Grounding topic and focus in biological codes

Matthijs Westera

Institute for Logic, Language and Computation, University of Amsterdam
matthijs.westera@gmail.com

Abstract

A compositional theory of English intonational meaning is presented that is derived from Gussenhoven’s [1] biological codes. The resulting theory is compared to the more top-down approaches to focus and contrastive topic in the literature, suggesting how such stipulated semantic/pragmatic notions as ‘alternative’ and ‘strategy’ can be grounded – and revealing how they might be amended. (Details omitted due to space limitations; for a longer version see the author’s webpage.)

Index Terms: Intonational meaning, biological codes, pragmatics, topic and focus.

1. Introduction

This paper presents a compositional theory of English intonational meaning.1 The atomic meanings assumed are explicitly derived from the natural, biological meanings captured in Gussenhoven’s 

[1] biological codes [1]. The paper concentrates on the meanings of nuclear accents and boundary tones in English, combinations of which form the phonological realizations of semantic/pragmatic notions such as focus and contrastive topic.

I assume that the meanings of nuclear accents (section 2) and high boundary tones (section 3) derive from Gussenhoven’s effort code and production code, respectively, through initial volitional production, and subsequent grammaticalization (‘phonologicalization’), of the relevant biological codes. Hence, I will not reduce phonology to phonetics, but ground phonology in phonetics. In each case, I shall argue on conceptual grounds for a particular pathway of grammaticalization. I explore the empirical repercussions of the semantic theory derived thus (mainly section 4), and compare it with the more ‘top-down’ semantics/pragmatic-driven approaches to these topics [2, 3, 4, 5]. Some of the core concepts these theories stipulate, such as ‘alternative’ and ‘strategy’, can be grounded in more basic concepts. However, I will also point out essential differences that seem to favour the theory proposed here.

2. Nuclear accents: relevant alternatives

2.1. Focus and the effort code

I assume that focus is expressed by nuclear accents, in the sense of Ladd [6] (although additional phonological or phonetic features may disambiguate between broad and narrow focus, a topic that I shall not discuss). I follow Gussenhoven [1] in assuming that focus is a grammaticalization of the effort code, which correlates the effort expended on producing a certain part of a sentence with the importance of reliably conveying it to the hearer. So, the natural, biological meaning of (1), where CAPS indicate the nuclear accent, is that “party” is important:

(1) John came to the PARty.

The question is: what does it mean for part of a sentence to be important (and how, if at all, has this grammaticalized)?

The only way in which a constituent can be important to get across, is if the constituent could have been different, i.e., if it could not have been predicted. For if it could not have been different – e.g., if the hearer had already known that John was at the party – there would have been no risk of misunderstanding, and any extra effort spent on its communication would have been wasted. Thus, a constituent could have been different only if an alternative exists that, as far as the hearer knows, could have taken its place. The importance of a constituent therefore implies the existence of alternatives for the constituent. Finally, the only analysis of ‘importance’ that seems defensible to me is one in terms of left-to-right predictability: hearers use whatever is said up to a point (plus world knowledge, contextual knowledge, etcetera, as an anonymous reviewer kindly pointed out), to predict the next word.

2.2. Grammaticalization of the effort code

I assume that the natural meaning of accent has become more semantic/pragmatic, reflecting its non-automatic, volitional production. I assume more concretely that this is reflected in the following two minimal changes:

1. The criterion of predictability becomes more pragmatic, i.e., sensitive primarily to the contextual relevance of an alternative;
2. In languages where semantic scope and linear order are dissociated (e.g., English, but not German), left-to-right predictability is replaced by ‘top-to-bottom’ predictability, i.e., the importance of a constituent is no longer its predictability given what comes to its left, but its predictability given what takes scope over it.

Thus, I assume the following meaning for accent, understood as a minimal, grammaticalized refinement of the effort code:

(2) Assumption 1: Nuclear accents

A nuclear accent indicates the existence of a relevant alternative, sharing with the actual utterance all material semantically outscoping the accented constituent.

Phonetic ground: The effort code, with greater effort marking greater importance, construed as left-to-right predictability, is grammaticalized as top-down, contextual predictability.

In the meantime, the original effort code has of course not disappeared. The resulting two-channel view of stress/accents is

---

1 I am grateful to three anonymous reviewers for TAL 2014 (Nijmegen), the audience of Questions in Discourse 2013 (Amsterdam), Jeroen Groenendijk and Jordy Joubry for valuable comments, and to Marie Postma and Michael Wagner for discussion on earlier, related work. Financial support from the Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research is gratefully acknowledged.
in line with Beaver and Velleman [8], who argue on empirical grounds that the importance of a constituent has two components: (i) its general non-predictability, and (ii) its importance for the present purposes of the conversation. These can be identified with the effort code and its grammaticalization, focus.

2.3. Focus alternatives

My proposal yields considerably weaker restrictions on the set of alternatives than existing theories of focus, e.g., Rooth’s [2]. For instance, assuming surface scope in the following sentences, the following is predicted (CAPS on the nuclear accent):

(3) a. John came to the PARty.
   Alternatives: John came to \{ X \}
b. JOHN came to the party.
   Alternatives: \{ X \} [i.e., anything!]

Example (3a) is perhaps as one would expect, and the prediction is in line with current theories of focus. Example (3b), however, seem too weak; one might think that the relevant alternatives to (3b) must be of the form “X came to the party” (as a Rooth-style theory predicts [2]). However, I take (4) to show that such an account would in fact be too strong:

(4) [B, who is known to hate John, and to have headache problems, came home early from a party.]
   A: Wow, you’re back already? Was John at the party, perhaps, or did you have a headache again?
   B: JOHN was there.

Here the response is felicitous without the existence of relevant alternatives of the form “X was there”. (To test: such alternatives would get to be pragmatically excluded. The only relevant alternative is that B had a headache, which is indeed pragmatically excluded by the response.)

Thus, I think my theory’s weak restriction on alternatives is necessary in light of (4). But the stronger, Roothian intuition can nevertheless be explained:

1. That “John” was said, was not predictable.
2. Given that “John” was said, that he came to the party was predictable.
3. We could not have known beforehand that John came to the party, for then the utterance would not have been informative, and should not have been made.
4. To reconcile 2. and 3., we must have known something slightly weaker, plausibly, that the utterance would answer the question “who came to the party?”.

3. Final rises: maxim violations

3.1. Introduction

Let us call a high boundary tone (ToBI’s ‘H%’) an ‘IP-final rise’ if it occurs at the end of an intonation phrase (utterance), and an ‘IP-final rise’ if it occurs at the end of an intermediate phrase. As detailed below, I assume that these phonological features are grammaticalizations of Gussenhoven’s production code [1].

Conflating, for now, steep rises and shallow rises, the IP-final rise has several quite distinct uses, three salient kinds given in (5)-(7). Throughout this paper, I shall indicate both IP-final and IP-final rises by ‘↗’ and falls by ‘↘’.

(5) Uncertainty about proposition expressed [9, 10] (typically a steep, question-kinda rise, see below)

   a. [Seeing someone arrive with an umbrella]
      It’s RAINing ↗
   b. A: John went to pick up his sister.
      B: JOHN has a SISTER ↗

   A: Was John at the party?
   B: (Well,) there was ALcohol ↗

(7) Partial answerhood / list [12, 13]
   A: Who was at the party?
   B: JOHN was there ↗, (MARy was there ↗, etc.)

In earlier work [16] I have proposed that an IP-final rise conveys that a conversational maxim, in the sense of Grice [14], is being violated, and have shown that it generates existing accounts that have been proposed for each use in isolation, and accounts for part of the phonetic variation between the different uses. The theory was not grounded in phonetics; nor was it intended to cover also IP-final rises. In the present section, this work is extended in these two respects.

3.2. The meaning of the IP-final rise

According to Gussenhoven’s 1 production code, a high pitch marks ‘unfiniteness’, because pitch normally decreases with lung pressure, which decreases during an utterance. When produced voluntarily, a high pitch may occur at what would normally be the perfect ending for a breath group, e.g., the end of a sentence, and a richer meaning must be attached to them: not that the speaker’s breath group is unfinished, but that the speaker’s utterance is unfinished in some other sense. If a high pitch occurs at the end of a sentence, it cannot mean syntactic or semantic unfinishedness either. I assume, therefore, that it must imply a kind of pragmatic unfinishedness (for what other kinds of unfinishedness could there be?), where an utterance is pragmatically unfinished if, on its own, it does not constitute a wholly cooperative contribution to the discourse, given the present purposes of the conversation. In Gricean [14] terms: the utterance violates a conversational maxim.

A cooperative speaker may well violate a maxim, provided she does so openly to avoid misleading the hearer [14]. In light of this required transparency, it will be communicatively beneficial for the sentence-final high pitch to grammaticalize into a binary phonological feature, indicating the presence/absence of a maxim violation. Indeed, I assume that this has happened:

(8) Assumption 2: IP-final rises The IP-final rise indicates that the utterance violates a conversational maxim.

Phonetic ground: A grammaticalization of voluntary sentence-final high pitch, which marks degree of pragmatic unfinishedness, as a derivative of involuntary high pitch, which marks breath group unfinishedness, in accordance with the production code.

A final fall, i.e., a sentence-final low boundary tone, can be seen as the semantically vacuous unmarked case. However, it may well be said to indicate full compliance with the maxims.

As in the case of accents, this grammaticalization too does not mean that the original production code has disappeared. The relative height of the final pitch is still indicative of the severity of the maxim violation, i.e., the degree of pragmatic unfinishedness. Assuming that potential falsity is more severe than potential irrelevance or partiality [14], this explains why the examples in (5) are associated with a higher rise than (6) or (7).
3.3. The required maxims

To spell out what it means to violate a maxim, I adopt the maxims from my earlier account of scalar implicatures [15]. These are defined relative to a contextual set of possibilities (pieces of information) that are mutually (by speaker and audience) taken to be relevant. Given such a set, the assumed maxims together require that one should at least mention (Relation) or confirm (Quantity) any particular one of them. In (7), the speaker simply hasn’t specified what (and only) live possibilities are defined relative to a contextual set of possibilities (pieces of information) that are mutually taken to be relevant, i.e. (for details see [15]):

1. **Maxim of Quality**: Say only that which you (take yourself to) know.
2. **Maxim of Relation**: (Take yourself to) mention all (and only) live possibilities mutually known to be relevant.
3. **Maxim of Quantity**: (Take yourself to) confirm all (and only) possibilities mutually known to be relevant, respecting Quality.

The Maxim of Quality is straightforward, and violating it implies not knowing (or not taking oneself to know) the proposition expressed, which corresponds with Truckenbrodt’s [10] account of the readings in (5).

To see how the uses in (6) and (7) derive, I shall first illustrate what compliance with the maxims of Relation and Quantity implies. Consider the response in (9) (where the question serves to fix the contextual set of relevant possibilities).

(9) Who (among John, Bill, Mary) was at the party?
   – John was, or both John and Bill.

Implicated: Mary wasn’t, not sure about Bill.

The response doesn’t mention Mary’s presence, so it must not be a live possibility for the responder (Relation); Bill’s presence is mentioned, so it has to be a live possibility (Relation), but not confirmed, so it cannot be more than a live possibility (Quantity), i.e., the responder is unsure about Bill’s presence. This is what compliance with the maxims implies.

Now, violating these maxims yields the uses in (6) and (7), as follows. In (6), the speaker is unsure how her answer maps onto the set of relevant possibilities, hence she does not take herself to have either mentioned (Relation) or confirmed (Quantity) any particular one of them. In (7), the speaker simply hasn’t mentioned (Relation) or confirmed (Quantity) all of them (yet – if she is making a list). In both cases, that Relation or Quantity is violated is precisely what the IP-final rise indicates.

3.4. Generalizing to IP-final rises

The function of IP-final rises turns out to be a natural generalization of that of the IP-final rise, since what a maxim violation amounts to depends importantly on the accented constituent. If a rise expresses, e.g., disbelief (Quality violation), this disbelief can only be due to the identity of the accented constituent – all other constituents, after all, should have been predictable.

For instance, the accents in (10) provide the Phonetic ground: As a generalized version of the IP-final rise, which derived from the production code.

I have assumed that IP-final rises are subject to gradience similar to IP-final rises. This predicts, correctly I think, that the IP-final rises in (10) are higher than the IP-final rise in (11).

Finally, let us pause at one aspect of example (11) that might appear puzzling: the utterance as a whole ends with a fall (which I assume the IP shares with the last iP), but contains a rise. But how can the utterance as a whole be cooperative, while a maxim is violated with respect to the first accented constituent? I propose the following explanation. The cooperativity of the utterance as a whole is evaluated only relative to the context as it was prior to the utterance, in particular the set of possibilities mutually believed to be relevant. Thus, (11) conveys that the resolution of John-alternatives, which the first accent indicates exist, was not an immediate conversational goal (although this will become the goal for the next speaker). I will discuss this example again, and in more detail, in the next section.

4. Some additional predictions

4.1. Contrastive topic and scope

Let us consider again example (11), repeated below. For semantic transparency, I will indicate the last IP-final boundary and the IP-final boundary separately, even though, when identical, they can be (I assume) prosodically realized as one. I mark them with indices a, b, c to link them to their respective semantic contributions given immediately below.

(13) JOHN\textsuperscript{a}, had the BEANS\textsubscript{b}\textsubscript{c}.

Given that every IP comes with its own accent [6], the role of IP-final rises must be as follows: they are used to indicate whether a maxim is violated with respect to the accented constituent.

In sum, the meaning that I assume for IP-final rises is a straightforward generalization (indeed, hardly a generalization) from the meaning of an IP-final rise:

(12) **Assumption 4: IP-final rises** The IP-final rise indicates that the utterance violates a conversational maxim with respect to the accented constituent in the iP. **Phonetic ground**: As a generalized version of the IP-final rise, which derived from the production code.

This is usually called a (contrastive) topic-focus construction, where John would be the contrastive topic. The same utterance, but with the rise and fall interchanged, yields:

(14) JOHN\textsuperscript{a}, had the BEANS\textsubscript{b}\textsuperscript{c}. (John \textsuperscript{c} the beans)

a. Something else could have happened, that I consider possible (or know) but have not mentioned (or confirmed). (Pragmatically enriched: other people could have eaten something (section 2.3)).

b. John could have eaten something else, but I have mentioned all alternatives I consider possible; i.e., John had only beans.

c. As far as the conversational goal prior to the utterance goes, the utterance is fully cooperative.

a. Something else could have happened, that I consider possible, i.e., nothing happened except John’s eating beans.

b. John could have eaten something else, and I have not mentioned all alternatives I consider possible; i.e., John may have had an additional dish.

c. As far as the conversational goal prior to the utterance goes, the utterance is not fully cooperative.
In this case the meaning components (a) and (b) are contradictory. Hence, this is predicted not to be a possible reading for this sentence. The inverse-scope reading, on the contrary, is semantically felicitous (for this, having replaced left-to-right by top-down predictability in section 2 is crucial):

(15) \( \text{JOHN}^{\text{had the BEANS}} \) \( \text{↗} \). (the beans \( \gg \) John)
   a. Someone else could have had the beans, but I have mentioned all alternatives I consider possible; i.e., only John had beans.
   b. Something else could have happened, that I consider possible (or know) but have not mentioned (or confirmed). (Pragmatically enriched: other things could have been eaten by someone).
   c. As far as the conversational goal prior to the utterance goes, the utterance is not fully cooperative.

My semantics thus predicts that contrastive topic must always take scope over focus. Indeed, that must be the case has been proposed on empirical grounds [4, 5]. For instance, the intonation pattern in (14)/(15) is completely unavailable in German, where scope and linear order are less dissociated. To my awareness, my theory is the first to explain why contrastive topic must take scope over focus: they must do so in virtue of their intonational meanings, which they have in virtue of the biological codes.

4.2. Strategies

Existing accounts of contrastive topic and focus are phrased in terms of strategies for answering a question [3, 4]. For instance, (13) and (15) would both be part of a strategy to answer the question “who had what?”, but (13) would answer it ‘by individual’ and (15) ‘by food item’. Indeed, the existence of alternative answers to “who had what?” is implied by both examples (albeit pragmatically). However, this does not mean that answering that question was also a conversational goal when the utterance was made. Indeed, the third meaning component of (13) combined with the first entails that the conversational goal could not have been so demanding (as I briefly discussed in the previous section). Hence, only (15) can be truly part of a strategy for answering “who had what?”.

This predicts (correctly, I believe) a feeling of unease when “who had what?” is responded to with (13). In addition, it explains why (15) is fine in lista (16a), while (13) is rather marked (16b):

(16) a. \( \text{JOHN}^{\text{had the BEANS}} \). \( \text{MARy}^{\text{had the PASTa}} \), \ldots
   b. ?? \( \text{JOHN}^{\text{had the BEANS}} \). \( \text{MARy}^{\text{had the PASTa}} \), \ldots

The list in (16b) is appropriate only when imagined as a series of answers to a series of individual questions, say, when explicitly moving down a checklist – “What did John have?”, “What did Mary have?” etc. – each answer fully cooperative in light of its own private question. I think this contrast will be difficult to accommodate in theories based on the notion of a strategy.

4.3. The fall-rise contour

Consider again example (6a), here repeated with fall-rise:

(17) A: Was John at the party?
   B: (Well,) there was ACohol \( \text{↗} \).

I assume fall-rise is composed of an IP-final fall directly followed by an IP-final rise. What then is the intonational meaning of this utterance? The IP-final fall indicates that there is nothing about there being alcohol, or about there being relevant alternatives for alcohol, with respect to which speaker B violates a maxim. Nevertheless, the utterance as a whole is marked as non-cooperative. The only reading for which this combination is possible, is one of uncertain relevance, where nothing about the utterance itself violates a maxim, but only its relation to the conversational goal. This explains why readings of uncertain relevance are typically realized by the fall-rise contour [11], not by a mere rise (although I predict it to be available also for the latter).

5. Final remarks

I have shown how core concepts like contrastive topic and focus, and contours such as fall rise, can be grounded in (not reduced to) universal, biological codes in the sense of Gussenhoven [1]. I hope to have shown that such a biologically-inspired theory can achieve the same grain of semantic/pragmatic predictions as existing, more semantics-driven theories. The communicative usefulness of the assumed meanings suggests that they are realized cross-linguistically, and the naturalness suggests a universal tendency for (at least non-tonal) languages to realize them intonationally in the manner described.

6. References