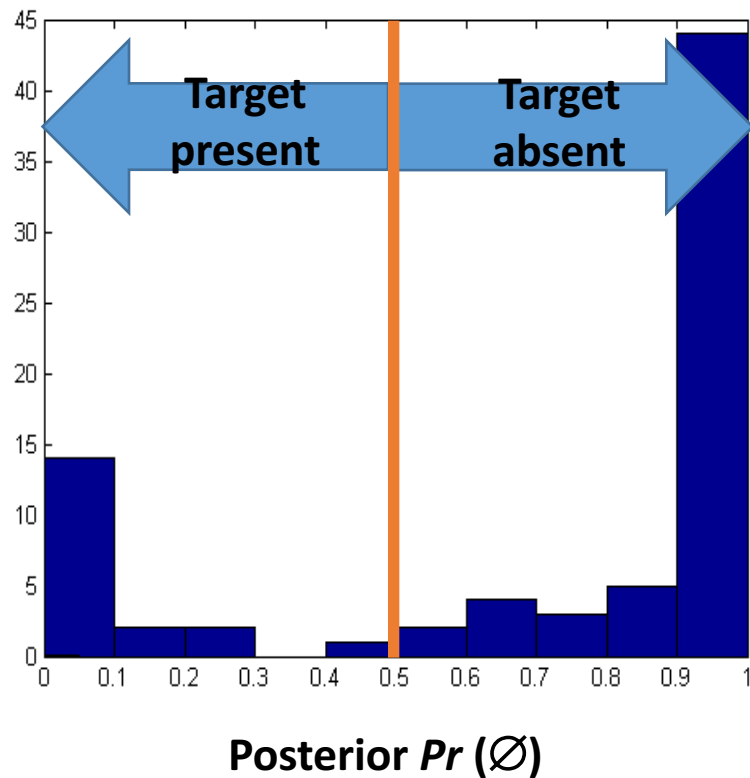
Voiced V	Deleted V	Control
[mas <u>u</u> da]	[mast <u>a</u> :]	[bat <u>a</u> :]
[yak <u>u</u> zai]	[hak <u>s</u> ai]	[das <u>a</u> i]
[ʃud <u>a</u> ika]	[ʃt <u>a</u> ise:]	[t <u>a</u> ise:]
[ϕ <u>u</u> zoku]	[ϕs <u>o</u> ku]	[kas <u>o</u> ku]
[kats <u>u</u> do:]	[katst <u>o</u> ki]	[mirut <u>o</u> ki]

**Procedure:** six native speakers of Tokyo Japanese (3 male) read items in a carrier phrase “okee\_\_\_to itte”; items were randomized in a block; 10-15 blocks were recorded

# Analysis

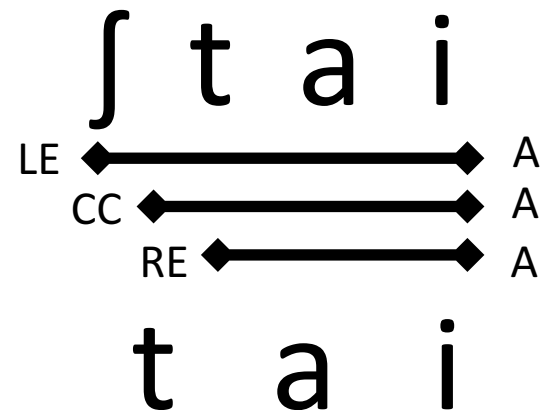
## (1) Classify trajectories as [u] or $\emptyset$

Bayesian decision rule applied to posterior probabilities

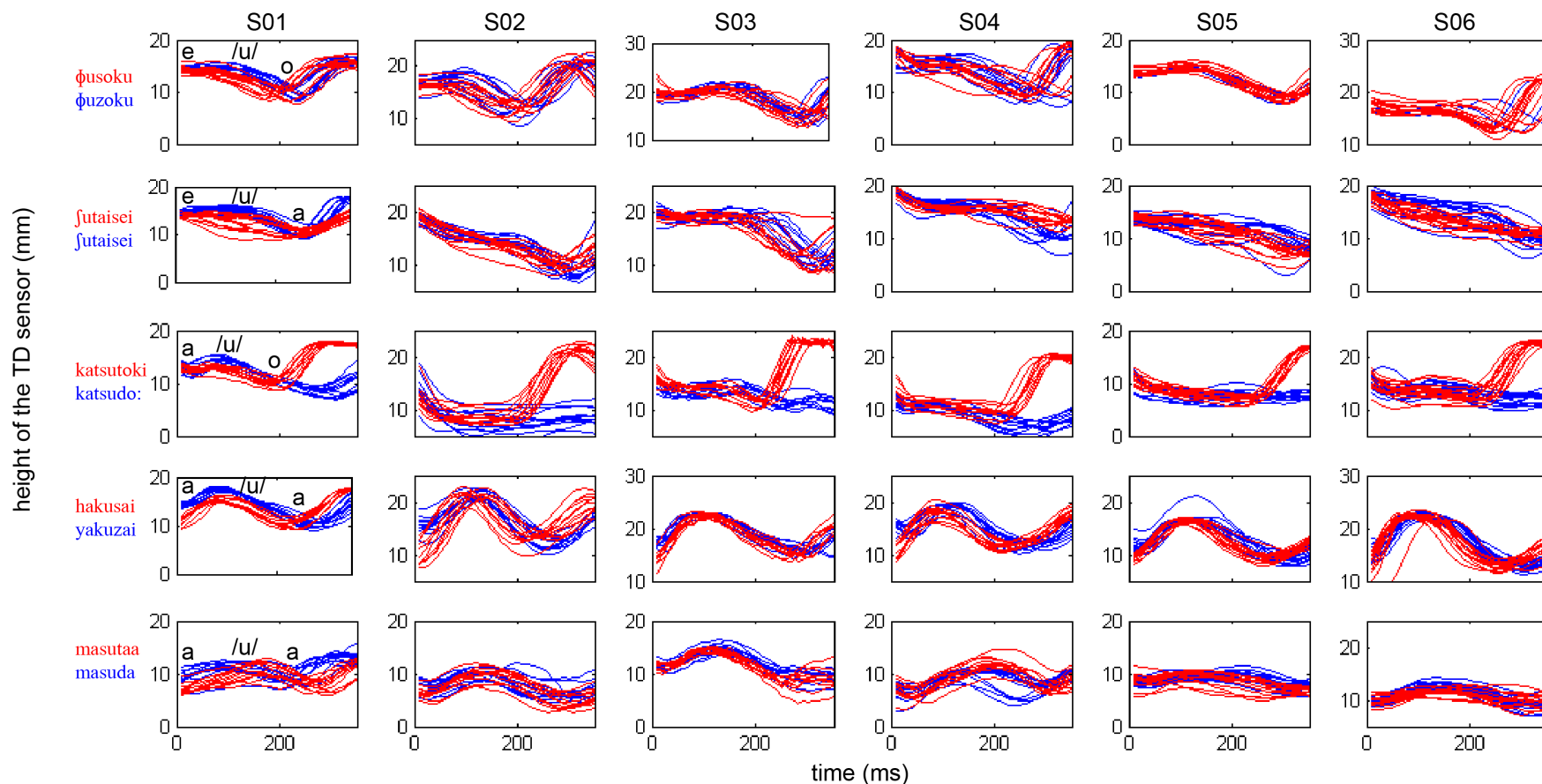


## (2) Stability analysis of $\emptyset$ tokens

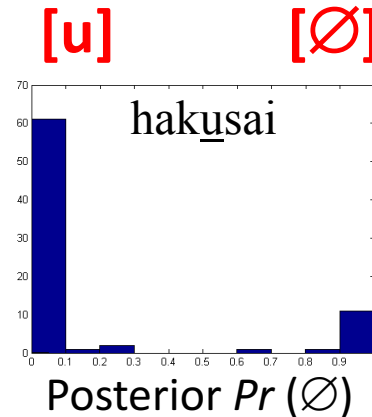
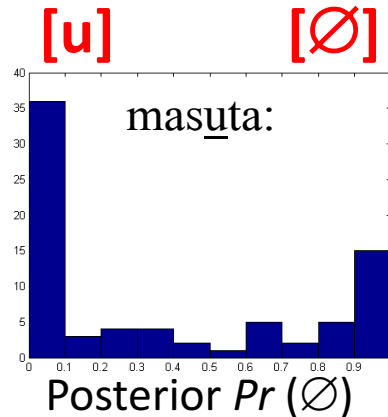
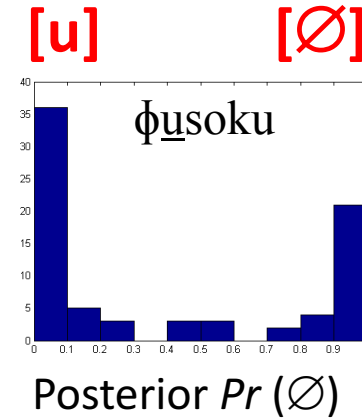
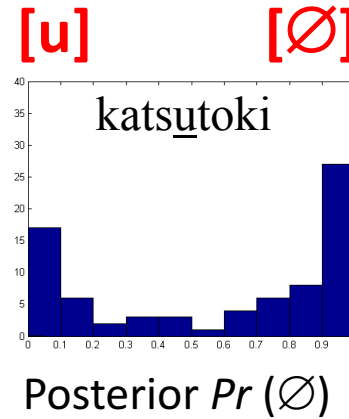
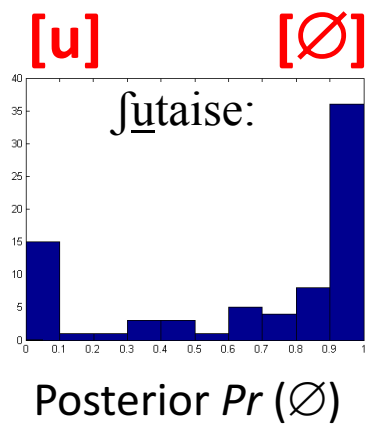
Target absent tokens (n = 138)  
were compared to singleton  
controls (n = 138)



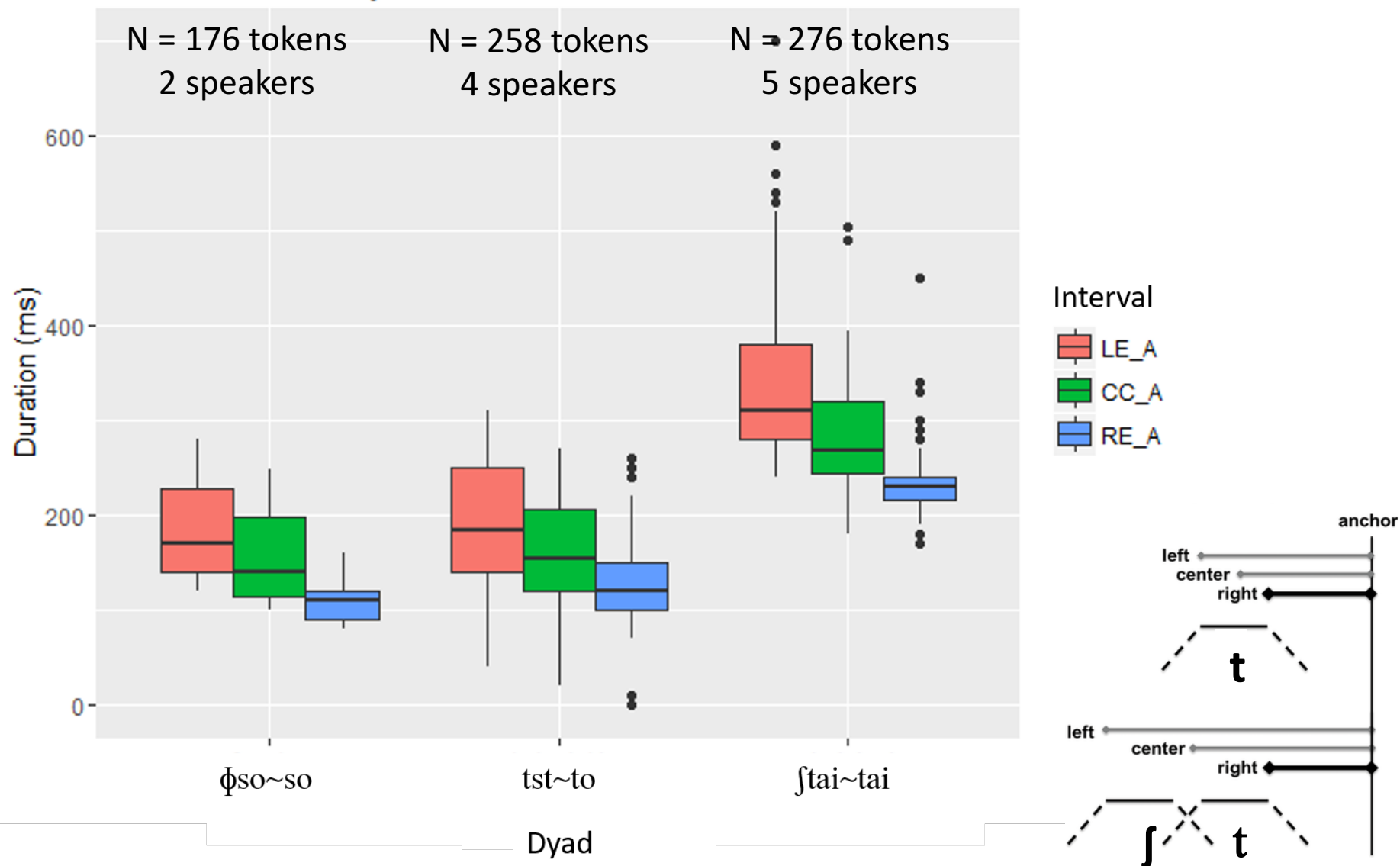
# Raw data: TD trajectories by subject and item



# Classification results



# Syllable-referential intervals



# Stability analysis

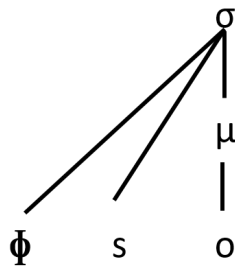
target dyad	Relative Standard Deviation (RSD)		
	LE_A	CC_A	RE_A
[ $\phi$ so]~[so]	0.32	0.34	<b>0.24</b>
[tsto]~[to]	0.25	0.23	<b>0.20</b>
[ʃtai]~[tai]	0.23	0.28	<b>0.11</b>

The right-edge to anchor (RE\_A) Interval is the most stable, an indication of simplex onsets

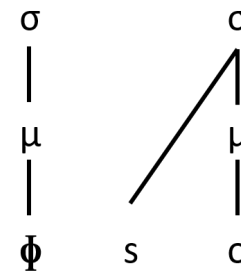
# Phonetic evidence favors $H_2$

- The right edge to anchor interval is more stable than the center-to-anchor interval (no c-center effect) and the left edge-to-anchor interval.

$H_1$  Re-syllabification  
(Kondo 1997)



$H_2$  Syllabic consonant  
(Matsui 2017)



# Discussion



# Summary

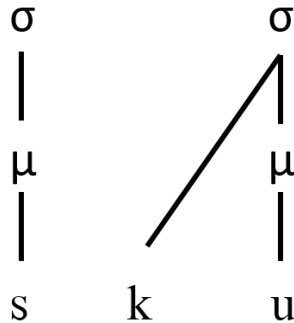
- Japanese /u/ **optionally deletes** in devoicing environments, yielding consonant clusters.
- This fact has not been known until now because devoicing obscures the acoustic consequences of the lingual gesture and articulatory data haven't been available (*modulo* Funatsu & Fujimoto 2011)
- The evidence reviewed (some phonological, some phonetic) is consistent with a **heterosyllabic parse of clusters** resulting from /u/ deletion.

# Caveats

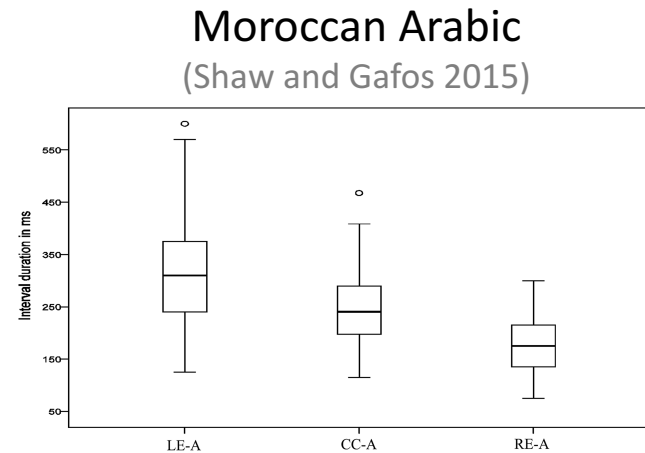
- /u/ deletion is variable but corresponding variability in relevant bimoraic truncation has not been reported...
  - we don't know whether, e.g., there is always a lingual gesture in [s<sub>u</sub>to] < [s<sub>u</sub>toraki]
  - Deletion may be blocked by prosodic requirements
- The status of devoiced vowels between consonants may be different from those in word-final position  
(Kilbourn-Ceron and Sondreggor 2017)

# Moroccan Arabic and Tashlhiyt Berber

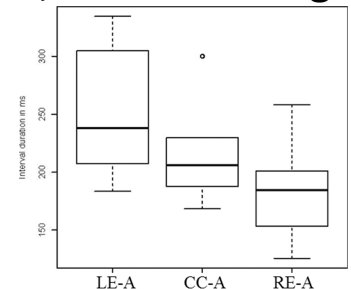
- To the extent that the syllabic consonant analysis of Japanese is supported, it resembles synchronic analyses of Moroccan Arabic (and Tashlhiyt Berber).
- MA is particularly relevant as word-initial clusters arose from the loss of a short vowel (e.g., Benhallam 1980)



Evidence from phonotactic patterns, vowel-glide alternations, and prosodic templates in oral verse (Dell and Elmedlaoui 2002)



c.f., American English



Also Berber vs. Polish: Hermes, A., Mücke, D., & Auris, B. (2017). The variability of syllable patterns in Tashlhiyt Berber and Polish. *Journal of Phonetics*.

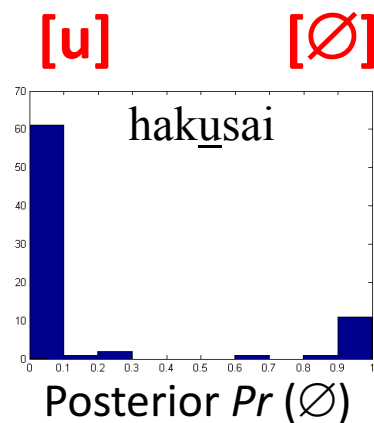
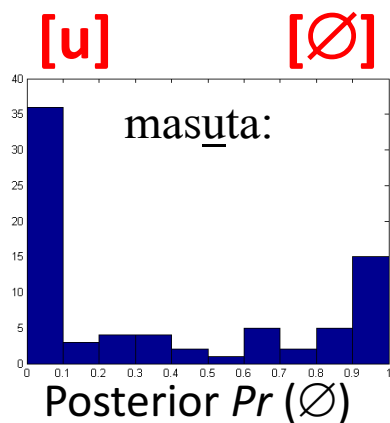
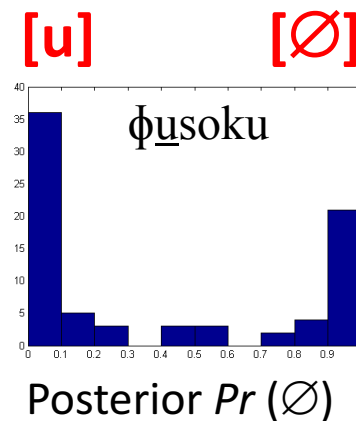
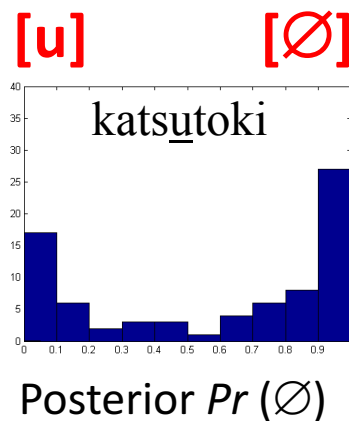
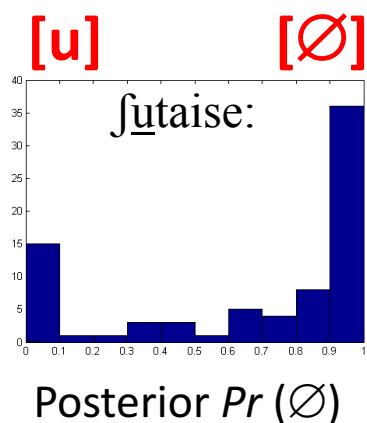
# Broader issues and future work

- Factors conditioning optional deletion
  - frequency of /u/ deletion varies across items:  $\text{ft} > \text{tst} > \text{ϕs} > \text{st} > \text{ks}$
  - **How is this learned?** Auditory cues required to learn probabilities from the input are unavailable.
  - Grammatical factors (**Emergence of the unmarked**)
  - Phonetic factors: /u/ may be squeezed out by the shared laryngeal gesture & laryngeal-oral timing requirements of flanking consonants (“articulatory binding” Kingston 1990).
- Our data present a case (like compensatory lengthening) in which **prosodic and temporal stability** are maintained despite **segmental variability** (deletion).
  - Independent representations of timing and articulation, which may have a neural basis (Long et al., 2016)
  - C.f., evidence for close interaction between prosodic rhythm and segmental articulation (Tilsen 2009).

# Acknowledgements

- Research supported by the **JSPS** grants (#26770147 and #26284059, and especially #15F15715).
- Thanks to Jeff Moore and Chika Takahashi for their help with the EMA data acquisition and analysis.

# Questions?



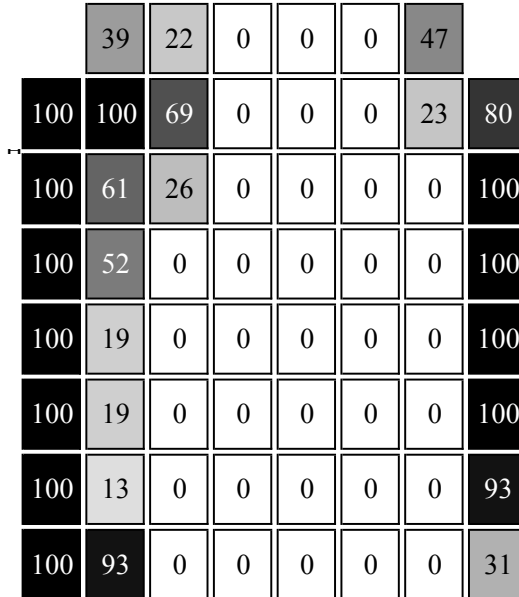
# Experimental stimuli: accent

Voiced V	Deleted V	Control
[ʃ <u>u</u> da'ika]	[ʃ <u>ta</u> ise:]	[ <u>ta</u> ise:]
[ϕ <u>u</u> zoku]	[ϕ <u>soku</u> ]	[ka <u>soku</u> ]
[ka <u>tsu</u> do:]	[ka't <u>stoki</u> ]	[mi'ru <u>toki</u> ]
[ma <u>s</u> u <u>da</u> ]	[ma' <u>sta</u> :]	[ba' <u>ta</u> :]
[ya <u>ku</u> 'zai]	[ha <u>k</u> ' <u>sai</u> ]	[da <u>sa</u> 'i]

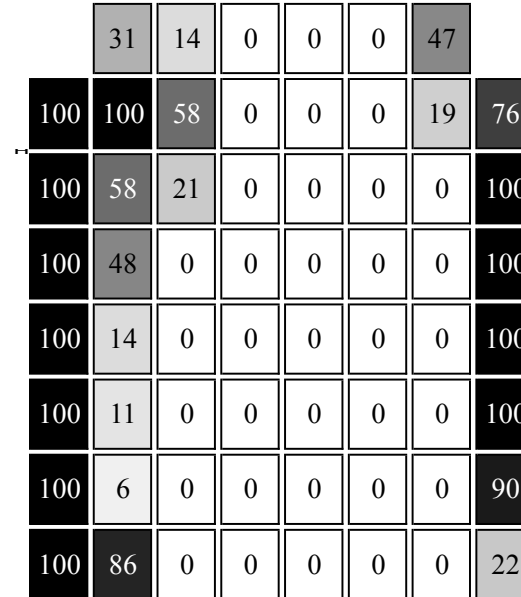
# Matsui's (2017) observation

Groove for [s] extends throughout the syllable.

EPG data from Matsui (2017), Journal of the Phonetic Society of Japan.



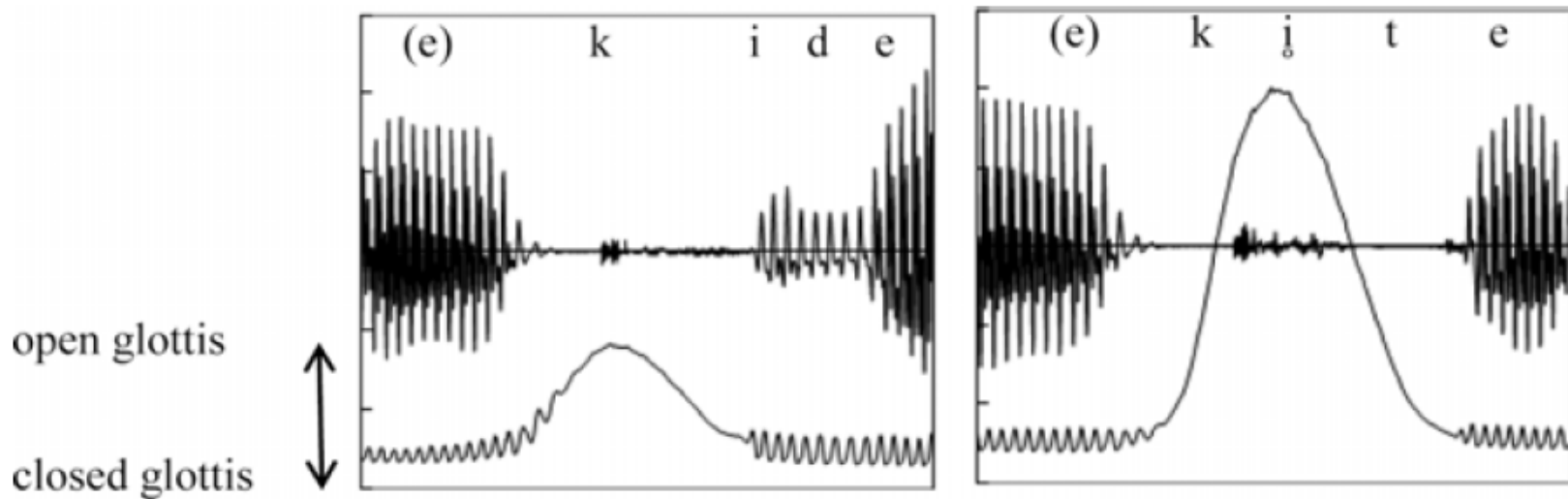
/s/



/u/

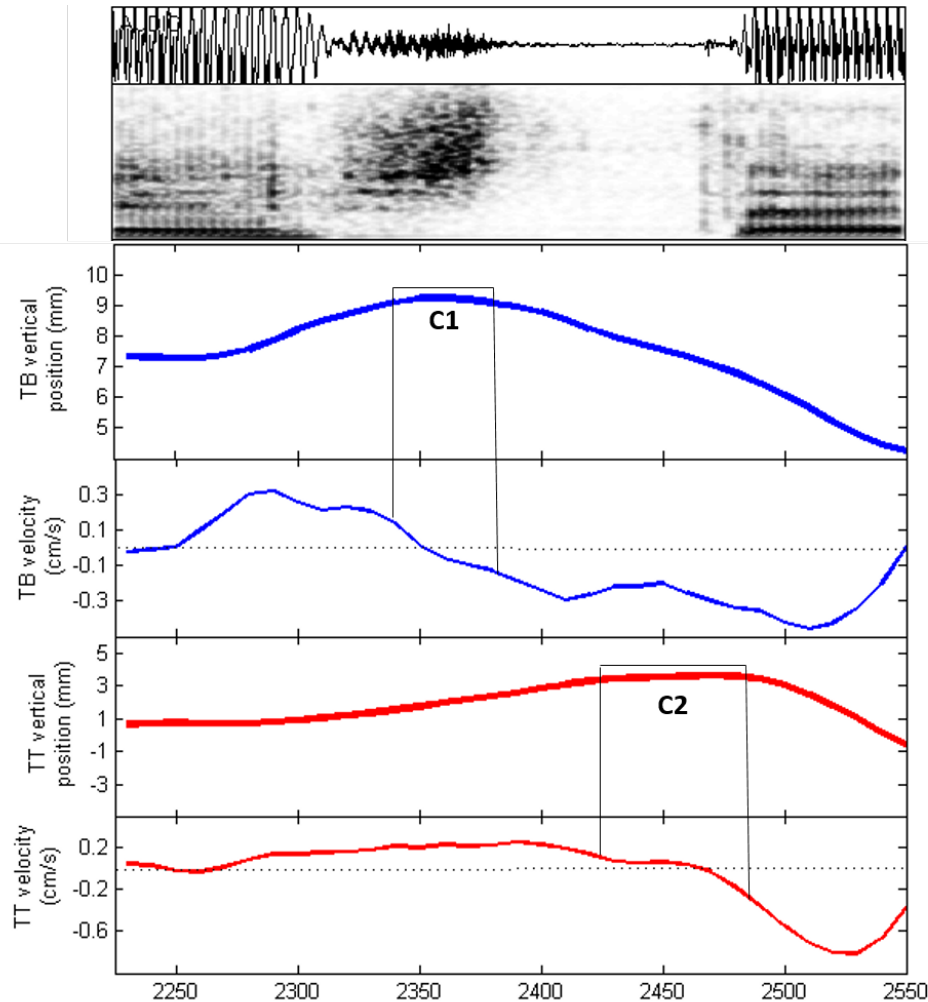


# Shared laryngeal gesture

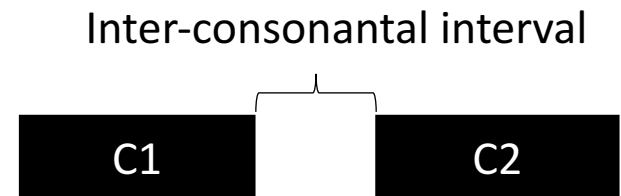


**Figure 1: The degrees of glottal abduction in Japanese. The left panel: a voiceless stop followed by a voiced stop, which has a single abduction gesture for /k/. The right panel: a voiceless stop /k/ followed by a voiceless vowel and another voiceless stop /t/, which also has a single abduction gesture. The magnitude of the abduction gesture in the right panel is larger than twice the size of the abduction gesture in the left panel. Taken from Fujimoto et al. (2002), cited and discussed in Fujimoto (2015).**

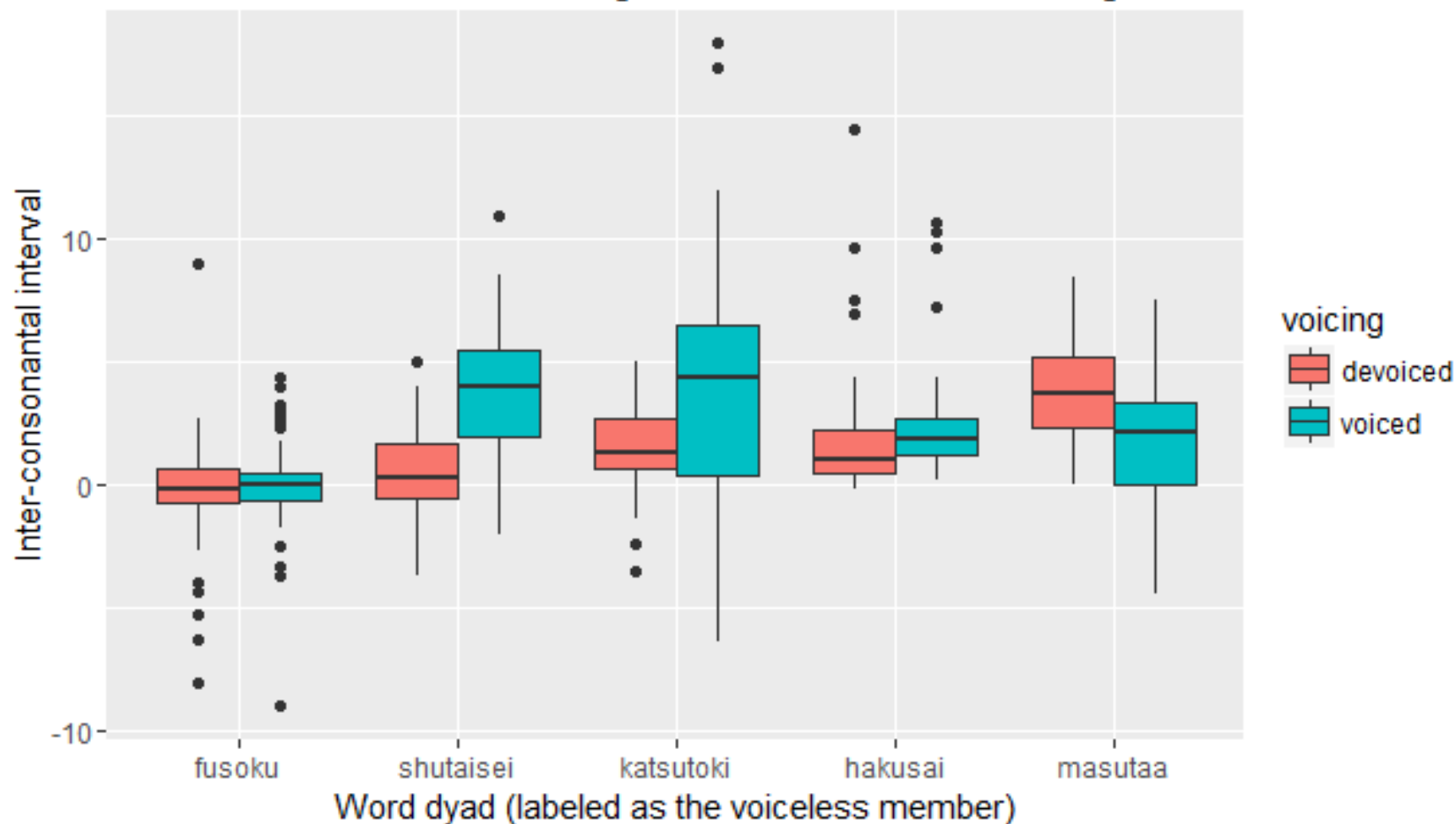
# Parsing gestures for stability analysis



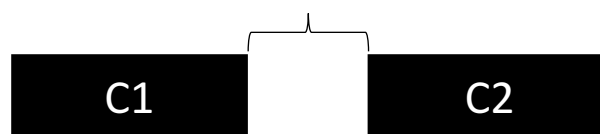
Inter-consonantal Interval (ICI) extends from release of C1 to the target of C2



## Effect of vowel voicing on interconsonantal timing

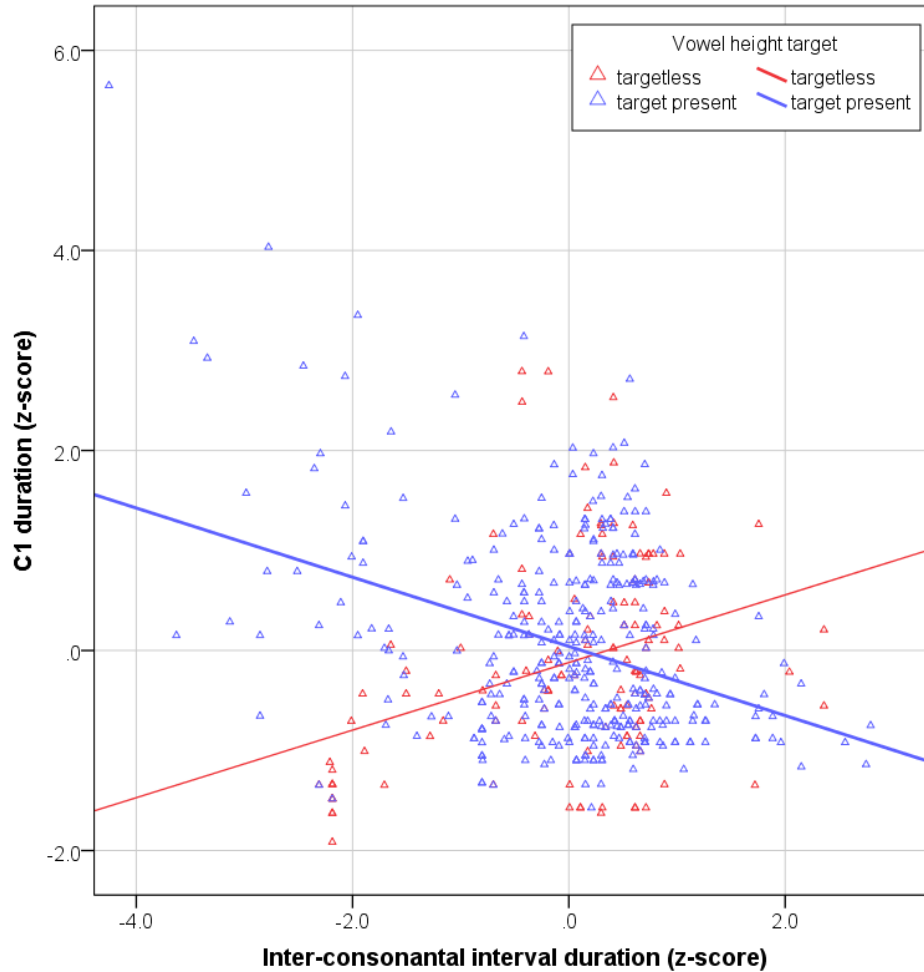


Inter-consonantal interval (ICI)

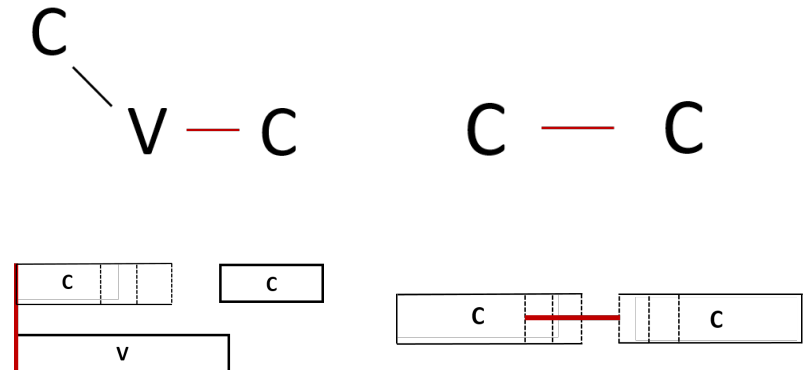


NB: /u/ deletion did not have a significant effect on ICI

# C-V vs. C-C timing



*As C1 decreases, ICI increases, but only for tokens that contain a vowel target.*



# Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)

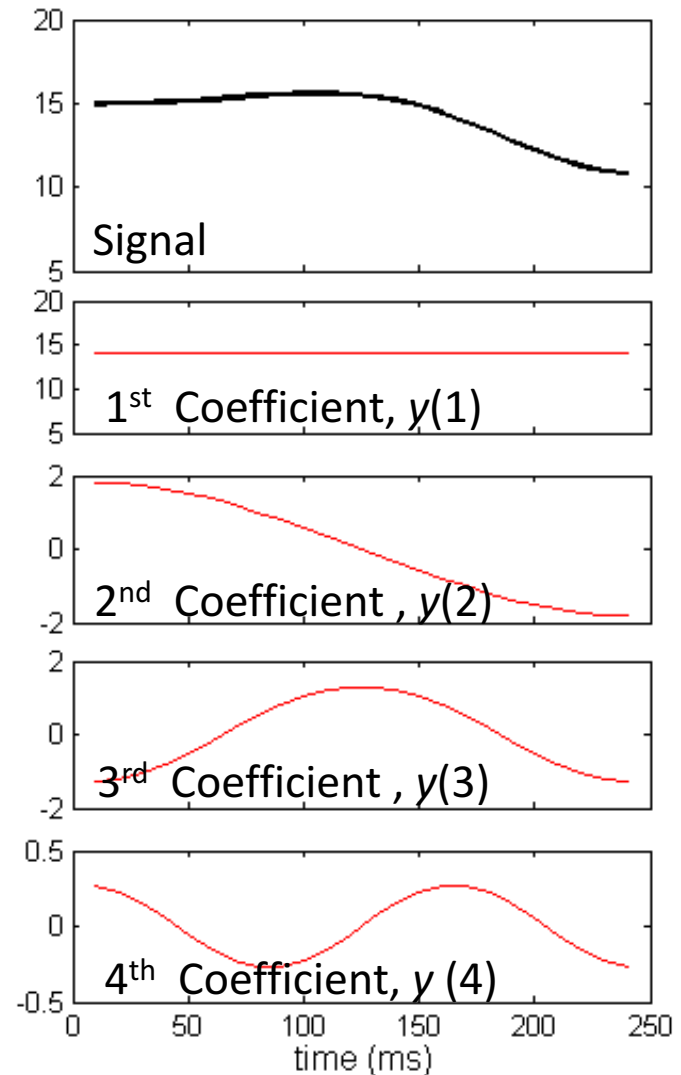
**Complex curve represented as the sum of Cosines:**

$$y(k) = w(k) \sum_{n=1}^L x(n) \cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n-1)(k-1)}{2L}\right)$$

$$k = 1, 2, \dots, L$$

Where  $L$  is the number of data samples and  $\mathbf{x(n)}$  is the trajectory to be modelled and:

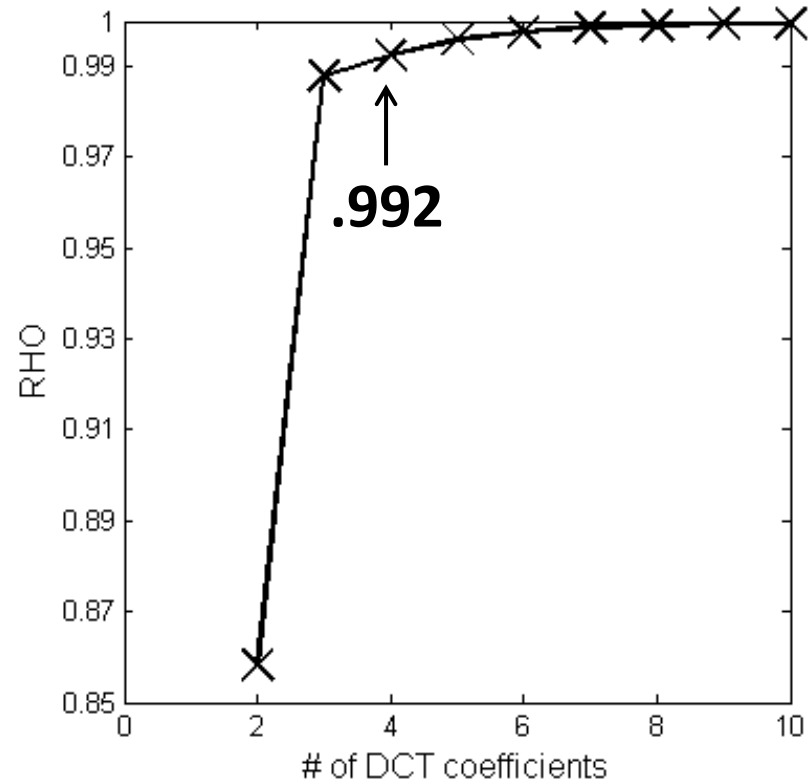
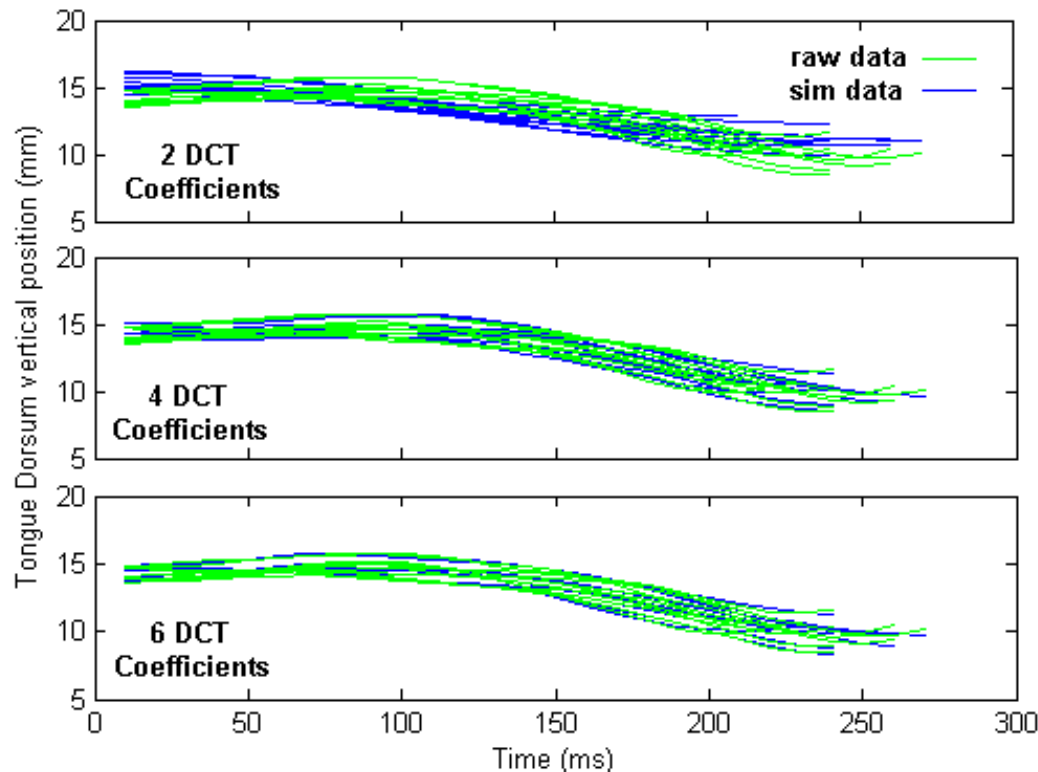
$$w(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} & k = 1 \\ \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} & 2 \leq k \leq L \end{cases}$$



Rao, K. R., & Yip, P. (2014). *Discrete cosine transform: algorithms, advantages, applications*. Academic press.

# How many DCT coefficients?

- Real space signals can be represented to an arbitrary degree of precision;
- Nearly lossless compression ( $r = .992$ ) with 4 coefficients.



# Interpretation of cosine components

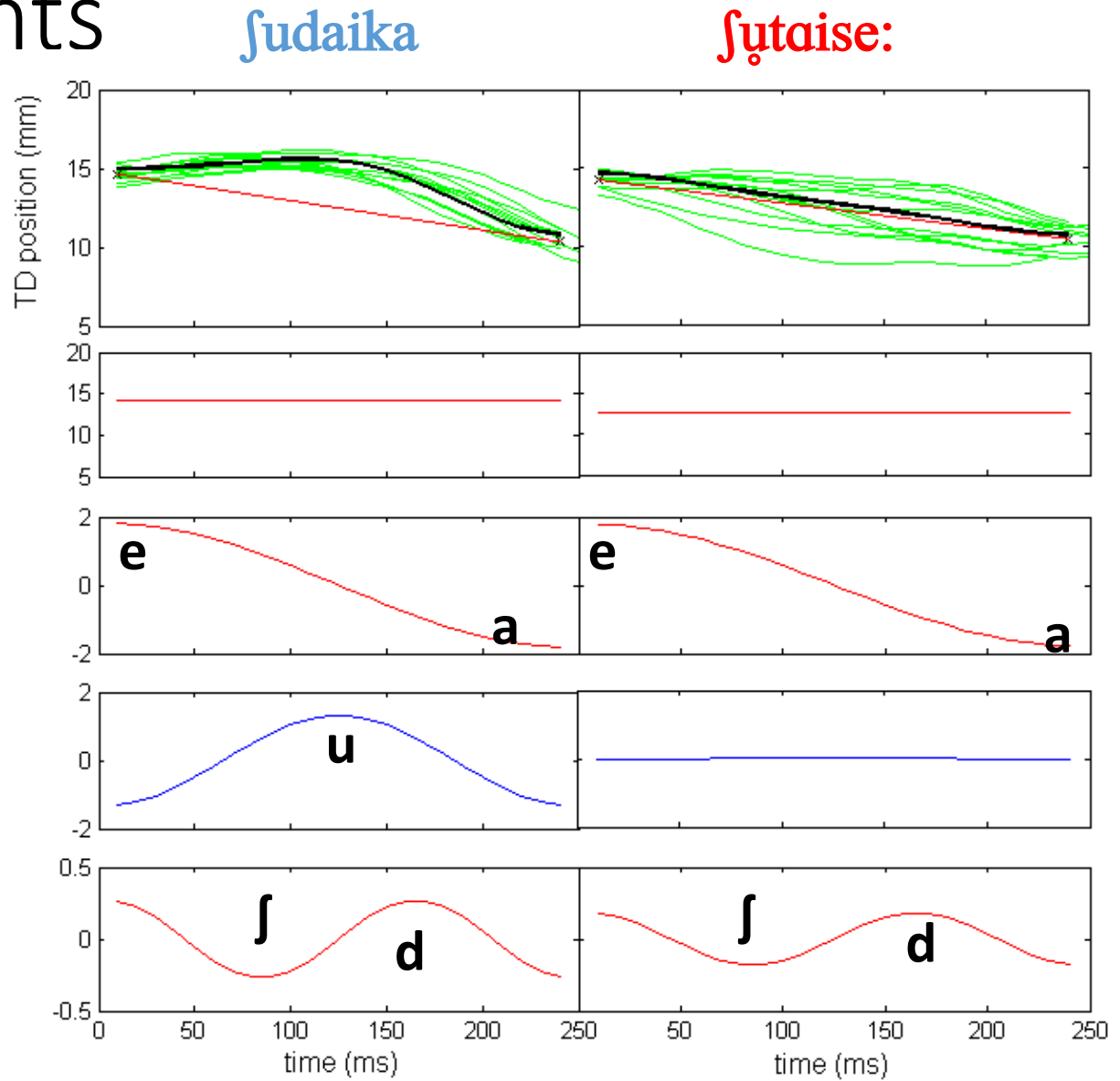
Raw data (**green**)  
 Mean DCT (**black**)  
 [e]-to-[a] line (**red**)

1<sup>st</sup> DCT Coefficient  
 → **TD height**

2<sup>nd</sup> DCT Coefficient  
 → **V-to-V trajectory**

3<sup>rd</sup> DCT Coefficient  
 → **Intervening vowel**

4<sup>th</sup> DCT Coefficient  
 → **Coarticulation**

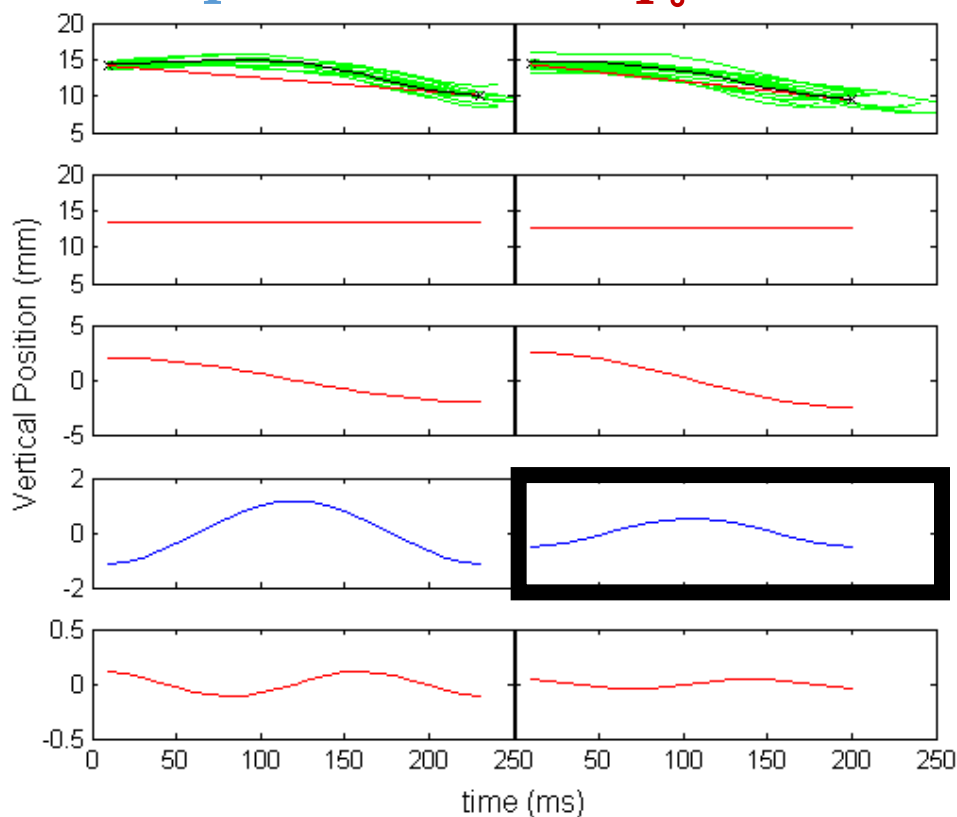


# Reduced or targetless: the view from DCT components

## Phonetic reduction?

φuzoku

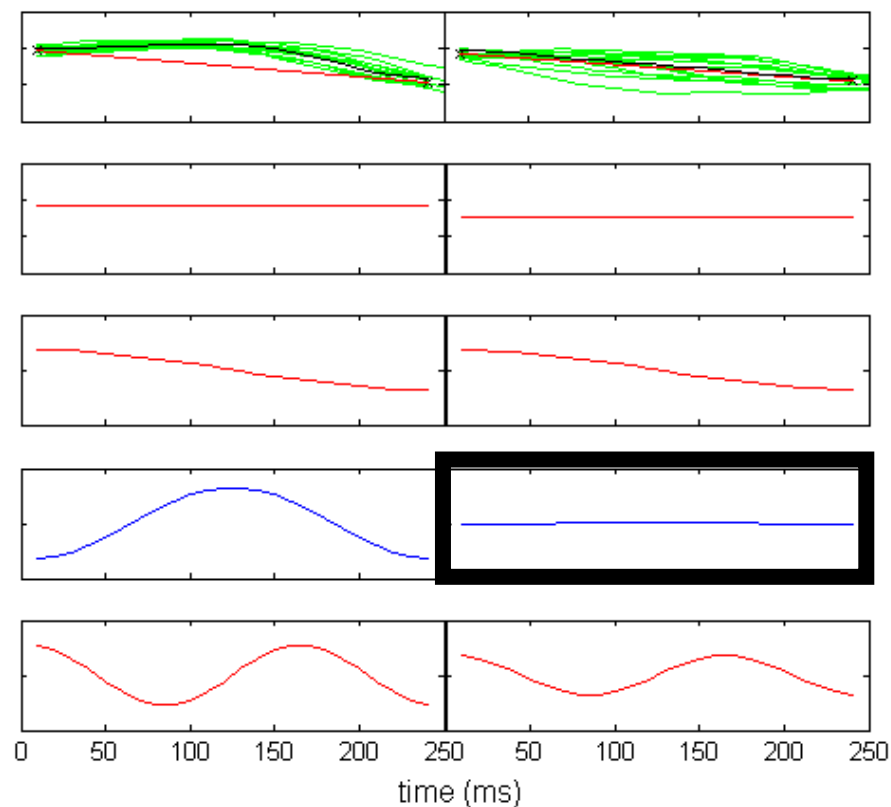
φusoku



## Targetless?

ʃudaika

ʃutaise:

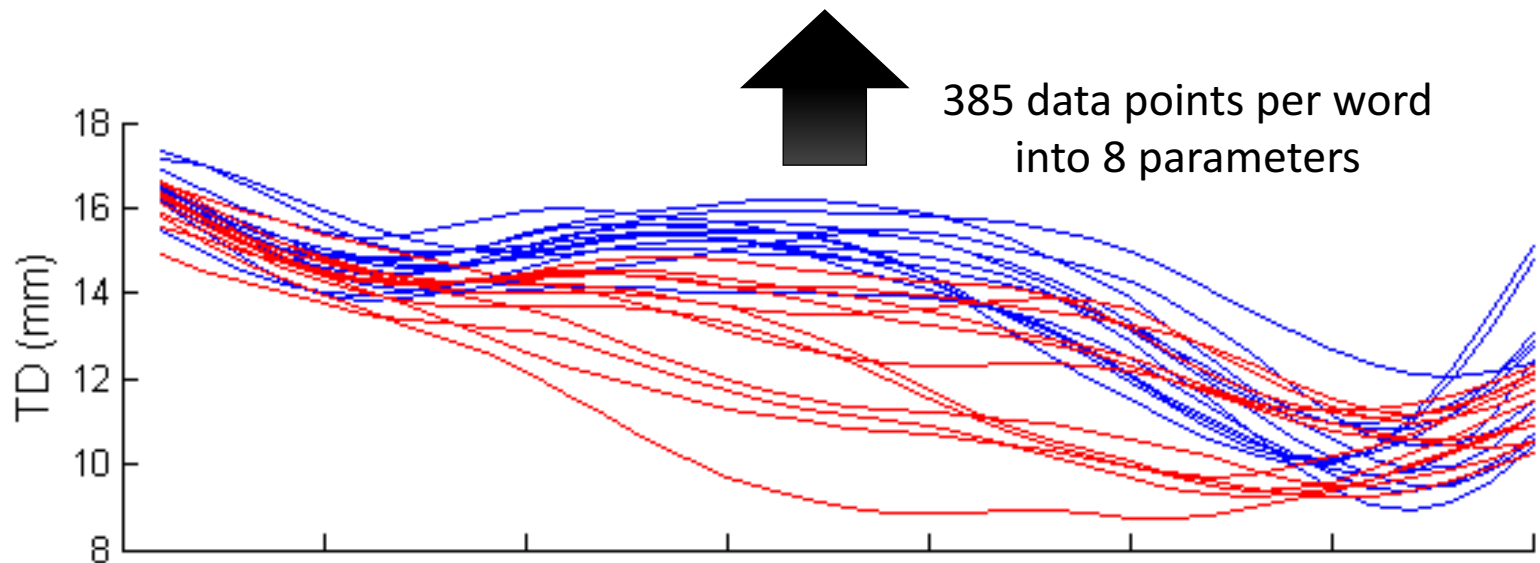




# Compact representations of tongue height trajectory over VCVCV

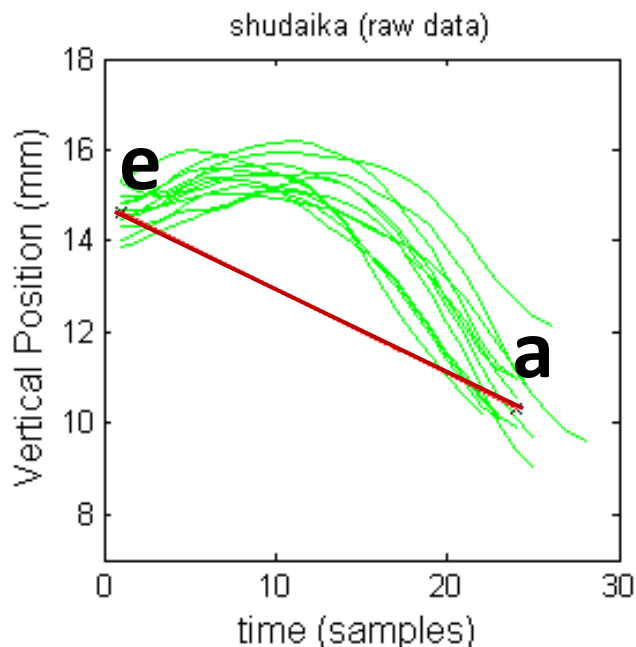
S03	Mean and standard deviation of DCT Coefficients			
	1 <sup>st</sup> Coeff	2 <sup>nd</sup> Coeff	3 <sup>rd</sup> Coeff	4 <sup>th</sup> Coeff
ʃudaika	69.47(3.01)	6.31 (1.59)	-4.54(0.74)	0.94(0.48)
ʃutaise:	62.18 (6.34)	6.17 (1.83)	-0.04 ( 2.27)	0.63 (0.95)

( $[F(1,23)=23.30, p < .0001^{***}; \text{Wilk's } \Lambda = 0.3209]$ )



# Defining the (noisy) targetless hypothesis in frequency space

	1 <sup>st</sup> Coeff	2 <sup>nd</sup> Coeff	3 <sup>rd</sup> Coeff	4 <sup>th</sup> Coeff
<b>judaika</b>	<b>69.47(3.01)</b>	<b>6.31 (1.59)</b>	<b>-4.54(0.74)</b>	<b>0.94(0.48)</b>
<b>targetless</b>	<b>60.49 (3.01)</b>	<b>5.49(1.59)</b>	<b>0.00 (0.74)</b>	<b>0.61 (0.48)</b>



Fit a line between vowel targets  $V_1(e)$  to  $V_3(a)$

Transform the line into the same DCT space as data

Define targetless distribution using variance from the data

# Inverse Discrete Cosine Transform (iDCT)

**Simulate targetless trajectory from DCT coefficients:**

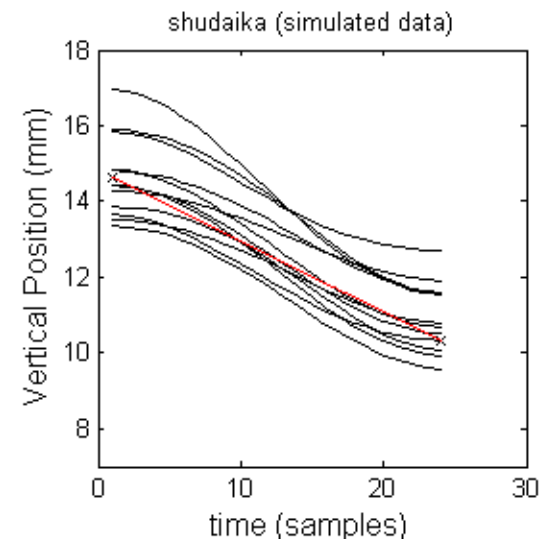
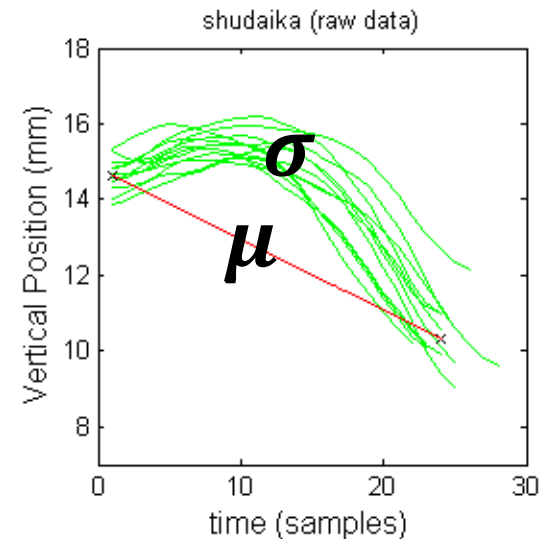
$$y(k) \sim N(\mu(k), \sigma(k))$$

$$x(n) = \sum_{k=1}^L w(k) y(k) \cos\left(\frac{\pi(2n-1)(k-1)}{2L}\right)$$

$$n = 1, 2, \dots, L$$

Where  $L$  is the number of data samples and  $x(n)$  the trajectory to be simulated and:

$$w(k) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} & k = 1 \\ \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} & 2 \leq k \leq L \end{cases}$$



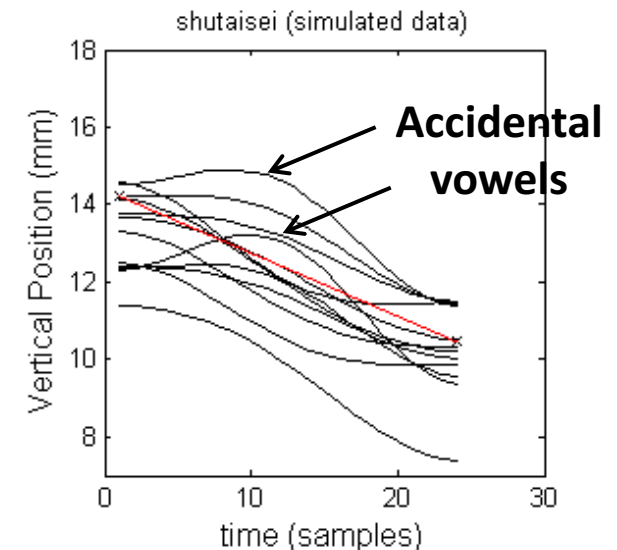
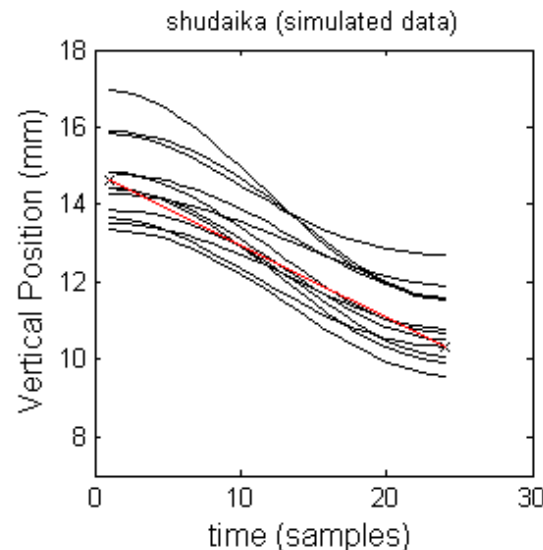
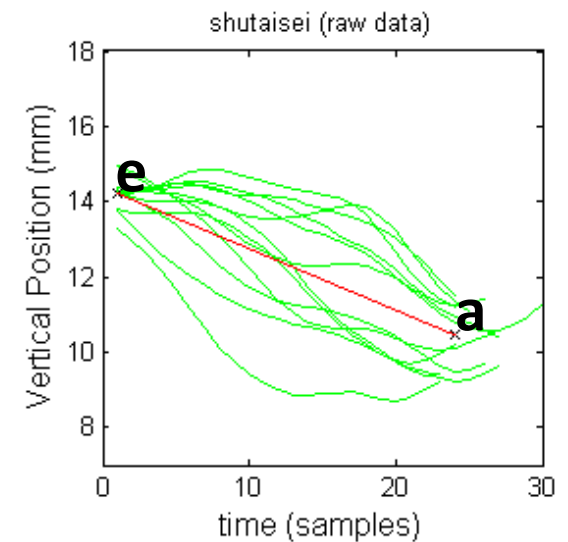
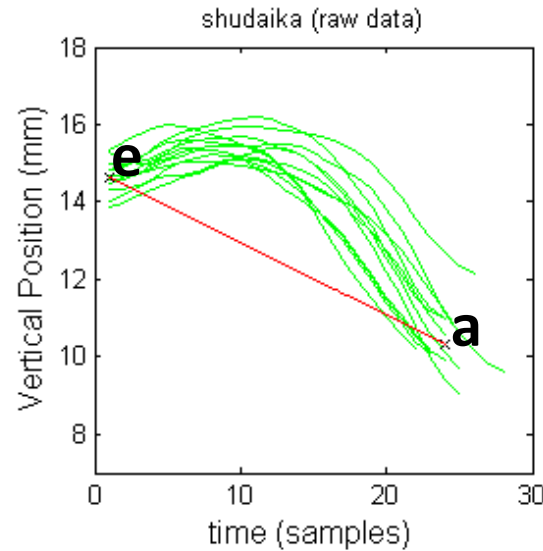
# Targetless simulations

raw data (green lines)  
direct e-to-a trajectory  
(red line)

Targetlessness  
evaluated against the  
backdrop of realistic  
variability.

**Simulated “targetless”  
trajectories (black lines)**

When simulated with  
natural quantities of  
variability, the targetless  
trajectory can sometimes  
look like a vowel.



# Token-by-token evaluation

Fit a naïve Bayes classifier to the data and used it to generate (posterior) **targetlessness probabilities**

$$p(T|c_1, \dots, c_d) = \frac{p(T) p(c_1, \dots, c_d|T)}{p(c_1, \dots, c_d)}$$

Training data =  
**voiced tokens &  
noisy null**

Test data = **voiceless  
tokens**

where...

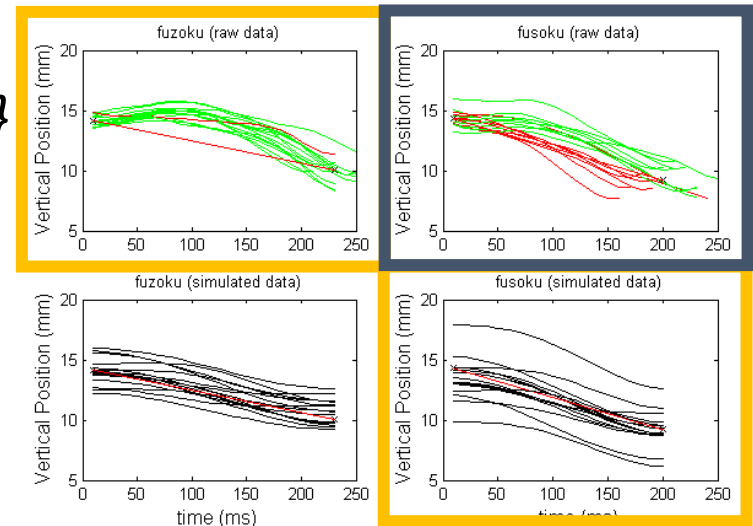
$T = \{\text{target present, targetless}\}$

$c_1 = 1^{\text{st}}$  DCT Coefficient

$c_2 = 2^{\text{nd}}$  DCT Coefficient

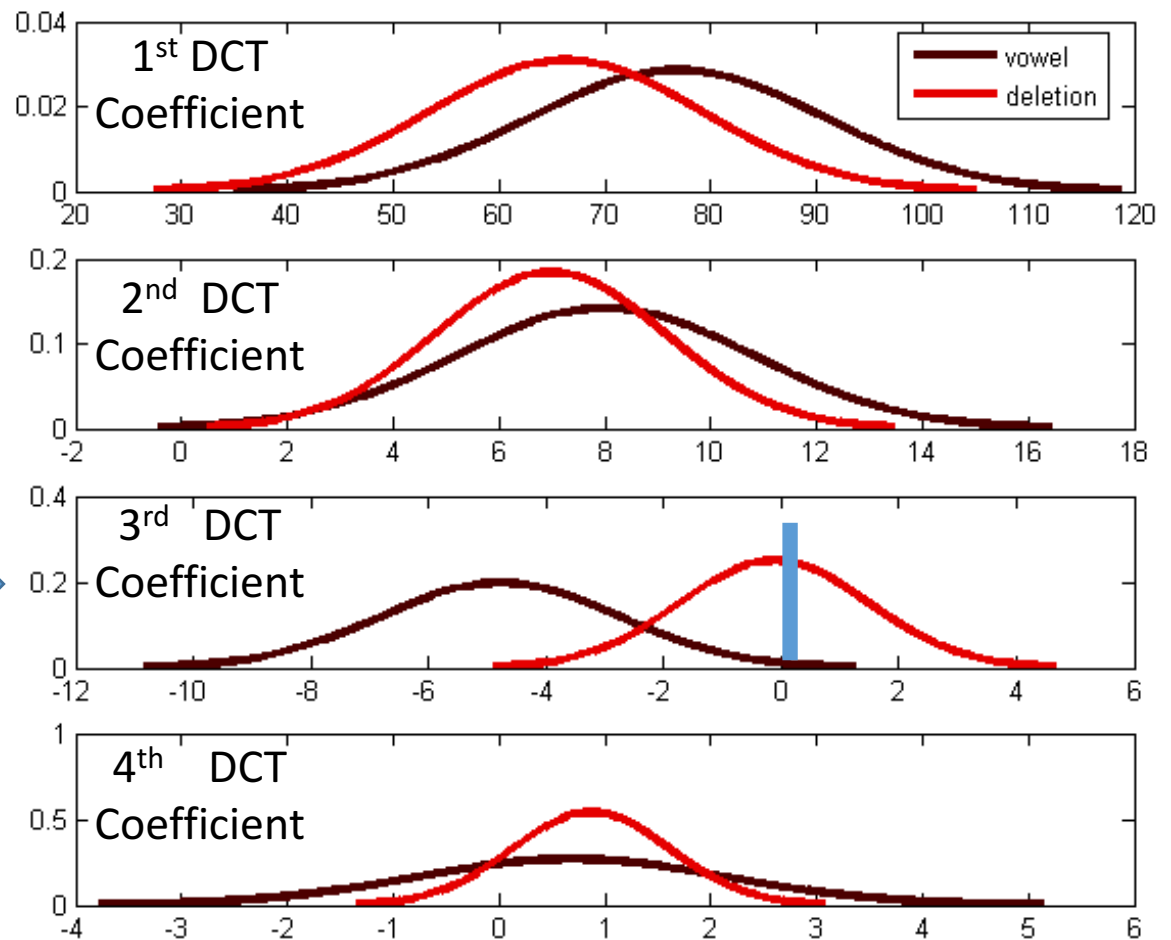
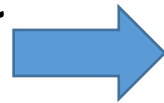
$c_3 = 3^{\text{rd}}$  DCT Coefficient

$c_4 = 4^{\text{th}}$  DCT Coefficient



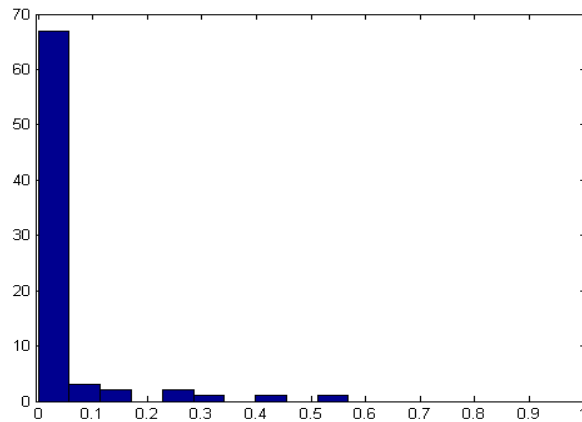
# Average classification parameters

Greatest  
separation for  
3<sup>rd</sup> DCT  
coefficient

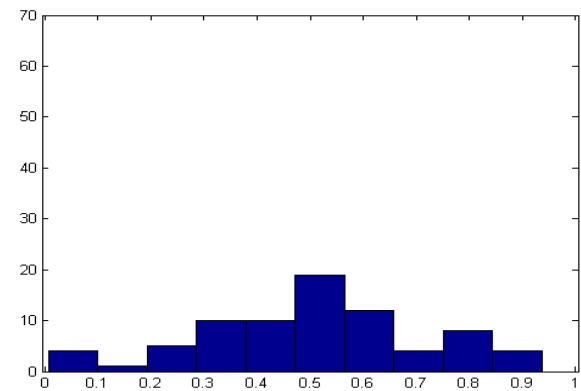


# Hypotheses expressed as (posterior) probability distributions

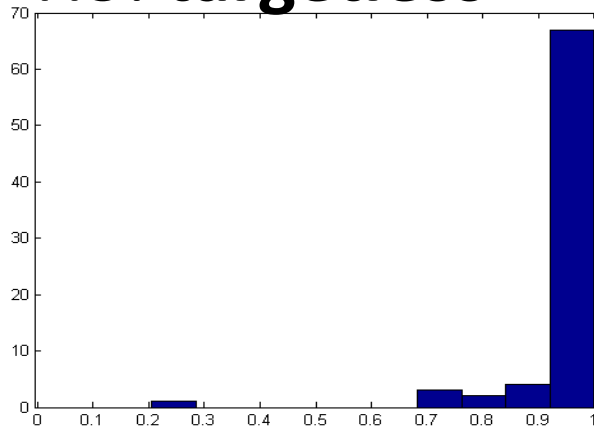
**H1: full target**



**H2: reduced target**



**H3: targetless**



**H4: variably targetless**

