

A Comparison of Different Formal Approaches to the Phonology of the Pitch Accent in Japanese

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1 Introduction

1.1 Subject definition

This paper will present a number of theoretical considerations that arise in the course of the phonological treatment of the Japanese pitch-accent.

Classically, the tonal realisation of a mora in Japanese has been represented as either high (H) or low (L). A fundamental question that will be presented in this paper is to what extent this formalism captures the relevant information concerning the tonal pattern of spoken Japanese.

It is clear that native speakers do not restrict themselves to speaking in two pitches, and that especially on the level of an entire utterance many meaningful and perceptible nuances in tonality will be made.

However, we could distinguish between the wish to obtain a *quantitative* model that describes every physical aspect of the speech tonality on the one hand, or to obtain a *qualitative* model that addresses the underlying representations that speakers are likely to have in their minds.

In the latter case, does the formalism capture what matters to speakers, much like differently realised sounds can nevertheless be faithfully represented by a single invariant?

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19 One of the main issues that will be addressed in this paper is whether
20 our formalism would need both H and L as entities — an *binary* (H,L)–
21 framework —, or whether it could also work on the basis of contrasting H to
22 simply its absence — a *privative* (H, \emptyset)–framework —, or, yet again, could it
23 be formulated as the pitch–fall HL contrasted with its absence — a (HL, \emptyset)–
24 framework?

25 This question is also related to whether Japanese is a tone– or a stress–
26 language, since a stress–language can be considered a privative framework in
27 which stressed morae or syllables have a feature (typically the H tone) which
28 unstressed ones simply lack.

29 1.2 Preliminaries

30 The following discussion will be restricted to the standard dialect of Tokyo
31 Japanese¹. It will be clear that in this corpus the fundamental unit of tone
32 assignment is the mora, because two morae that make up the same syllable
33 can be assigned different tones². Nevertheless, interestingly, it seems many
34 rules cannot be formulated without referring to the notion of syllable³.

35 1.3 Why is Japanese a pitch–accent language?

36 1.3.1 Comparison with tonal languages

37 Like in tonal languages, certain Japanese words that consist of the same
38 phoneme sequence are distinguished only by their tonal realisation, as illus-
39 trated in table 1.

40 However, contrary to most tone languages, not all imaginable tone com-
41 binations are found.⁴ For instance, no bisyllabic word is found with tonal
42 realisation LL or HH.

43 Notice that the tonal patterns of (1.b) and (1.c) are identical (and hence
44 their complete phonetic realisation). The difference between the two cons-
45 sists only in the tone that the nominative particle “–ga” would receive when
46 suffixed to them in (1.e) and (1.f), respectively.

¹Many of the interesting features of other, greatly differing dialects are found in the wonderfully clear presentation of Haraguchi[2]

²cf. table 8.d

³For instance, the rule of initial lowering, table 5

⁴It is known that various African tone languages do not admit the HLH tone sequence. Interestingly, this is also the case in Japanese.

Table 1: Kaki tonal patterns

H L kaki 牡蠣 a. “oyster”	L H kaki 堵 b. “fence”	L H kaki 柿 c. “persimmon”
H L L kaki - ga 牡蠣が d. “oyster”-nom	L H L kaki - ga 堵が e. “fence”-nom	L H H kaki - ga 柿が f. “persimmon”-nom

47 **1.3.2 Comparison with stress languages**

48 If we would consider a particular tone, e.g. H, as marking its mora as ac-
49 cented, then we are faced with the absurd situation in which a single word
50 has multiple accented syllables, for instance as in (1.f).

51 It seems therefore more natural to identify the mora that bears a H tone
52 and is followed immediately by a mora carrying a L tone as *accented*. As
53 becomes clear from a larger body of data, there are no words in Japanese
54 that have more than one mora that is *accented* according to this definition.
55 However, we then face the problem that a word might not have such an
56 accented mora at all, for instance as in (1.c), thus contradicting an essential
57 characteristic of stress languages[1].

58 **1.3.3 Broader data**

59 In order to be able to find a general pattern, table 2 lists all of the tonal
60 realisations found in words of various lengths, after Haraguchi[4]⁵.

61 Because of reasons mentioned in the foregoing discussion, the tone added
62 in subscript is the one that would be associated with a suffixed particle like

⁵It happens only rarely that there are quasi-homophones differentiated only by tonal realisation, such as in table 1. Therefore, the data presented here lists tonal patterns originally associated with possibly varying words of which it is only required that they have the same number of morae.

63 the nominative “-ga,” but only in case there are several possibilities.^{6 7 8}

Table 2: Observed tonal patterns for various word lengths

n. of morae	tonal patterns	n. of tonal patterns
2	LH _H , LH _L , HL	3
3	LHH _H , LHH _L , HLL, LHL	4
4	LHHH _H , LHHH _L , HLLL, LHLL, LHHL	5

64 One sees a pattern emerge, which is described by Haraguchi[4] by saying
65 that an n -mora word has $n + 1$ tonal patterns, which he postulates follow
66 directly from $n + 1$ underlying accentual patterns.

67 2 Outline of Haraguchi’s approach

68 2.1 “Starred” mora

69 The point of Haraguchi[2]’s autosegmental explanation is that under the
70 sole assumption that words optionally have a mora that is lexically marked
71 (“starred,” as Haraguchi puts it), there is a number of clearly definable rules
72 that can generate the observed tonal pattern on the basis of the location of
73 this “star.”

74 The “starring” or marking of a mora is the formal representation of ac-
75 centedness. The starred morae will also occasionally be referred to as “ac-
76 cented.”⁹

77 A word without a starred mora is henceforth called “unaccented.”

78 Clearly, the $n + 1$ observed accentual patterns are now explained as cor-
79 responding to the possibilities of choosing or not one among n elements.¹⁰

80 The procedure of tonal association happens along the following lines:¹¹

⁶These subscript tones are not floating tones for Haraguchi, who specifies in the Uni-
versal Tone Association Conventions[4](25) that “[a]ll tones should be associated with at
least one tone-bearing unit.”

⁷It is important to note that given a certain word, the tone “-ga” will take is completely
determined. The ambiguity addressed here is that different words with the same surface
tonal pattern can nevertheless yield different tones for “-ga.”

⁸It is ignored here that due to initial lowering (cf. 5) words can also have the Hⁿ
pattern in case their first syllable is heavy

⁹cf. section 3.1

¹⁰This is Haraguchi’s counterpart of Garde[1]’s *free stress placement*.

¹¹The order in which these rules apply is not necessarily as below. Haraguchi[2](75)’s
detailed discussion will be omitted here.

- 81 • A rule (HLA) that assigns the tone pair HL representing the pitch fall
82 to a particular mora depending on where, if at all, the *starred* mora is
83 found.
- 84 • A number of tonal rules specific to Japanese (e.g. TS, IL) apply.
- 85 • A number of language–universal tonal rules (Ua–Uc) apply. These will
86 make sure that the following *Universal Tone Association Conventions*
87 are satisfied[2](25):
- 88 – all mora have at least one tone associated with them,
89 – all tones are anchored to a mora, and
90 – association lines do not cross.

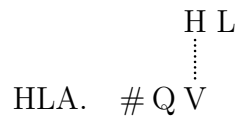
91 We consider a word as represented by a string of sounds, and in general Q
92 could be any such string. The variables V for vowel and C for consonant are
93 used. The vowel of the starred mora is written as V*. The association lines
94 a rule introduces are marked by dashing. Also, following the Obligatory
95 Contour Principle in autosegmental theory, adjacent tonal entities will be
96 assumed to differ.

97 Now the rules above will be discussed in more detail, based on [2](75).

98 2.2 HL Basic tone melody

99 A tone pair HL is introduced, whose H is associated to the V following the
100 longest sequence Q without V*.

Table 3: HL Association



101 2.3 Universal Tone Association Convention

102 The language–universal rules introduced in table 4 are mirror image pro-
103 cesses, meaning they have horizontally mirrored counterparts.

104 P represents the longest sequence of free tone–bearing units. T₁ and T₂
105 are tones, T₂ being free. Q represents the longest sequence of free tones. ∅
106 represents the fact that no free tone or free syllable occurs on that side.

107 The rule paraphrasings are introduced by the author for the purpose of
 108 this article’s discussion only.

Table 4: Universal Tone Association Rules

Ua. “Free tone anchoring”	$\begin{array}{c} T_1 T_2 \\ \quad \vdots \\ V \quad P \end{array}$
Ub. “Free tone contouring”	$\begin{array}{c} T \quad Q \\ \quad \cdot \\ V \quad \emptyset \end{array}$
Uc. “Anchored tone spreading”	$\begin{array}{c} \emptyset \quad T \\ \cdot \quad \\ R \quad V \end{array}$

109 One can remark here that the binary H/L–framework requires in par-
 110 ticular the rules Ua and Ub, whereas the privative H/∅–framework could do
 111 without, and in the latter, crucially, Uc would not be a mirror image process.

112 2.4 Japanese-specific rules

113 2.4.1 Initial lowering

114 An initial non-accented mora receives a low tone unless belonging to a heavy
 115 syllable.

Table 5: Initial Lowering

$$\text{IL. } \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \wedge \\ \text{VC}_0\text{V} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{c} \text{L} \quad \text{H} \\ | \quad | \\ \text{VC}_0\text{V}/[\text{pause}]\text{C}_0\text{--} \end{array}$$

116 2.4.2 Tone Simplification

117 The rule in table 6 is meant to eliminate certain word-final contour tones.
 118 Some speakers seem to keep them [2](74) when the mora is accented, for
 119 which an alternative formulation is introduced (where V^- marks that the
 120 rule applies to unstarred morae only).

Table 6: Tone Simplification

TS.	Original	$L \rightarrow \emptyset /$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \diagdown \\ \text{V} \end{array}$
	Adapted	$L \rightarrow \emptyset /$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \diagdown \\ \text{V}^- \end{array}$

121 Haraguchi[2](34) remarks that this rule can equivalently be formulated
 122 as removing the L tone with its association line altogether.

123 2.5 Example derivations

124 Table 7 is meant to illustrate how the rules work in practice on examples
 125 from table 1[2](34).

126 3 Commentary on Haraguchi

127 3.1 Which mora is accented?

128 Interestingly, many studies seem to point in the direction that the “accented”
 129 mora is not necessarily more prominent than other morae in the word (Sato[9]
 130 and Haraguchi[3](125)). Therefore, one will only be able to infer the location
 131 of the accent on the basis of the location of a pitch drop, if present, in the
 132 original word and taking account behaviour under affixing. The question
 133 arises why, then, we would call this mora, and not others also, *accented*.

134 Also, it is interesting to note that the majority (approximately 55%) of
 135 words in Tokyo Japanese is “unaccented”[4](7). Also, Haraguchi notes the
 136 “accent” cannot appear in arbitrary locations in the word. In particular, it
 137 never falls on the second mora of a heavy syllable[2](45).

138 The following reasons are pointed out in favour of designating the mora
 139 identified by the star as “accented.”

140 3.1.1 Economy

141 The general pattern observed in table 2 is a “plateau” of H tones. The
 142 only variable concerning this plateau is up to and including which mora
 143 it propagates, so there seems no other way to explain its extent without

Table 7: Example derivations

	1.a	1.b	1.e	1.c	1.f
Underlying	ka*ki	kaki*	kaki*-ga	ka ki	ka ki-ga
	H L 	H L 	H L 	H L 	H L
HLA	ka*ki	kaki*	kaki*-ga	ka ki	ka ki-ga
	H L 	H L / \	H L /	H L / \	H L / \
U(a,b,c)	ka*ki	kaki*	kaki*-ga	ka ki	ka ki-ga
		L H L \	L H L 	L H L \	L H L / \
IL	—	kaki*	kaki*-ga	ka ki	ka ki-ga
		L H 		L H 	L H /
TS	—	kaki*	—	ka ki	ka ki-ga
	H L 	L H 	L H L 	L H 	L H /
Surface	ka ki	ka ki	ka ki-ga	ka ki	ka ki-ga

144 viewing the last mora in its range as carrying the accent[1](55). The rest of
 145 the plateau is considered an “echo” of the accent.

146 3.1.2 Native speaker’s intuition

147 Native speakers seem to intuitively agree with the “starred” mora being
 148 accented[11](159). However, this could be an intuition rooted only in the
 149 fact that dictionaries used to mark those syllables.¹²

150 Also many cases are known where a contrast perceived by a native speaker
 151 did not seem to correspond to an acoustically observable distinction[8]. How-
 152 ever, this clearly poses a theoretical problem only if one postulates that the
 153 structure is in the observed data and not in underlying representations.

¹²e.g. *Shin Meikai Nihongo Akusento Jiten* or *NHK Nihongo Hatsuron Akusento Jiten* provide normative accentual information.

154 3.1.3 Intralinguistic indications

155 There exist native terms for accent-related phenomena, in particular 平板
156 式 (*heiban-shiki*, “flat expression”) for unaccented words and 起伏式 (*kihuku-*
157 *shiki*, “undulation expression”) for accented words[5](174) of which speakers
158 agree they apply precisely to those words that, according to Haraguchi, have
159 no “starred” mora and to those that do, respectively. This could imply that
160 there was a pre-theoretic awareness of the difference between accented and
161 unaccented morae.

162 However, inquiry with a number of linguists revealed that this terminol-
163 ogy is of fairly recent origin, which makes it plausible that they have been
164 introduced only to suit the theory.

165 3.1.4 Trace

166 In particular cases there appears to be a trace of a feature that distinguished
167 the starred mora from others.

168 Firstly, the alternative formulation of the Tone Simplification rule, ap-
169 plying to certain speakers, retains a contour tone in final-accented words,
170 which distinguishes them even on the surface from unaccented words.

171 Another example of such a trace could be that accented morae are pro-
172 nounced slightly longer than unaccented ones, but, interestingly, this differ-
173 ence is not perceptible by the human ear[3](125).

174 3.2 Initial lowering

175 It is interesting to notice that the rule of initial lowering does not take into
176 account directly the location, if present, of the “starred” mora. Its applica-
177 bility to uniquely non-accented morae is ensured by the fact that an accented
178 mora will be followed by an L-mora.

179 Pierrehumbert and Beckman[6](10) note that it might have a delimitative
180 function for phrases, which otherwise could be uninterrupted plateaus of high
181 tones. But they remark also that even in the absence of initial lowering (for
182 instance with the second word in 豚を飼う (*buta-o ka*u*, “to raise pigs”), be-
183 cause it is initial-accented), they are still perceived as two distinct accentual
184 phrases. Poser[7] proposes there is a pitch rise also in these words, such as
185 would have been created by initial lowering, but that it appears earlier[6](10).

186 However, one can object that phonologically it remains unclear why IL
187 would not apply to heavy initial syllables.

188 3.3 Tone Simplification

189 One might wonder why not simply unassociate L , leaving the tone itself there,
190 floating. The reason is that this contradicts the Universal Tone Association
191 Convention¹³. But a point remains: during the tonal derivation, we are first
192 associating the L (by Ub) and then eliminating it (by TS).

193 Secondly, one could ask why the theory needs to refer to the “starredness”
194 of a mora again in this rule. All of the other rules have been manipulating
195 strings of sounds and tones only.

196 Also, what is the status of this “null”-tone left after we remove the low
197 tone, or of “void”-association line? This contradicts a privative framework in
198 which L is already the “unmarked”, default case. In particular the existence
199 of (final) contour tones constitutes direct evidence against it.

200 3.4 Basic tone melody association

201 3.4.1 Is HL the basic tone melody?

202 HL has been posited as the basic tone melody also for unaccented words,
203 even though in that case clearly there will never actually appear a pitch drop
204 on the surface.¹⁴

205 Haraguchi defends this position by referring to two examples, which are
206 illustrated in table 8[2](36),[4](8). It is important to note that Haraguchi
207 implicitly distinguishes two kinds of affixes: *neutral*¹⁵ suffixes that do not
208 cause a change in the location or presence of the star in the word they are
209 fixed onto, e.g. 𠵿 (“-ga”) as in table 9.B, and *manipulative* ones that can
210 in certain cases manipulate the location or presence of a star, as in table
211 9.A. The two examples mentioned below are manipulative, and in particular
212 through their adding or removing a star, they can cause a word that otherwise
213 would have an H melody to exhibit an HL melody, e.g. 𠵿 (“o-”) below, or
214 the other way around, e.g. 𠵿 (“-no”).

215 Firstly, the prefix 𠵿 (“o-”) in women’s speech invokes a pitch drop after
216 the following mora even in words that, without this prefix, are unaccented.
217 In Haraguchi’s paradigm, the only way to evoke a pitch drop on the surface
218 level is to postulate that the prefix adds a star to some mora. However,
219 given an unaccented word and the naive assumption that every unaccented

¹³cf. section 2.1

¹⁴It may be interesting to note here that the common feature of otherwise highly differing dialects occurring across China is precisely the HL contour tone[10]. In a way, it is not unplausible that the pitch fall that is the subject of this paper, although spread out over two syllables, is intimately related to this contour tone.

¹⁵This naming is introduced by the author of this paper.

220 word has an H melody, then together with the prefix “o-” one will observe a
 221 pitch-fall. Therefore one would need an extra rule to replace the H melody
 222 by HL.

223 Secondly, the genitive suffix の(“-no”) appears to remove a pitch drop
 224 on or after the final¹⁶ syllable in words of at least two syllables. The point
 225 here is symmetric: if a word like 8.f that is originally accented, has its star
 226 removed by “-no,” then the word is left “unaccented” and if one assumes in
 227 general that unaccented words have a simple H melody, one needs to explain
 228 what happened to the HL melody it supposedly had before suffixing.

Table 8: o- and -no affix behaviour

a.	b.	c.	d.	e.	f.
L H	L H H	L H	H L	L H L	L H L
fu ro*	te ga mi	kawa*	kyo*o	u chi*wa	ni ho* n
風呂	手紙	川	今日	団扇	日本
bath	letter	river	today	fan	Japan
L H L	L H L L	L H H	H L L	L H L L	L H H H
o-fu* ro	o-te* ga mi	ka wa-no	kyo*o-no	u chi*wa-no	ni ho n-no
お風呂	お手紙	川の	今日の	団扇の	日本の
bath	letter	river-gen	today-gen	fan-gen	Japan-gen

229 3.4.2 Objections to HL basic melody

230 However, it would seem objections can be made.

231 Firstly, in the case of speakers who leave a contour tone only when the
 232 word is final-accented (as discussed in section 3.1.4), one is at a loss under-
 233 standing why this contour tone would not also appear in unaccented words,
 234 which have the same autosegmental structure.

235 Secondly, the argument presupposes that the melody accompanying a
 236 word is carried over when a suffix is added, and that this suffix does not
 237 contribute a melody, or melodic operations, of its own. If we would assume
 238 that melody association occurs after affixing then the arguments in section
 239 3.4.1 do not hold.

¹⁶The pitch drop after the final syllable would normally not be observed, but only appear when a suffix is added, as in table 1.e. Therefore, saying that “-no” removes the star is not as strong an empirical given as it might seem.

240 Also, Haraguchi’s argument seems to rely on a close bond between the
241 underlying level and the basic melody. It presupposes that the basic melody
242 is already there, underlyingly, but simply not yet assigned as long as the
243 star is not fixed.¹⁷ This is illustrated in table 9, where the fact that a word
244 already carries a melody is indicated by the HL in parentheses.

245 However, one could ask what it means for a basic melody to come with
246 a word when it is not yet autosegmentally associated. The problem is that
247 if the H of the HL melody was already assigned from the start, then an
248 unaccented and final-accented word become equivalent.¹⁸

249 The elegance of Haraguchi’s approach is that it abstracted the surface HL
250 pitch drop to the starring of a mora, the only information lexically required,
251 in the same way as one could abstract from a guest to its invitation. The
252 problem about the argument is that Haraguchi presupposes the presence of
253 the guest before there is even an invitation: the idea that a word carries,
254 inherently, information about its tonal realisation other than the positioning
255 of the star.

256 In a limiting case, one could ask why not to turn the suffix-argument
257 presented in section 3.4.1 around to show that all words also have the H
258 basic melody. The only reason it is more plausible the other way around
259 is that we can shove the L under the word-final carpet through the rule of
260 Tone Simplification. If this holds, then the question rises what we have really
261 shown, other than that the melody HL is more informative than H.

262 Two alternatives are imaginable. One could propose that in accented
263 words the HL melody is (lexically) “anchored” to a particular mora and in
264 unaccented words it remains floating.¹⁹ Alternatively, one could propose
265 that the basic melody for unaccented and accented words is H and HL,
266 respectively, between which is decided after manipulative affixing is done.
267 Clearly, one can then formulate Tone Simplification without referring to the
268 “starredness.”

269 3.4.3 Correspondence star-location/melody assignment

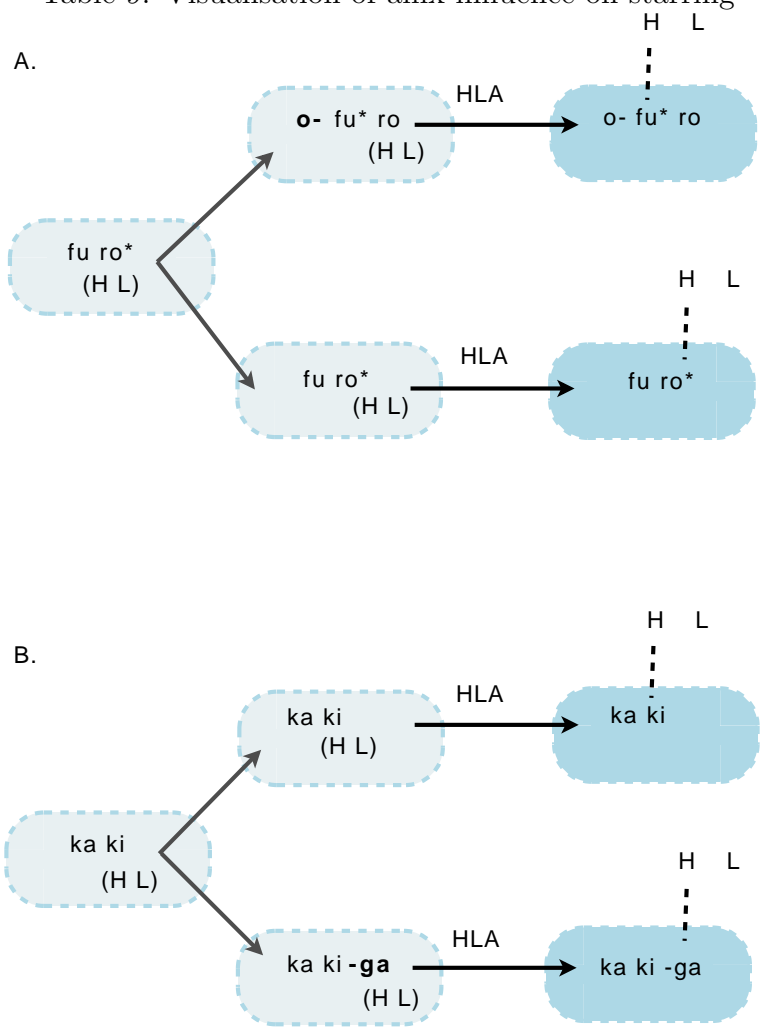
270 Assuming all words, even the unaccented, have a basic HL melody, we have
271 that not every of the $n + 1$ possible tonal patterns observed corresponds to

¹⁷This is because affixes can affect the position or even add or remove a star in a word.

¹⁸The theory set out to explain the difference in tone of the suffix “-ga” in table 1 (e) and (f)

¹⁹It is beyond the scope of this paper to give the details of this proposed formalism, but based on the data presented here it would seem clear this is feasible. In particular, the HLA rule would then be restricted to assigning the “floating” HL melody only in the case of unaccented words, since in the other cases it is already assigned.

Table 9: Visualisation of affix influence on starring



272 a different assignment of the HL melody. Two of these cases, namely the
273 final-accented and unaccented, will result in the same melody assignment.
274 This is why phenomena like the difference in tone of the suffix “-ga” have to
275 be explained by applying differently this HL-association, instead of having
276 two different autosegmental representations acting differently on the suffix.²⁰
277 In particular, contrary to the Initial Lowering rule that could be for-
278 mulated without referring to the “starredness” of morae, the Tone Simpli-
279 fication rule cannot, for it would then fail to distinguish final-accented and
280 unaccented.

281 3.5 Tone spreading

282 3.5.1 Why do default tones spread?

283 The rule Uc implements a “tone spreading.” However, in a privative frame-
284 work, it seems counterintuitive that the L tone, which is nothing more than
285 the absence of a high tone, could propagate. Can one can ask if we are con-
286 cerned with “propagation” here, and not rather an “interpolation” low-level
287 filling-in of unspecified tones depending on specified tones in the context?

288 3.5.2 Pierrehumbert & Beckman 1988

289 Pierrehumbert and Beckman[6] also make a case against the phenomenon of
290 tone spreading. Their position is that not only the underlying representa-
291 tion, but even the surface level is tonally underspecified. Empirical evidence
292 is presented to the effect that the phenomenon of *downdrift*, the more gradual
293 fall in pitch over the morae following the accented one, is not constant over
294 time, but dependent on the number of morae in the accentual phrase. There-
295 fore, downdrift appears more of an “interpolation” over tonally unspecified
296 morae than a realisation of “spread” tonal instances.

297 4 Conclusion

298 4.1 Overview

299 In this paper is pointed out a number of considerations considering the ques-
300 tion how to provide a phonological account of the observed tonal patterns in
301 Tokyo Japanese.

²⁰This is illustrated in table 9.

302 Haraguchi reduces the required lexical information pertaining to tonality
303 to a single given: which mora, if at all, receives a mark (“star”) and the
304 observed tonal patterns follow then from a number of mechanical rules.

305 A number of these rules seem to contradict the privative (H, \emptyset)–framework.
306 For instance, tone spreading seems to indicate the L tone has a symbolic
307 reality of its own, but other evidence seems to call spreading into question.
308 Also, sporadically appearing contour tones appear to rule out a privative
309 framework.

310 Haraguchi argues that HL is the basic melody of every word. This points
311 at a close relationship between the H and L tones more than simple symbolic
312 opposition, for it implies there can be no H tone without an L. In addition,
313 the (HL, \emptyset) framework is particularly supported by the appearance of word–
314 final contour tones left by certain speakers.

315 4.2 Future research

316 Haraguchi’s treatment of multi–morae suffixes, though largely omitted in this
317 paper, is exceedingly complex. In particular, it would be interesting to find
318 an explanation why certain affixes influence the tonal realisation (here called
319 “manipulative”) and others not (“neutral”) and find if this could explain the
320 behaviour of these multi–morae suffixes also.

321 Another question that was raised in section 3.4.2 is whether the formalism
322 involving the “star” is necessary. The two alternatives could be compared in
323 effectiveness in covering the observations as well as theoretical cleanliness.

324 The nature of the “star” as a theoretical entity could also be clarified
325 by determining any regularities in its occurrence, for instance an explanation
326 why it only occurs on the first mora of a heavy syllable.

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