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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

A Comparison of Stress and Syllable Isochrony

by. Timothy C. Reeve

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF Master of Science

IN

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Department of Linguistics

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supervisor 14 ricking

Date. July 6., 19.84

Dedication

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents, without whom this would not be possible, and to my wife, for her help and understanding.

Abstract

This study compares reading task data collected from ten English and ten French speakers to test the claims of stress and syllable isochrony. Examples of different foot sizes were selected from two'texts and measured to investigate the effect of adding a syllable to the inter-stress interval. These durational data were tested by analysis of variance. The results are interpreted to show that, while the language groups are significantly different, these differences do not reflect the isochronic hypotheses. In their place, a "universal" timing system is posited which interacts with the language structure to give the observed timing phenomena.

Acknowledgement

I would like to acknowledge the help and guidance of Dr. J. T. Hogan, my supervisor. My thanks also go to the members of my committee for their suggestions and advice.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In this thesis, I shall be looking at stress and syllable isochrony. These terms refer to types of speech timing which are hypothesized to be used by speakers of different languages. Isochrony means that certain sections of speech will occupy the same amount of time. In languages such as French, all the syllables are claimed to be of an equal duration, leading to the syllable being the main unit of timing in speech production. In contrast, languages such as English are claimed to use a constant inter-stress interval ([ISI] the duration between stressed syllables) regardless of the number of intervening syllables. The inter-stress interval is the duration from the beginning of one stressed syllable to (the beginning of the next stressed syllable. In this sense it is similar to the foot, a unit commonly used in descriptions of poetic meter. While the foot can have the stressed syllable at either the beginning or the end, here, foot will be used in a stricter sense, as having the stressed syllable initially. Therefore, foot will refer to the hypothetical construct while inter-stress interval will refer to measured duration.

The concepts of stress- and syllable-timing have been considered for a long time. Over 200 years ago, Steele (1775) claimed that English was stress isochronous. However, it is only in more recent years that isochrony in the speech signal has moved to a position of greater importance. While theoretical works have divided isochrony into stress and

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syllable types, the studies based on experimental findings have not supported this. Although measurement data cannot tell the whole story, it is revealing that all the studies to date have shown, at best, a tendency towards stress- or syllable-timing, but always in relation to the specific language being studied. Therefore, it is difficult to determine what comprises a stress-timed language. Is it a language with equal intervals between stressed syllables, assuming equal to be defined on a psychophysical scale? Or is it a language whose inter-stress intervals fall within a statistically defined range of duration? These two criteria could allow different languages to comprise the group of stress-timed languages. As well, the same qualifications apply to syllable-timed languages. In this thesis, I shall be treating stress- and syllable-timing as being defined by the duration between stressed syllables or syllables, as appropriate. While a physical scale has the advantage of ease of comparison and measurement, we must not forget that any temporal interval should be measured in psychophysical terms, and is therefore liable to be transformed from its physical value. For this reason, we can only assign a duration to a section of speech, which must take into account such factors as the indifference interval, just noticeable difference limens and other perceptual phenomena involved in mapping a physical sound stimulus onto the sound as it is perceived In this way, we could obtain a temporal scale similar to the bark scale for loudness or the mel*

scale for pitch.

While we cannot claim to understand how a person perceives, we do have an increasingly clear picture of what is perceived. This allows us to predict more accurately whether two sounds will be heard as equal or not in duration. From this step, it is a short distance to determining if such concepts as stress- and syllable-timing are valid, or if they are artifacts of the perception of a differently structured language. It is interesting that most, instrumental studies of stress- and syllable-timed languages have concluded that both show considerably more variation than could be ignored by the listener (Borzone de Manrique & Signorini, 1983; Crompton, 1980; Dauer, 1983; Delattre, 1966; Faure, Hirst & Chafcouloff, 1980; Nakatani, O'Connor & Aston, 1981). Unfortunately, only Dauer (1983) and Delattre (1966) have made a cross-language study. Delattre focused on syllable length while Dauer concluded that the languages he studied, whether supposedly stress- or syllable-timed, were the same in regard to their treatment of /inter-stress intervals. This indicates there are no /immediately recognizable acoustic cues in the speech signal that trigger our recognition of the perceived timing patterns in these two groups of languages.

The question of speech timing has long intrigued people. By necessity, all utterances are time dependent. As well, differences of timing can be used to make contrasts, such as single versus geminate consonants. A language user, in order to communicate effectively, must control the timing of speech so that it matches the listener's expectations (Huggins, 1978). Speakers manipulate timing relations in ' order to make phonological distinctions and to delineate syntactically motivated differences. On a universal level, some changes in speech timing come about due to physiological limitations and interconnections of the human articulatory system. As well, speech is limited by the ability of the vocal tract and speech appartaus to produce and the auditory system and brain to perceive acoustic signals. With all of these levels interacting, understanding which variations in timing are due to "universal" constraints and which to language-specific rules is a complicated task, especially as the realization of speech timing is always an inextricably linked function of these universal and language-specific factors.

Presumably, this complexity accounts for speech timing over stretches of speech larger than a segment or a syllable having been largely unstudied. At a segmental level, differences in timing between languages can only be attributed to rules governing the implementation of segments, given the basic assumption that any humans are equipped with equivalent articulatory and nervous system apparatus. Also, language structure is unimportant at this level, except for determining the phonetic inventory of the language to be accounted for, as percentages of occurrence are irrelevant. The syllabic level interacts with language

structure to a greater degree, as is evidenced by constraints on possible syllable structure in different languages. Here again, the effect of language structure is small, because the amount of speech covered by one syllable is minimal in relation to a fluent conversation. Even so, languages do not seem to be equivalent in their treatment of different syllables (Delattre, 1966).

When syllables are grouped into utterances, languages begin to show their individual characters. The cumulative effects of segment inventory, syllable structure and phonetic constraints lend each language a distinctive sound and, perhaps, rhythm. Is it possible to conclude that timing relations in languages are not different because of syllable and stress isochrony but because of other factors? This question is central to my thesis. I shall show why a theory which does not block languages into an a priori grouping of stress-timed and syllable-timed (and mora-timed as well) is to be preferred. This allows us to look at the data obtained in a new light, as well as to avoid imposing a pre-conceived notion on the essentially unstudied phenomenon of inter-stress timing.

Some researchers have sought to explain parts of our internal control of speech timing. Kozhevnikov & Chistovich (1965) based their concepts on the recorded output of several Russian speakers. From their data, they argued that the comb model, with the stressed syllables coming at a pre-determined time, fit the data better than the chain

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model, which depended on the feedback of information about the successful completion of the previous movement. Ohala (1975), however, found evidence that both these models were important in speech timing, with "...the chain model for long-term timing, the comb model for short-term timing." ' Lenneberg (1967) looked at speech rate by measuring the syllable rate of three radio newscasters speaking American English, as well as studying evidence from several other sources, such as delayed auditory feedback and neurological rhythms. The collected data pointed to a rate of six syllables per second.

One problem is that the above explanations do not have any necessary bearing on the question of stress and syllable isochronicity. If anything, the only, clear interpretation of all three views is that languages share a common timing base. For example, Lenneberg (1967) based his claims on perceptual factors, as well as language output, while Ohala (1975) used an American English and a Japanese speaker to demonstrate his claims. Since these explanations do not address the issue of isochronicity directly, I shall not be dealing with them further.

For this study, I collected data from native speakers of French and English, then measured the inter-stress intervals, to see if the resulting measurements supported the hypotheses of stress and syllable isochrony. If these descriptions of speech timing are accurate, English speakers

' Ohala (1975), p.452.

will use a constant inter-stress interval for all the feet and the French speakers will have a constant syllable length across all the feet.

I shall show that, while speakers of English and French are significantly different in their treatment of the inter-stress interval, these differences do not show the results predicted by isochrony. For example, if the inter-stress interval were to stay constant for English speakers while syllable duration were constant for French speakers, the difference in duration between English and French speakers would be a function of the number of syllables measured. That this is not the case suggests that stress- and syllable-timing are incorrect. An approach which better suits the data collected, as well as being supported by the three theories mentioned directly above, is a "universal" timing hypothesis. The obvious differences between languages, both physically and psychophysically, can then be attributed to their individual structure instead of an underlying timing pattern.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of the literature is arranged chronologically, due to the lack of any other simple organizational scheme. All works by an author are placed under the earliest contribution reviewed.

A. 1965 to 1969

Delattre (1966) investigated the range of syllable lengths in English, French, German and Spanish and found that these languages differed in their ratio of longest to shortest syllable and the durational differences between them. The durational difference between the shorter, unstressed, non-final, open syllables and longer, stressed, final, closed syllables was 204 msec. for French (the smallest) and 287 msec. for English (the greatest). This shows that the languages do give some support to the hypothesis of stress and syllable isochronicity, as English shows a greater tendency to compress syllable duration, while French maintains a more constant length. On the other hand, it also indicates that syllable duration in French varies almost as much as it does in English. Since the average syllable duration was 229 and 242 msec. respectively, these divergences would be perceivable (Lehiste, 1977). Another point was that only French relied on duration for the perception of stress, while the other three languages required intensity variation as well. That Delattre was considering stress, and not emphasis, is

clarified by his statement that, in French, stressed syllables were always final in the sense group and final syllables. were always stressed. Although this study used extemporaneous speech by the subjects, it is unfortunate that we are not told how many subjects participated, nor on what topic(s) they spoke,

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Allen (1968) was one of the first to look at the commonly assumed description of stress-timing in English.

Since we already know that the stresses of English are produced by muscles that probably move rhythmically and are perceived by listeners who are all too ready to hear rhythms, an acceptable description of English speech rhythm must now tell us more than that "the stresses of English tend to be regularly spaced in time." ²

He also pointed out that the three most important influences on inter-stress intervals are speech tempo, phonetic composition and prosodic contour. Allen (1975) took these concepts a step further viewing speech rhythm as an exemplar of motor rhythms and behaviour and noting that people generally act rhythmically, with those rhythms averaging two beats per second. Of these rhythmic acts, the most common involve either successions or alternations. Because English speakers "reduce" unstressed vowels in both quality and quantity, differentiating them from stressed syllables, they can be viewed as using alternation. French speakers use succession, because all syllables are given an "unreduced" vowel. Also, he claimed that loudness, pitch and duration affect the perceived rhythm of noise stimuli in an

² Allen (1968), p.268.

interactive fashion. Louder or higher-pitched tones are heard as leading the perceived grouping, while tones of longer duration are heard as following the group. Allen & Hawkins (1978) looked at the problem of how a child learning English could change from its initial syllable-timed rhythm to the adult "ideal" of stress timing. They found that a child generally produces only syllables with a "full articulation" ([+heavy] Vanderslice & Ladefoged, 1972) at first, i.e. those with an unreduced vowel. Some of these give way to syllables with "reduced timing" ([-heavy]) as the child becomes more proficient. Therefore, they concluded that the child initially displays the effects of universal constraints, becoming more and more influenced by the language it is learning.

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Nooteboom & Eggermont (1969) recorded one Dutch speaker reading a text. Their analysis of these data indicated that if Dutch uses stress-timing, it is neither clear nor straightforward, since they found the relationship between the inter-stress interval and number of unstressed syllables to be linear. Nooteboom (1972) found vowel onset to be the probable focus of rhythmical judgements. Nooteboom, Eggermont, 't Hart, van Katwijk & Slis (1974) judged the vowel onsets of stressed vowels to be the most likely candidates for a primary cue for speech timing for the perceptual system, as they are relatively independent df context and give information on speech timing. However, they also admitted the possibility of using the vowel onset of

every syllable.

B. 1970 to 1974

Lehiste (1970) argued that speech timing must be at least partially controllable in order to be used as a distinctive feature, e.g. between long and short vowels. Also, she pointed out that English; in common with some other languages, shortens unstressed syllables more than stressed syllables as speech rate increases. It seems that this could be consistent with the gress-timing hypothesis, but presents serious trouble for a sullable-timed language, as the syllables would not be able the intain their one-to-one durational relationship. Leniste (1977) attempted to reconcile the data gathered in experimental studies with the hypothetical construct, of stress isochrony by appealing to an interaction between the production and perception systems. If both systems share a tendency towards isochrony, then even sentences which are objectively non-isochronous could be perceived as isochronous. One question which is not looked at is whether the same mechanisms could be used to explain syllable isochronicity. If so, then how do children "tune" these tendencies in to the correct unit? If not, why do French speakers not use stress-timing as do English speakers? Lehiste (1979) looked at the accuracy with which listeners could judge the duration of four noise-filled intervals. Assuming the accuracy of perception of duration is less when dealing with language, she found the results

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indicated that listeners could easily perceive English to be stress isochronic, as a change of greater than 100 msec. was necessary to cue accurate judgements of the longest interval.

Uldall (1971,1978) used data from one subject reading a text at normal and fast rates. The inter-stress intervals were measured and the results were interpreted as indicating a tendency towards stress isochrony in English. 57% of the filled feet (those not containing a "silent" stress) had a duration between 385 and 520 msec. in the normal reading. However, if speech is treated as a rhythmic activity with an average cycle of 500 msec. (Allen, 1975), these data indicate that the average duration of filled feet at a normal speaking rate is 520 msec. While this may be coincidental, it also matches well with other collected data that we shall be looking at. Also, it explains why inter-stress intervals with a larger number of unstressed syllables, such as four or five, can be of a longer duration without affecting judgements of isochronicity. Uldall suggested that these inter-stress intervals (or feet) are counted as two feet, but without specifying how this could be achieved by a listener.

Grosjean & Deschamps (1972) looked at recorded spontaneous radio interviews with French subjects. They found speech rate to be very stable at 5.21 syllables per second with 82% between 4.4 and 6.0 syllables per second. However, one of their concerns was to explain why the speech rate was higher among the French subjects than among two groups of English subjects (Goldman-Eisler, 1968; Grosjean, 1972). They determined that it was due to the number of pauses and/or length of breath groups rather than a difference in speed of articulation. They did not consider extra-linguistic factors. The French subjects were interviewed on radio about their area of expertise. In Goldman-Eisler (1968), the subjects were asked to describe and interpret cartoons. Grosjean (1972) used subjects with English as a second language. Grosjean & Deschamps (1973) Extended this study by looking at French and English speakers in a similar situation. This time, they found the two languages to be nearly identical in speech rate, as well as in the ratio of articulation time (total speech time minus pause time) to total speech time. Even so, they found the length of the breath groups, i.e. the number of words between two pauses, to be different: English 4.67 words per pause, French 6.22 words per pause. However, the English subjects used shorter pauses, which compensated for this difference. Grosjean & Deschamps (1975) made a more direct comparison between English and French by using a similar corpus for each, namely radio interviews on the subjects' main centres of interest. They again found the languages to have nearly identical speech rates (English: 255 syllables per minute, French: 264 syllables per minute), ratio of articulation time to speech time (English: 83%, French: 84%) and articulation rate (English: 5 syllables per second,

French: 5.21 syllables per second). There was a difference in the length of breath groups (English: 9.5 syllables per group, French: 12 syllables per group), which was attributed to a greater number of pauses within the verb phrase among English speakers.

C. 1975 to 1979

Bertinetto (1977) had two subjects repeat a group of fifteen sentences and the last six lines of Dante's "Divina Commedia" in order to collect some data in Italian, which is hypothesized to be a syllable-timed language like French. He listed four properties which can be used to differentiate stress- and syllable-timed languages:

> stress-timed reduce hon-stressed syllables,
> stress-timed reduce the duration of unstressed syllables more than stressed syllables as speech rate increases,
> stress-timed have a less definite syllabification, and
> stress-timed allow a greater elasticity in the placement of accent.

Analysing the results, he found that only feet with a ' roughly equal number of syllables had an equal duration. As well, when rate was increased, the last foot of the sentence was found to compress less than the other feet. Although both of these results argued against labelling Italian as a 4 syllable-timed language, Bertinetto still claimed

> ...possiamo concludere che gli informatori utilizzati nel suo esperimento hanno mostrato per tutti i piedi ritmici, qualunque fosse la loro posizione sequenziale, una netta tendenza versa l'isocronismo.

Bertinetto (1977), p.87. ... we can conclude that the

He finished by claiming that, in stress-timed languages, only the stressed syllables can be definitely fixed in time, leading to isochronism in the rhythmic feet, while syllable-timed languages allow each syllable to retain its "forte tensione", giving the syllable as the primary element of the rhythmical structure. Although this does not help us to understand why inter-stress intervals of perceptually different lengths can be regarded as equal by listeners, it does indicate why these two prototypes have been put forward for consideration. It does not clarify why they are still prevalent after having been reduced to the status of tendencies.

Fowler (1977) addressed the view that timing is an extrinsic quality in speech planning, with a timeless plan being realized by a timing program. Another question is that if, as usually developed, stress-timing refers to a tendency; to what extent must this tendency be present before it is the major factor? Fowler suggested that the speech plan must contain a four-dimensional description and not leave the temporal dimension to an outside function. Therefore, the central issue is how to reduce the degrees of freedom inherent in a plan which specifies all the dimensions required for the speech act. For this task, she put forward coordinative structures, groups of muscles activated as a single unit by the central control. This view

'(cont'd) informants used in this experiment showed for all the rhythmic feet, whatever their sequential position, a definite tendercy towards isochronism. [TCR]

is preferred because:

it reduces the degrees of freedom, 1.

- it reduces the descriptive power by not allowing 2.
- possible but non-occurring movements, uses "prefabricated functional groupings of
- 3. lit.
- muscles" ', and it allows the central command and the movement to not be in a one-to-one relationship.

This is then coordinated with the concept that vowels and consonants are produced by different but partially overlapping muscle groups with a continuous production of vowels and an overlay of consonants. In this way, stress-timing may result from the perceptual detection of "the period of the superordinate coordinative structure governing vowel production." 5 This period could then be related to using a fixed amount of "articulatory effort" per stressed vowel. Fowler & Tassinary (1981) argued that the lack of stress isochrony in speech that has been analysed is due to incorrect measurement techniques, not a lack of isochrony. They used three subjects speaking nonsense syllables freely, as well as in time to a metronome. In the metronome-timed speech, they found vowel offsets to be the most nearly stress isochronous portion of the acoustic signal, while the metronome pulse did not coincide with any acoustic segment boundary. From this, they claimed that, vowel offsets are regulated to be isochronous, while vowel onsets are not, and that, while this does not show the vowel offsets to be the timed section, they are an easily identified one. However, from their data, it appears that • Fowler (1977), p.116. Ibid, p.151.

the two syllables which gave the greatest amount of deviation for the vowel onset in relation to the metronome pulse are /str/ and /tr/. It is interesting that the measurement of /r/ or vowel duration is more complicated in this circumstance, as the point at which the waveform. changes is not obvious. If we then delete these syllables from consideration, there is little to choose between the vowel onset and offset as regulators of speech timing. Fowler (1982) studied how the perception of isochrony can arise from a non-isochronous signal. One of her conclusions/ is "...that perceived timing of stressed syllables is a function only (or primarily) of perceived information pertaining to vowel identity ... " ' and, therefore, that "stress isochrony results from acoustic information on the timing of stressed vowels. To this is added a caution that listeners may use different measures than the conventional linguistic ones to determine speech timing. Tuller & Fowler (1980) looked for isochronous articulatory gestures underlying perceptually isochronous utterances. They had six subjects repeat either one nonsense syllable forty times or a sequence of two nonsense syllables twenty times while recording the speech wave and orbicularis oris activity. The subjects were instructed to use equal stress on all syllables and talk isochronically. Their conclusion was that when asked to produce isochronous monosyllabic utterances, talkers comply by producing isochronous

Fowler (1982), p.25.

articulatory gestures." 'While this could lead to the conclusion that listeners have access to articulatory information, it is not the only possible interpretation. Tuller & Fowler (1981) used infinitely peak-clipped stimuli, in order to equalize their intensity, with no effect on the subjects' judgements of stress isochronicity. Therefore, amplitude is not an important variable in the perception of stress isochronicity. That is, as long as all stimuli are of a sufficient amplitude to be audible.

D. 1980 to 1983

Crompton (1980) looked at French timing, in order to. determine what the important factors are governing syllable length, other than segmental composition. Defining "nucleus" as the last fully accented syllable in a tone group (i.e. a group of syllables in one tone contour), he found that nuclear syllables are longer than non-nuclear syllables and that nuclear syllables before a clause boundary are longer than before a sentence boundary which are longer than before a phrase boundary. Also, he showed initial syllables to be shorter than non-peripheral (i.e. medial), non-prenuclear syllables. As these variations range from 65% to 180% of the "inherent syllable length", they should be perceivable. This helps to indicate that syllable-timing for French is no simpler an hypothesis than is stress-timing for English. Interestingly, he found no consistent durational effect of

Tuller & Fowler (1980), p.281.

accent on the syllable, although some subjects did show a slight increase of about 5 msec.

Faure, Hirst & Chafcouloff (1980) recorded two subjects reading lists of sentences and then had three phoneticians mark the stressed syllables and pauses to determine the inter-stress interval in English when reading. Their data showed the inter-stress interval to range between 0.14 and 1.26 seconds. However, the means of the different sized feet showed a likely prospect to be that stressed syllables averaged 220 msec. while unstressed syllables averaged 140 msec. In spite of the definite linear increase found, they still claimed

> It is the recognition of a pattern of recurrent stressed syllables against a background of unstressed syllables that accounts for the fact that widely different intervals between stressed syllables appear to the listener to be "approximately" equal.

Although no support is given for this statement, it accounts for their view of English as stress isochronic.

Balasubramanian (1980) took data from Tamil and compared them with both the syllable- and stress-timing hypotheses. Tamil is not stress-timed as "...the time taken to utter a foot seems to be almost proportionate to the number of syllables in a foot." 'Alternatively, syllable-timing also seems unlikely, because syllable duration varied from 30 to 417 msec. in a sample of 197 syllables. He then suggested a hierarchy of syllable

Faure, Hirst & Chafcouloff (1980), p.77. Balasubramanian (1980), p.457. structure based on an interaction between short or long vowels and open or closed syllables in order to account for the observed data.

Major (1981) studied Brazilian Portuguese to determine . if it is a stress-timed language. He concluded that the language is in the process of shifting from syllable- to stress-timing. He collected data from subjects in citation, normal and casual speech. Then, under, the assumption that citation speech is the most conservative style and casual speech the most innovative, he found the casual speech to be more typical of stress-timing. This was due to the general lack of shortening processes in citation speech, while, in casual speech, even whole syllables were omitted.

Nakatani, O'Connor & Aston (1981) looked at English speech rhythm by using reiterant speech, substitution of the syllable 'ma' for every syllable in a noun phrase, in order to eliminate variation of syllable composition while retaining the prosodic features associated with normal speech. Unfortunately, this also required them to use selected, trained subjects who could accurately reproduce a phrase reiterantly. Then, of the recorded tokens, only those judged to be acceptable versions were analyzed. Their data indicated that the inter-stress interval increased in direct proportion to the number of unstressed syllables included, i.e. that English is actually syllable-timed.

> The study confirmed the importance of the following factors as determiners of syllable duration in American English: 1. the level of stress on a syllable

2. the presence of a word or phrase boundary following a syllable. '*

Not suprisingly, they found no evidence that English uses stress isochrony.

Roach (1982) compared one speaker in each of three. syllable-timed languages (French, Telugu, Yoruba) and three stress-timed languages (English, Russian, Arabic) listed as examples by Abercrombie (1967). Spontaneous recorded speech was marked for stress and the syllable and inter-stress interval durations were measured. The standard deviation in syllable length, the variance of the percentage deviation of inter-stress interval and the percentage deviation correlation to number of unstressed syllables in the inter-stress interval showed no evidence that the six speakers could be grouped according to their languages' timing pattern. Roach concluded that all languages and all speakers use both stress and syllable timing, although one type might predominate in a given language.

Wenk & Wioland (1982) not only found no evidence that French is syllable-timed, but they inveighed against the very concept of syllable timing.

> It is indeed possible to draw the most unflattering of conclusions for the French language from the assumption that French is "syllable-timed".

 To say that French syllables are of relatively equal length is, by implication, to deny the existence of accented syllables in the language.

(ii) To say that French has no accented syllables is to deny the existence of rhythm in the phonetics of the language, since

[•] Nakatani, O'Connor & Aston (1981), p.101.

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 $\{ g_{i} \}_{i \in I}$

without accents rhythm is virtually unconceivable.

(iii) Since, "like other motor behaviors, speech is compelled, by natural constraints on the relative timing of components, to be rhythmic" (Studdert-Kennedy, 1979 p.61), to deny the rhythmical organization of French is to imply that French is not fully a language. ''

While this ignored the possibility that accent on syllables can be signalled by other means than duration, it does indicate their feeling towards syllable-timing. They suggested that each language has a regulator: "...that abstract rhythmic unit which determines the limits of rhythmic groups." '' English has leader-timing, or a unit-initial regulator, while French uses trailer-timing, a group-final regulator. In this respect, Allen (1975) supports their claim by pointing out that a louder or higher-pitched stimulus will lead the perceived rhythmic grouping while a longer stimulus will follow the perceived grouping. As English stressed syllables are marked by pitch, amplitude and duration while French are only marked by duration (Delattre, 1966), this would explain why the two languages have a differently perceived regulator placement. The regulator is combined with the build up, occurrence and release of accent to give rhythm. They also put forward six principles which help to determine how speech rhythm is produced. For our purposes, the most important of these are the rhythmic discharge principle: "...the tendency to maintain a pre-established rhythm will influence a speaker Wenk & Wioland (1982), p.203. ¹² Ibid, p.204.

to produce successive groups of equal or nearly equal syllable count." '' and the least syllable principle: speakers will produce small rhythmic groups.

Borzone de Manrique & Signorini (1983) studied Argentine Spanish, another language claimed to be syllable-timed. However, they found the duration ratio of stressed, non-prepausal, open syllables to unstressed, non-prepausal, open syllables to be 1.4, which is not syllable isochronic, but is beyond the just noticeable difference limen for detection of durational differences. In fact, they concluded that their data indicated Spanish has a tendency towards stress-timing. They also found stress to be associated with higher pitch, longer duration and, on occasion, greater amplitude.

Dauer (1983) compared English, Spanish, Italian and Greek speakers, and also incorporated data from other sources to also include Japanese, French and Portuguese. He found that, in all these languages, 75% of the inter-stress intervals were between 0.3 and 0.7 seconds. Also, an additional unstressed syllable added 110 msec. to the inter-stress interval in all of them. In fact, the main cause of variation was due to slow versus fast talkers. English was shown to be no more regular in inter-stress . interval duration than the other languages. "Rather, what these data reflect appears to be universal properties of temporal organization in language." '4 If all these '' Ibid, p.206.

' Dauer (1983), p.54.

language's use the same durational organization, the question is what gives their perceived rhythms such variation? Dauer suggested that this is due to language structure, not only in terms of possible syllable and segment combinations, but in syllable duration and number of unstressed syllables in an inter-stress interval as well. As examples, he suggests that stress-timed languages have a greater variation in syllable duration, mostly due to an enhanced repertoire of syllable types. Another suggestion is that, in stress-timed languages, syllable structure and stress are mutually reinforcing, with heavy syllables being stressed more frequently than light syllables. Dauer defined heavy syllables as those containing many segments and light syllables as those with few segments. Also, stress-timed languages use centralized vowels in unstressed syllables, but do not delete them. Syllable-timed languages can eliminate shorter syllables and do not use centralized vowels, although consonants can be affected or eliminated. Lastly, the greater the effects of stress on a language, the more likely it is to be considered a stress-timed language. "It is precisely the language structure with all its language specific segmental variation that is responsible for perceived differences in language rhythm." 15 Therefore, Dauer recommended using a continuum of "stress-based" to rank languages which would imply nothing about their timing, yet help to explain their perceived rhythm.

¹⁵ Ibid, p.59.
III. METHODS

This study was designed to investigate evidence from native speakers engaged in a reading task. The inter-stress interval was chosen as the measurement of interest. Two hypotheses were advanced: English speakers use a constant ISI and French speakers use a constant syllable duration, no matter the size of the rhythmic foot.

A. Subjects

Ten native speakers of French and English were recorded, seven women and three men for English, six women and four men for French. Of the English speakers, nine were native Canadian speakers, while one came from the north-western U.S. The average age was 29.7 years, and all had graduated from university. Three reported very slight impairment of hearing, and one had suffered from a speech defect, although at a young age. The French speakers were six native Canadians, three French and one Belgian. The average age was 31 years. Seven were university graduates, two were high-school graduates and one had graduated from college. None of them reported any speech or hearing impairment.

B. Materials

Each subject read two texts. One, from Reader's Digest/Selection, concerned a conversation on a train. The other described the technique of aerial firefighting. (See

Appendix A.) These texts had been translated by the . publisher, the former from English into French and the latter from French into English. They were chosen to exemplify narrative with dialogue and descriptive styles of speech, allowing the study to look at more than one register. Both texts were independently marked for stress locations by two linguists. The only sections used for the analysis were those in which all stress markings were in agreement. However, the agreement about stress placement was very high. In marking, only two degrees of stress were used, as it has been claimed that listeners cannot reliably differentiate more than this (Nakatani et al., 1981). The stress markings indicated the limits of the rhythmic feet, which run from the beginning of one stressed syllable to the beginning of the following stressed syllable. From the marked texts, all of the rhythmic feet which did not cross a noun phrase - verb phrase, clause or sentence boundary were noted. Then, six samples were selected for each foot size, taking three from each text. However, in the case of foot 5 in both English and French, four samples were selected from the firefighting text and two from the train text. This was due to a lack of samples with suitable segmental composition. Foot 6 type was not included in any of the statistical analyses as only one English and two French examples were found. No attempt was made to try to represent the percentage of each foot occurring in actual language, as this would require either a very small number of foot 5 or a

large number of foot 2 and 3 to be analysed.

The samples were chosen on the basis of the ease of segmenting the acoustic signal. Therefore, those with a greater number of stops and fricatives were preferred. The main criterion was that each stressed vowel had to be preceded by a consonant which would allow a precise indication of the vowel onset. If this criterion was met, then the samples which gave the greatest number of clear-cut vowel onsets for the intervening unstressed vowels, if any, were used. For all of the foot types analysed, this allowed a somewhat random choice to be made, as there were more than six samples available which met the requirements.

C. Apparatus

Microphone: Sennheiser MD 421N

frequency response: 30-17,000 Hz ±5dB sensitivity: 0.2 mv/microbar at 1000 Hz directionality: cardioid

Tape recorder: TEAC A7030 GSL frequency response: 50-15,000 Hz ±2dB speed: 15 ips S/N ratio: 58dB

Audio frequency filter: Rockland Programmable Dual Hi/Lo filter, series 1520

frequency range: 0.001 Hz - 111 kHz

accuracy: ±2% of dial setting

Minicomputer: DEC PDP 12/A

memory: 16 kbits

operating system: OS/8 and Alligator

D. Recording

Subjects were recorded individually in a sound treated recording room. The only instruction given was to read the texts in a normal conversational style. Subjects were given the texts before the recording and asked to read them over, so they would be familiar with them and have an opportunity to clear up any uncertainty before the recording. The order of reading was counterbalanced. Any questions about the experiment itself were answered after the reading. At that time, information about the subject was also collected, in order to control for any inconsistencies in the data which might be found.

E. Sampling

The stimuli were bandpass filtered (68-6800 Hz) in order to eliminate any 60 Hz hum. The upper limit was used to prevent aliasing due to sampling at 16 kHz. The amplitude of each portion of speech was calibrated to provide the maximum signal level without peak clipping. Following this, the signal was digitized at a 16 kHz sampling rate on a PDP 12A minicomputer, using the Alligator operating system (Stevenson & Stephens, 1978), and stored in the computer memory. A program, written by A. J. Opperthauser, was used to allow sampling of 60 seconds of speech at one time (see Appendix B).

F. Measurement

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The signal was displayed in 1.6 second sections by the program shown in Appendix B. This amount of time was sufficient to include the entire rhythmic foot being measured in almost all cases; the only exceptions were those with a great amount of pause time. The program gave a visual¹⁷ display of the acoustic waveform, and allowed auditory playback of the whole section or any part of it as well. Therefore, visual and auditory identification of the recorded signal could be used to clarify the probable boundary location when necessary during segmentation.

In order to measure the duration of a desired section, the computer's cursors were positioned so as to delimit it. Then, the signal bounded by the cursors was extracted, labelled and automatically measured and the duration printed on the teletype. Positioning the cursors involved some arbitrary placement, e.g. when a vowel was beside a liquid. It was in these cases that the auditory playback of the section enclosed by the cursors was extremely useful, as the gradual change of the waveform from that of the preceding to the following segment was visually indistinct.

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For the purposes of this study, foot, or inter-stress interval, was defined to include the duration from the start of the initial stressed vowel to the start of the final stressed vowel. This choice made the feet easier to identify from the acoustic waveform and is also supported by several studies linking people's rhythmic judgements to vowel onset (Nooteboom, 1972; Nooteboom et al., 1974). The feet were categorized according to the total number of syllables they contained, e.g. foot 1 includes only the stressed syllable, foot 2 has one stressed and one unstressed syllable and so on. The ISI duration was broken down into vowel (V), consonant (C1) and pause components. ISI1 is the total duration for the foot, while ISI2 is the foot duration minus the pause time. Further, the consonant and pause times can be grouped together to give the inter-vowel interval, i.e the foot duration not taken up by the vowel(s). This aggregate is termed C2. Therefore, ISI1 duration equals the total of the V and C2 times, and ISI2 equals the durations of V plus C1.

The duration of the stressed vowel (StV) and the first unstressed vowel in the foot (1UstV), if any, were analyzed to compare the effects of compression as the foot size grows. Stress isochrony and syllable isochrony make very different predictions about the effect on these parts as foot size increases.

To measure the ISI duration, the first cursor was positioned so as to intersect the displayed signal at the

zero crossing where the first stressed vowel of the foot began to cominate the waveform. The second cursor was positioned at the same place in relation to the following vowel, i.e. the next stressed vowel for foot 1 and the following unstressed vowel for all other feet. This duration was measured. Then, the first cursor was moved to the zero crossing where the consonant following the stressed vowel began to dominate. After this duration was measured, the first cursor was brought up to the position of the segond cursor and the second cursor was moved to the and of the next vowel. The pattern was then repeated as may times as necessary to measure the duration up to the beginning of the following stressed vowel. (For a visual example, see Krishnan (1983), Figure 3, page 29.)

In the measurement of ISI, only pause time evident in listening to the recorded passages was measured, roughly that greater than 30 to 40 msec. Extra measurements were made to give separate durations for the C or V portion on either side of the pause, as well as the pause duration itself.

To calculate the duration of ISI1, the measurements from vowel to vowel were summed. ISI2 is equal to ISI1 minus the measured use time, if any. V duration is given by ISI1 duration minus the consonant and pause time (C2). C1 duration is equal to C2 minus the pause time. The duration of StV and 1UstV were calculated by subtracting the consonant duration from the appropriate vowel to vowel duration. The measured durations for each subject are listed in Appendix C. The rows comprise the six tokens chosen for each foot. Each subject's data are grouped. For ISI1, ISI2, V, C1, C2 and StV, each subject takes five lines, from foot 1 to foot 5. For 1UstV, each subject has only four lines, from foot 2 to foot 5.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run on seven of the measured durations. The total duration of the inter-stress interval, including any pauses and/or repetition by the subject, was termed ISI1. As a comparison to this, the inter-stress interval with pause and/or repetition deleted (ISI2) was also calculated. The duration of all the vowel segments (V) automatically excluded pause time, due to the measurement technique. For the consonant duration, the consonant minus pause time (C1) and consonant plus pause time (C2) were treated separately. The final two analyses were on the stressed vowel duration (StV) and the first unstressed vowel (1UstV) after the stressed vowel.

For each ANOVA, the same factors are involved. The first is language (L), with two levels, English and French. The next is foot size (F), with five levels (only four for 1UstV). Subjects (S) are the next, with ten for each language. The last is token (T), with six for each foot type. For all analyses, language and feet, were the fixed factors and subjects and tokens were the random.

A. Inter-stress Interval 1 and 2 (ISI1 and ISI2)

The deletion of pauses and/or repetitions from the inter-stress intervals had no effect on the significance of the results. Although the means for the two languages become more similar, the level of significance actually drops by a slight amount. This indicates that the pause time, which was



SOURCE	ERROR TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROB.
/ MEAN L F S(L) LF SF(L) T(LSF)	S(L) S(L) SF(L) T(LSF) SF(L) T(LSF)	180195552. 1400893. 23776326. 4353285. 974527. 2392086. 16882952.	1 4 18 4 72 500	180195552. 1400893. 5944082. 241849. 243632. 33223. 33766.	745.07 5.79 178.91 7.16 7.33 0.98	0.0000 0.0270 0.0000 0.0 0.0001 0.5184

Table 1: ANOVA Summary for Inter-stress Interval 1

a considerable amount for some subjects, did not affect the interpretation of the results. Because speech happens in real time, it seems unlikely that the extra duration introduced by pauses can be excluded by the listener. For this reason, I believe that the analysis which includes the pause time is a more accurate reflection of how people talk and perceive. For example, Klatt (1976) claims that pause time makes up 50% of the duration of a conversation and 20% of a fluent reading. It is therefore encouraging that the statistical analysis is, to all intents, not changed by using the observed data, rather than the edited measurements. There are changes in the measurements themselves, which indicate guite straightforward results. The pauses are more frequent in and add more duration to the longer feet; the differences are foot 1: 5.9 msec., foot 2: 36.0 msec., foot 3: 42.1 msec., foot 4: 60.0 msec., foot 5: 71.7 msec. Some subjects paused much more frequently and/or for longer periods than others. The range, collapsed across inter-stress intervals, is from 0.0 to 224.3 msec. Another change, which confirmed my suspicions when listening to the

tapes, is that the French speakers produced more pause time than the English speakers. Their respective pause times were: French - 66.21 msec., English - 20.13 msec. However, the two ISI measures are significant at the same level of probability in comparing English to French.

Thus, both ISM1 and ISI2 indicate that English and French are not drawn from the same timing group. Looking at the LxF interaction, ISIA shows F = 7.33, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0001, while ISI2 gives F = 28.04, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0000. This indicates that pause time connected with a reading task appears to be statistically unimportant except as it affects the total duration. Otherwise, it would appear to be randomly dispersed both among subjects and tokens, except that longer inter-stress intervals offer a greater opportunity for disruption by pauses due to their greater extension in time. It is possible that this disruption is actually due to the limitations of working memory, so that as the number of syllables involved in an inter-stress interval approaches the magic number of 7 ± 2 (Miller, 1956), pauses become more frequent because the processing system finds it increasingly difficult to encompass the whole interval in one unit. This, however, assumes that the inter-stress intervals are handled as separate syllables, each of which composes a unit in speech production. Even if words are used, it is still obvious that a longer inter-stress interval, on average, will contain a larger number of words. There is always the possibility that

	SOURCE	ERRO.R TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROB.
	MEAN	S(L)	152925123.	1	152925123.2	2366.65	0.0000
•	L	S(L)	383498.	. 1	383497.6	5.93	0.0255
	F a	SF(L)	18734023.	4	4683505.7	887.80	0.0000
	S(L)	T(LSF)	1163099.	18	64616.6	7.048	0.0
•	LF	SF(L)	591632.	· 4	147907.9	28.04	0.0000 *
	SF(L)	T(LSF)	379828.	72	5275.4	0.58	0.9976
	T(LSF)	1,201,	4565222.	500	9130.4		k

Table 2: ANOVA Summary for Inter-stress Interval 2

inter-stress intervals themselves are the unit, in which case it would only be due to the duration, not the internal composition, of the units.

The analysis of ISI1 and ISI2 for feet 1 to 4 indicates that English and French are, indeed, more similar if othe longest inter-stress interval measured is disregarded (F = 5.63, d.f. = 3, p < 0.0020; F = 18.22, d.f. = 3,p < 0.0000). This upholds the contention that the two languages are more reliably differentiated by their longer feet. As a double-check, I ran an analysis of the ISI1 duration for feet 1 to 3, which gave F = 5.25, d.f. = 2, p < 0.0100. While such a result could also be due to the languages being similar at one particular foot size, with increasing dissimilarity as foot size changes (i.e. stress versus syllable isochrony), the graph of the inter-stress interval (Figure 1) shows clearly that this is not the case. Both languages follow a similar curve, with the difference in duration between them increasing gradually as the foot size grows. Thus, for ISI1, the French duration minus the English duration is for foot 1: 34.3 msec., foot 2:

86.5 msec., foot 3: 88.3 msec., foot 4: 126.7 msec. and foot 5: 216.3 msec. We'see that, as foot size increases, the durational difference does too, by 120.8, 1.8, 38.4 and 89.6 msec. respectively. Although this result could show the "tendency" to isochronism often put forward, it shows even more strongly the lack of isochronism. The difference in duration between the two languages is not in direct proportion to the foot size, as would be predicted by isochrony. It is also clear that the predictions of stress and syllable isochrony, shown in Figure 1 as Stress and Syllable, do not match the observed data from the subjects.

B. Vowel (V)

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Total vowel duration is reliably differentiated (F = 33.68, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0000) using both all five feet, and only foot 1 to foot 4 (F = 49.32, d.f. = 3, p < 8,0000). In fact, deleting foot 5 had little effect; even the numbers stayed close. Once again, Figure 2 helps to show the reason. In foot 1, the difference is small: 30.8 msec. Also, foot 1 is the only condition in which English had a longer vowel duration. For the other feet, the difference stays fairly constant: 88.5 msec., 126.0 msec., 95.5 msec. and 125.8 msec. Under the assumption that vowels in the two languages are of an equivalent "inherent" duration, which is not unlikely as the foot 1 means show similar vowel durations, this would argue against the premise of vowel compression being used in English but not in French. If this



	ERROR TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROB.
LS FS S(L)T LFSS	(L) (L) F(L) (LSF) F(L) (LSF)	53787210.0 988285. 8886861. 708703. 497952. 266113. 2607993.	1 4 18 4 72 500	53787210. 988285.3 2221715.2 39372.4 124488.0 3696.0 5216.0	1366.11 25.10 601.11 7.55 33.68 0.71	0.0000 0.0001 0.0000 0.0 0.0000 0.9644

Table 3: ANOVA Summary for Vowel 1

were the case, the languages should diverge to a greater extent as more vowels occur in the inter-stress interval. However, there does seem to be greater variability in the duration of the English vowels. This is evidenced by the relatively slow linear growth of vowel duration for feet 1, 2 and 3, followed by a much greater increase, but still in a linear fashion, for feet 4 and 5. This indicates that some form of compression must be occurring, as the differences in V for the feet are 29.1, 39.9, 117.8 and 83.4 msec. In French, these values are 147.5, 77.4, 87.4 and 113.5 msec.

C. Consonant 1 and 2 (C1 and C2)

Total consonant duration indicates that the two languages are also dissimilar. It is only when pause time is included as part of the consonant duration that the speaker groups cannot be reliably separated. Consonant duration for all five feet showed F = 23.60, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0000 and consonant duration for feet 1 to 4 gave F = 16.19, d.f. = 3, p < 0.0000. However, inter-vowel duration (consonant duration + pause) gives F = 2.97, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0251 for



SOURCE	ERROR	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	. F .	PROB.
MEAN F S(L)' LF SF(L) T(LSF)	S(L) S(L) SF(L) T(LSF) SF(L) T(LSF)	26487727. 109134. 2446868. 173526. 253026. 193001. 4543846.	1 4 18 4 72 500	26487727.3 109134.1 611716.9 9640.4 63256.4 2680.6 9087.7	11.32 228.20 1.06 23.60 0.29	0.0000 0.0035 0.0000 0.3895 0.0000 1.0000

Table 4: ANOVA Summary for Consonant 1

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all feet, F = 1.03, d.f. = 3, p < 0.3871 for feet 1 to 4 While this is interesting, I do not believe that pause time can be added to consonant duration to produce a variable of any meaning. It can only be defined as the non-vooalic portion of the utterance, not as a coherent group. For this reason, consonant duration is a more telling variable. Even here, however, there is a problem, because the measured stimuli do not compose a random simple of the consonants of the languages studied. This is due to the choice of inter-stress intervals containing an abundance of stops, affricates and fricatives and as few glides and liquids as possible. Although this adds to the ease of measurement, it compounds the problem of applying the analysis of the consonants sampled to a larger sample of either language. However, comparison of the proportion of fricatives, stops, nasals, liquids, glides and affricates in the sample to those occurring in text counts of the language indicated that it is reasonable to term the sample representative.

Figure 3 shows by the languages can be differentiated. The English subjects decrease the duration from foot 3 to

SOURCE	ERROR TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN Square	F	PROB.	
MEAN	S(L)	36988754.	1	36988754.	381.03	0.0000	
T.	S(L)	32975.	1	32975.	0.34	0.567,2	
F	SF(L)	4073083.	4	1018271.	41.18	0.0000	
S(L)	T(LSF)	1747381.	18	97077.	3.81	0.0000	
LF	SF(L)	293462.	4	73366.	2.97	0.0251	
SF(L)	T(LSF)	1780476.	72	24729.	0.97	0.5492	
T(LSF)		12742403.	500	25485.		· ·	
		1		• .			af 45."

Table 5: ANOVA Summary for Consonant 2

foot 5 while the French subjects do not. As well, the French consonant duration (C1) is less than that of English for foot 4. This does support the isochrony hypotheses, although the effect is less than would be required to fulfill them. Also, the values for the English subjects counteract the values obtained for the vowel duration, giving the ISI graphs a see linear appearance than either of its two main

D. Stressed Vowel (StV)

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Analysis of the average stressed vowel duration for each foot helps us to understand why the languages are different (feet 1 to 5: F = 41.05, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0000; feet 1 to 4: F = 39.21, d.f. = 3, p < 0.0000). For the English subjects, the stressed vowel is longest in foot 1 with a gradual shortening as the foot size increases. There is a slight increase between feet 3 and 4, but this is likely due to the vowels sampled. This lends credence to the idea of vowel compression. However, it must be compensated for as French shows similar compression for total vowel



SOURCE	ERROR TERM	SUM OF D.F. SQUARES	MEAN SQUARE	F CD	PROB.
MEAN F S(L) LF SF(L) T(LSF)	S(L) S(L) SF(L) T(LSF) SF(L) T(LSF)	9016004. 1 101816. 1 44109. 4 171176. 18 131796. 4 57793. 72 875467. 500	9016004.17 101816.43 11027.28 9509.80 32949.01 802.68 1750.93	948.07 10.71 13.74 5.43 41.05 0.46	0.0000 0.0042 0.0000 0.0 0.0000 1.0000

Table 6: ANOVA Summary for Stressed Vowel

duration. The French subjects showed foot 1 to have the shortest stressed vowel duration, with an increase of about 25 msec. to a basically stable duration for the other feet. Obviously, this is contrary to compression. Another point is that the feet themselves can be differentiated by the stressed vowel duration (F = 13.74, d.f. = 4, p < 0.0000).

E. Unstressed Vowel (1UstV)

Although the term "unstressed" is not necessarily applicable to French in the same sense as English, several & researchers (Crompton, 1980; Delattré, 1966; Wenk & Wioland, 1982) have admitted the term stressed or accented in their analyses of French timing patterns. This leads to the admission of unstressed syllables, as the stressed ones must be in opposition to another type. The tokens chosen for analysis were selected on the basis of grammatical stress. Despite this, fourteen of the twenty-four samples had a monosyllabic grammatical morpheme in the first unstressed vowel position (e.g. de, la).



SOURCE	ERROR TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROB.
MEAN	S(L)	3656473.	1	3656473.41	1435.44	0.0000
L	S(L)	210925.	1	210924.67	82.80	0.0000
	SF(L)	18701.	.3	6233.64	9.46	0.0000
S(L)	T(LSF)	45851.	18	2547.29	2.26	0.0025
LF	SF(L)	21674.	3	7224.58	10.97	0.0000
SF(L)	T(LSF)	35568.	54	658.67	0.58	0.9918
T(LSF)	- (,	451574.	400	1128.93		
		•				10

Table 7: ANOVA Summary for Unstressed Vowel

The data analysis clearly indicates that English and

French are differentiated by the duration of the first unstrated vowel after the stressed vowel (F = 10.97, d.f = 3, p < 0.0000). Even looking at only feet 2 to 4 did not alter this response (F = $14^{\circ}.90$, d.f. = 2, p < 0.0000). Looking at the means for the two languages helps to show why: English 66 msec. versus French 108 msec. Figure 5 shows more clearly how distinct the treatment of the first unstressed vowel is; while the plots for all the other measurements cross, these are separate. Another interesting point is that, while French shows some small evidence of compression, English does not. In fact, the English values show evidence that the duration of the first unstressed vowel is constant across the feet sampled. Because there is no convincing hypothesis to account for foot 4 having a longer unstressed vowel duration, I assume this result was due to sampling. French presents a problem; the longer unstressed vowel of foot 2 argues against syllable-timing. However, this could again be due to sampling, in which case the duration would be constant across all feet, which could

be interpreted as supporting syllable-timing. With the data at hand, it is not possible to choose between these alternatives, although the small variation displayed in the other feet might argue for sampling error. No matter which hypothesis is true, the data show that English and French do not treat the unstressed vowel similarly.

The foot factor is also significant (F = 9.46, d.f. = 3, p < 0.0000), indicating that the durations of the first unstressed vowel in different feet are not similar. This can again be traced to foot 4 in English and foot 2 in French.

F. Ratios

As a further check, the ratios of components of the inter-stress interval to the inter-stress interval itself were calculated. The results are shown in Figure 6 for ISI1 and Figure 7 for ISI2. From these graphs, we can see that the difference between English and French is not due only to rate. Although French Speakers showed a longer duration for all rhythmic feet except foot 1, any changes attributable solely to rate would be washed out by a ratio comparison. However, it is only in the stressed vowel/inter-stress interval ratio that the two languages are similar. Thus, we can conclude that we cannot attribute the differences observed between English and French speakers to a faster or slower speaking rate for the speakers of the language.



Figure 6 - ISIl Ratios



V. DISCUSSION

A. Isochrony

As shown in the data analysis and figures of chapter 4, the subjects in this study do not show any evidence of isochrony. The average syllable length decreases and the average inter-stress interval increases as the size of the rhythmic feet grows. Taken on its own, this is no challenge to the hypotheses, of course. The problem arises because no study has yet been able to produce clear evidence of isochronic timing influencing language output. With these replications, the chance of finding these factors affecting speech is minimal. Looking at Figure 1, it is clear that the hypothesized tendencies in each language impose a small differentiation between them, especially in the shorter rhythmic feet (1', 2 & 3) which compose the large majority of spoken language, e.g. Uldall (1971,1978): 88% of the feet were one to three syllables at normal rate and 76% at fast rate; Krishnan (1983): feet 1 to 3 contain 87% of the rhythmic feet in two texts analyzed. It, therefore, seems fair to say that, in running speech, the isochrony will have to be evident in these smaller units. The analyses show, however, that it is only in the larger units that the two languages are reliably distinguished.

There is a problem associated with this approach. Merely because a statistical analysis indicates that two groups can be regarded as significantly different does not

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mean that those differences are detectable by people during speech. We must keep in mind that our perceptual systems also impose limitations on what can be used to differentiate speech. So, for example, even if we apply Lehiste's (1977) criterion that the durational difference needs to be 30 to 100 msec. before it can be accurately perceived, it is plain that listeners could accurately choose which inter-stress interval, English or French, is longest in an AB comparison test. But does this allow them to also perceive one as syllable-timed and the other as stress-timed? Again, such comparison evaluation would allow a speaker of English to invariably distinguish the different rhythmic feet on the basis of their duration alone, with the possible exception of the increase reported from foot 4 to foot 5. This is,. however, only looking at average values collapsed across tokens. Obviously, any specific example will have some variation from these figures and the upper limit of the range of one foot, in fact, shares the durational values associated with the lower limit of the next larger foot. This means that a foot 2 can have the same, or even longer, duration as a neighbouring foot 3. On average, though, the reverse will be true. This same argument applies to French, as syllable length ranges from 182 to 242 msec. for foot 1. This means the question is how are these discernible differences in syllable and inter-stress interval length glossed over by speakers/hearers?

Lehiste's (1977) answer that stress isochronicity relies on an interdependence of production and perception tendencies is unconvincing because it does not explain why French speakers do not show this tendency. For this production/perception explanation to hold true, there would have to be some method of setting the value at the mora, syllable or stress level. Otherwise, we must postulate a mechanism which is either overridden or undeveloped in a large number of languages, i.e. those not stress-timed. Of course, the biggest drawback is the lack of a definition for "tendency". Hill, Witten & Jassem (1978) found that the attempt to maintain a constant inter-stress interval in English accounted for only 9% of the variation in segment duration. Is this 9% influence on segment duration sufficient to establish English as stress-timed? This leads one to ask what the corresponding figure for French speakers is. On the assumption that the other factors, i.e. phoneme type, syllable type, rhythmic unit, that Hill et al. (1978) found to be important contributors to speech sound duration contribute the same overall effect in French as in English, the effect of trying to maintain a constant syllable duration is unlikely to reach above 10%. Thus, if we assumed the two languages to differ only in terms of their tendencies in production, this would lead to a gradual widening of the gap between them as the number of syllables present in the foot increased. The evidence from this experiment is inconclusive in this regard, as the absolute

durational difference between English and French does increase, but not at a constant rate as suggested by this hypothesis. Even converting the difference to a percentage of average inter-stress interval does not lend itself to this interpretation; the results are, for foot 1 through 5: 14.6, 19.6, 15.8, 18.0, 27.0%. Here again, it is in the larger rhythmic feet that the analysis runs into problems. Interestingly, by using inter-stress interval without pause or repetition, the figure for foot 5 reduces to 20.9%, much more in accord with the others. However, the values for the smaller feet then become: 16.8, 5.1, 8.9, 11.2%. Neither the absolute nor the ratio values support this possibility.

On the other hand, the results reported here also argue against Nakatani et al.'s (1981) claim that English displays an increase in inter-stress interval directly related to the number of syllables. Figure 1 shows that the increase in inter-stress interval is not consistent, but shows evidence of a gradual shortening of average syllable duration (English: 252, 199, 171, 160, 139 msec.; French: 218, 242, 201, 192, 182 msec.) This could, however, be caused by constant durations for longer stressed syllables and shorter unstressed syllables, which would also lead to the same effect. Another minor consideration is that the stressed vowels were not measured with their consonants. Therefore, I calculated the average unstressed syllable duration as well. This duration has the disadvantage of also including the consonant before the final stressed vowel of the

inter-stress interval, but, again due to sampling, the effect is to lengthen all the unstressed syllables in the foot. There is also a slight predisposition toward exaggerating the effect of the compression as the consonant duration is divided between more syllables. However, the amount of the reduction in syllable duration shows that this cannot be merely due to the extra consonant. For the English subjects, the values, starting at foot 1, Pre: 282.1, 210.0, 178.9 and 152.0 msec. Interestingly, the absolute amount of reduction in French is even greater: 344.8, 235.4, 205.8 and 192.7 msec. These results contradict the hypothesis of linear increase in inter-stress interval due to foot size.

B. "Universal" Timing

The analyses of the data indicate that the English and French subjects are significantly different (at the 0.05 level or beyond) on six of the seven measures namely inter-stress interval 1, inter-stress interval yowel, consonant, stressed vowel and first unstressed vowel duration. Only in inter-vowel duration are the two groups similar. Inspection of the graphs of the L x F interaction (Figures 1 to 5) indicated that the languages were differentiated, in most cases, by the longer inter-stress intervals, as the lines diverged in an accelerating fashion. Therefore, I also ran analyses on the measurements for feet 1 to 4. This reduced the number of significant results to four: vowel, consonant, stressed vowel and first unstressed \bigcirc

SOURCE	ERROR TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	F	PROB.
MEAN	S(L)	112735406.	1	112735406.	712.35	0.0000
L	S(L)	535068.	1	535068.	3.38	0.0825
F	SF(L)	14132172.	3	4710724.	180.98	0.0000
S(L)	T(LSF)	2848642.	18	158258.	5.49	0.0
LF	SF(L)	439376.	3	146459.	5.63	0.0020
SF(L)	T(LSF)	1405551.	54	26029.	0.90	0.6698
T(LSF)		11532721.	400	28832.	÷	•
Table 8	· ANOVA	Summary for	1511	(Feet 1 to 4)		

vowel duration. I believe it to be meaningful that the inter-stress interval overall measurements dropped out, while the individual components remained different. Under the stress versus syllable isochrony hypothesis, the inter-stress intervals themselves would only become similar at the level of foot 1 or 2, depending on how the isochronic inter-stress interval is defined. The opposing view, which uses an underlying universal timing hypothesis with an overlay of language structure would predict the observed result, however. The two languages alter each individual component differently, and yet obtain similar results. Assuming the effects of language structure to be cumulat as more unstressed syllables are conned, the difference between the languages would gradually decrease as fewer syllables occur in the inter-stress interval. Therefore, consonants and vowels are significantly different while inter-stress intervals are not a

This supports Dauer's (1993) hypothesis that languages share a common timing character, with the differences between them arising from Language structure and the

SOURCE	ERROR TERM	SUM OF SQUARES	D.F.	MEAN SQUARE	• F	PROB.
MEAN	S(L)	96590758.	1	96 590757. 7	2499.28	0.0000
L	S(L)	75551.	1	75551.0	1.95	0.1791
F ·	SF(L)	11136447.	3	3712149.2	1002.87	0.0000
S(L)	T(LSF)	695654.	18	38647.4	4.35	0.0
LF	SF#L)	202348.	3	67449.4	18.22	0.0000
SF(L)	T(LSF)	199882.	54	3701.5	0.42	0.99999
T(LSF)		3553186.	400	8883.		ÿ
Table 9	: ANOVA	Summary for	I S I2	(Feet 1 to 4	5	

influence of stress on the linguistic system. There is, however, a problem in that he suggested that languages operate with an inter-stress interval of about half a second, and an unstressed syllable having the effect of adding 110 msec. to a foot. The data here indicate that the English subjects almost precisely match these measurements, an average inter-stress interval of 499.7 msec. and an average increase per foot of 110.4 msec. French subjects showed an average inter-stress interval of 596.3 msec. and an average increase per foot of 173.0 msec., which are well above Dauer's values. One explanation could be that French subjects, for whatever reason, read more hesitantly and that similar results could only be obtained when the pause durations were eliminated. Then, the durations are 530.1 msec. and 149.1 msec. Although these values are still high, they do not seem unlikely, given the small number of subjects sampled from the total population. For English, these ISI2 values are also within the likely limits, 479.6 msec. and 101.4 msec. Therefore, it is only in fluent speech that the subjects show the timing characteristics

which Dauer suggests. Goldman-Eisler (1968) claims that over 60% of spoken language consists of groupings of less than six words. Also, Klatt (1976) says that, even in fluent reading, pauses make up 20% of the time required. This means that pauses, which occur most frequently at major syntactic gaps or before words with a high information content, are a part of nearly any language utterance and will need to be taken into account. If, as seems likely, Dauer's figures are arrived at on the basis of speech without pauses, they will not reflect the correct durations associated with these intervals.

Another inconsistent finding was that the English foot 1 had an only slightly longer duration than the French foot 1. Making the assumption that Spanish and French have a similar syllable duration, on the basis both of being classified as syllable-timed languages and Delattre's (1966) measurements, the English foot 1 should be equal in duration to the French foot 2, according to Dauer's findings. In this study, the corresponding figures are 252 msec. and 484.9 msec. There is little question that this difference of 232.9 msec. would be apparent to hearers (i.e. it is almost double the length).

C. Total Vowel Duration

Total vowel duration shows a very obvious difference between English and French (see Figure 2). For foot 1 and foot 2, this measure lives up to the claims of stress and

syllable isochrony. The English duration increases by only 29 msec. (147.8 to 176.9 msec.) while that of French more than doubles (117.9 to 265.4 msec.). However, after this brief support, both languages show identical increases as the foot size grows, where contradicts both isochronicity hypotheses. It seems the vowel compression which occurs in English can only make a significant contribution to a constant inter-stress interval when the feet are small. For example, the vowel duration in English increases by 29, 40, 118 and 83 msec., while in French it is 147, 77, 87 and 113 msec. These figures could help to explain why English is felt to be stress isochronic, and French to be syllable isochronic. Roughly 80% of inter-stress intervals in English are from foot 1 to 3. Since it is in these inter-stress intervals that the vowel duration is most strongly resistant to any increase, it is possible that the psychological response of isochronicity results from an analysis of this variable. Especially as we have already seen that inter-stress interval duration shows no evidence of stress-timing and little of syllable-timing. Therefore, to find that vowel duration only varies by 69 msec. between foot 1 and 3 in English while, for French, the figure is 224 msec. raises the possibility that judgements of isochronicity are actually cued by overall vowel duration rather than inter-stress interval. This is also supported by the fact that none of the other measurements show a strong tendency towards both forms of isochronicity postulated for



the languages. Even in this factor, though, this does not hold true beyond foot 3, at which point English loses any semblance of stress isochronicity and French begins to fall away from syllable isochronicity. Although an explanation of this is possible, i.e. considering that the more common foot sizes are more strictly regulated by isochronic timing because of their greater frequency and, therefore, contribution to rhythm, it seems to introduce complexity more than answer the question of why this difference occurs.

The vowel duration data also support Uldall's (1971, 1978) hypothesis that the longer feet are somehow counted as two feet in the judgement of isochrony. This was her way of accounting for the fact that the four syllable feet did not fall into line with the duration measurements of the shorter feet. If we assume that "longer feet" means foot 4 and 5, we find the average duration for foot 1 to 3 to be 180.5 msec. and foot 4 and 5 to be 376.3 msec., i.e. 188.2 msec. when counted as two feet. Of course, this coincidence is displaced when we calculate the same data for French: foot 1 to 3 gives 242.1 msec., foot 4 and 5 is 487 msec., i.e. 243.5 mseck as two feet. Not only does it seem that such a calculation would impede the transmission of information, which is usually the aim of language, but it would imply that French is as stress isochronic as English. Actually, this calculation should work better with a syllable-timed. language, as the average number of syllables is two for the shorter group and two and quarter for the larger. Claiming

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that English speakers count foot 4 and 5 as two inter-stress intervals is therefore, to argue that it is not stress isochronic.

D. Stressed Vowel

On this measure, English and French show opposite tendencies. The English speakers show some evidence of compression as foot size increases, such that the decline' from foot 1 to foot 5 is 63 msec., from 147.8 msec. to 85.7 msec. This lends some support to the contention that feet are one of the units used in speech planning. However, this is not the only possibility. If the larger feet contained stressed vowels followed by a voiceless consonant and/or not in the final syllable of the word (Klatt, 1973) while the shorter feet did not, we would expect the vowel duration to shorten by as much as 45% of its duration. For English, this value is actually 42%. Since the correlation of foot size and segment composition is unattested, it seems that the rhythmic feet enter into speech planning."

On this basis, it is hard to understand why the French subjects show an increase of 21 msec. in stressed vowel duration as foot size increases from foot 1 to foot 5. Note, however, that the total range covers 32 msec., as foot 4 has the longest stressed vowel duration. Even so, this is only one half of the range in English. Due to this small variation in duration, it is likely that the values for the French subjects display a constant duration for this factor, with the deviation attributable to random sources, such as sampling error and local variation in speech rate. In this case, the constant duration would argue in favour of the syllable-timed hypothesis. The larger range of the English subjects gives support to the stress-timing hypothesis. At the same time, they show that such effects are only tendencies, at best, as the amount of time involved shows too much variation to be ignored in French and not enough to keep the inter-stress interval constant in English.

Dauer's (1983) suggestion that English is more stress-based than French could run counter to these findings. If English considers stress to be important, why does the amount of time taken to utter the stressed syllable decrease as foot size increases? Such a result is descriptive of a language which is not stress-based, if stressed syllables are told by vowel duration. Since English depends on an amalgamation of duration, amplitude and pitch to delineate its stressed vowels (Delattre, 1966), we can combine this with listeners' proven ability to use relative durations of adjacent segments to understand how English can allow stressed syllables to shorten.

E. Consonants 1 and 2

One question which remains is why the consonant duration, both C1 and C2, shows no sign of an increase directly correlated with foot size. Earlier studies have indicated that the compression observed in English results

from adjustments to the vowel durations with less influence on the consonants (Dauer, 1983; Klatt, 1976). This implies that consonant duration for English should be proportional to foot size, which is definitely not the case. If we divide consonant duration by foot size, it is clear that the average decreases: 100, 109, 92, 69 and 49 msec. Such a decrease could not be due to including an extra consonant in each duration (i.e. the consonant before the second stressed vowel), as this would lead to a smaller geometrical decrease. However, it is also true that this extra consonant will exaggerate the effect of the decrease: Average . consonant duration, calculated by dividing consonant duration by the number of inter-vocalic consonants or consonant clusters, is not constant as foot size increases: 50.2, 72.8, 69.0, 55.3 and 41.1 msec., in comparison to French: 45.9, 51.9, 49.0, 51.5 and 47.1 msec., a range of 6 msec. A way to discount the extra consonant, or consonant cluster before the foot-final stressed vowel is to look at the increase in consonant duration between foot sizes. Here, the English values show a consistent decline as foot size increases: 118.1, 57.3, 0.8, and -30.0 msec., against a more stable rise in French: 63.9; 40.1, 61.6, and 25.0 msec. These data support both hypotheses of isochronicity. If the average increase in consonant duration were to diminish with foot size in French, the vocalic portion of the foot would have to take up a greater percentage in order to maintain equal syllable durations. Alternatively, English would

require the vowel duration to shorten accordingly in order to add a constant consonant duration while even tending to hold inter-stress interval fixed. Even so, it is questionable whether the consonantal portion could cue the listener's rhythmic judgement. Most researchers have agreed that either stressed vowels or all vowels are the main cue used (Allen, 1975; Nooteboom, 1972), which would make it possible for a listener to use both vowel onset and consonant duration to judge the rhythm of an utterance. The only problem with this is that French shows, for the most common foot sizes, a more stress isochronic appearance than English.

F. Unstressed Vowel

The data on the first unstressed vowel show strong evidence that English and French are very dissimilar in their treatment of this factor, which is reflected in its obtaining the highest F ratio in the ANOVA. However, of greater interest from the viewpoint of isochrony is the lack of compression exhibited by the English subjects. Apart from Toot 4, 10stV retains a constant duration across all four feet. This once again indicates the problem of trying to show English as stress isochronous. For even a tendency towards this timing to be evident, the duration of this vowel should show a decrease as foot size increases. Instead, the measurements for the English subjects show that this aterval does not shorten. The data indicate that English is more syllable isochronic in this respect than French, especially as the foot 4 measurements could be affected by measurement error due to segmental composition. This was the only foot with three occurrences of $/ \overline{\sigma} /$, while the other feet had a higher percentage of stops or fricatives after the vowel. As well, the three $/ \overline{\sigma} /$ vowels have an average duration of 96.0 msec., compared to 65.1 msec. for the other three vowels for the foot. Because the ayerage duration of these three is the same as feet 2, 3 and 4, it is likely that the unstressed duration of foot 4 is artificially inflated by the inclusion of a portion of the acoustic wave of the /r/ following the vowel.

This has some bearing on the question of whether the vowel /ə/ is one sound, as indicated by the use of one symbol, or is a sequence of two segments. If this vowel were one segment, it should show a duration equivalent to the other unstressed vowels occurring in a similar environment. Since it does not, but shows a duration nearly 50% longer, it is possible that the correct interpretation is to divide the sound into two segments on the basis of a "pattern-matching" criterion. Since the acoustic wave is ambiguous in this area, how is it possible to determine the transition, if one exists, between the vowel and liquid segments? Obviously, the English language requires both segments involved in this vowel on independent grounds, e.g. both sounds are found without the other. Therefore, admitting the phone /ə7 to the inventory increases the number without increasing the possible combinations. Because both sounds are independently motivated, which could make it difficult to get native speakers' judgements on the one or two segment, nature of the sound, we must turn to other methods of determining the probable answer. In this respect, we can measure examples of the sounds when occurring separately and when together, then compare the durations. On the assumption that they are independent, the duration of $/ \sigma /$ should equal that of $/ \partial / + / r /$. Another approach is the one taken here. As unstressed vowels have shown a fairly consistent duration of about 60 msec. in several studies (Klatt, 1979; Krishnan, 1983), it is likely that this duration reflects an accurate value. Therefore, it makes the 96 m/sec. average duration of the /J/ vowel unlikely and supports the interpretation that it is actually composed of two segments with an indefinite boundary.

G. Subject Grouping

To further investigate why the two languages were significantly different, the averages for each foot, for each subject and for each subject's feet were plotted using inter-stress interval 1, total vowel and consonant 1 values (see Figures 8 to 16). Not surprisingly, the languages are clearly differentiated both by overall mean (collapsed across subjects), as well as by individual subject means. Even the data for each subject's foot means, collapsed across tokens, show a grouping that consistently argues

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against classifying the two languages as similar.

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The first graph plots inter-stress interval 1 against total vowel duration (see Figure 8). French shows a linear relation, indicating that ISI1 and total vowel duration grow in proportion, while English demonstrates less growth in vowel duration until foot 3 and then shows a greater increase than does French. The French data appear, therefore, to confirm the idea of syllable-timing, demonstrating a ratio of inter-stress interval to vowel duration. However, the calculation of this type of comparison seems complicated for a listener to use while simultaneously listening to and understanding the communication. While some sort of duration estimation must take place (e.g. Huggins, 1978; Ventsov, 1981), any involved analysis will require that a listener either expend more effort on fixing the duration of the elements involved (whether segments, clusters or syllables) or have an automatic mechanism for deciding if sections of speech are of the same duration. Since both of these approaches introduce complexity, it would be preferable to have an analysis which could provide the correct results without needless, or, at least, new, concepts. An extra caution is that finding a measure which lends credence to syllable-timing does not mean that syllable-timing is real, in the sense that it can be perceived independently of homo sapiens. This is especially so as the English data show no support for stress-timing. Once again, the paradox is that



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Figure 8 – ISI1 by Vowel Duration (Languages)

while one hypothesis could be supported, the other is not.

The subjects' average means, pooled across tokens and feet, clearly show that the French subjects had, overall, longer durations for both ISI1 and total vowel duration (see Figure 9). This runs counter to Dauer's (1983) suggestion that languages have the same inter-stress interval, with the language structure accounting for the perceived differences. If this were the case, the subjects should be randomly dispersed around one central tendency, not split into two quite separate groups. However, any two groups, even if identical in overall performance, can be expected to attain different measures on any one sampling. It is possible that the difference we see in Figure 9 is related to this variability of means.

Figure 10, showing averaged ISI1 and V1 collapsed across tokens, is more complex due to both the number of data points present and the increasing dispersion of the foot by language groups as foot size increases. While foot 1 is compactly grouped, the utterances for foot 5 cover a wide territory. One thing which is apparent from this figure is that the variability of the French subjects around the average value is much higher than that of the English subjects. Not being aware of any explanation for this in terms of language, I assume it is attributable to the subject sample. Especially as Grosjean & Deschamps (1972, 1973, 1975) found their French subjects to use longer breath groups and, therefore, fewer pauses than their English







subjects, while maintaining a similar speech rate.

Figures 11 to 13 for ISI1 by consonant 1 show a similar result to the previous three. Again, the French subjects show a linear relationship between ISI1 and C1 while the English subjects show a large increase in C1 for feet 1 to 3 followed by a decrease in feet 4 and 5. This is the opposite of the vowel data, which shows why the inter-stress interval is more consistent than either of its two main components, vowel and consonant duration. However, the French subjects show evidence of all three components being more like a linear composition.

Figure 12, with the subjects' individual means, shows again that the grouping is clearly by language. This time, the French subjects show shorter consonant duration than the English though, which could indicate a trade-off by maintaining a longer duration for the vowels in the inter-stress interval at the expense of the co-occurring consonants. While it has been claimed that English tends to reduce the duration of vowels more than consonants as speech rate increases (Port, 1981), the opposite tendency, of not reducing vowels but, shortening or, eliminating consonants, has been proposed for syllable-timed languages (Dauer, 1983).

The subjects' average durations for ISI14 and C1 collapsed across tokens (see Figure 13) show very similar regults to that of ISI1 and V1. The cohesive grouping of subjects by languages dissipates as inter-stress interval

Figure 11 - ISI1 by Consonant Duration (Languages)



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increases, but C1 duration seems to have less spread in the subjects' values. Of course, one ready answer for this is the large difference in average duration for the two values-ISI1: 548.0 msec. and C1: 210.1 msec. For this reason alone, the variation is decreased for C1. Another factor is that ISI1 also includes pauses and/or repetitions, which would inflate the durations reported, as well as increase variability among subjects. This is due to subjects having average pause durations of from 0 to 224.3 msec. This figure shows a more compact grouping for all subjects than does Figure 10, which i icates a greater variation in vowel duration than consonant duration. This supports Klatt's (1976) contention that vowels are more affected by rate and stress changes than consonants by indicating that subjects, who use different speaking rates, show fess variation inconsonant than vower duration.

Figure 14, showing means averaged over tokens and subjects, clearly shows that the English and French subjects do not treat V1 and C1 similarly. Interestingly, both groups have the same foot 1 values, and English foot 5 and French foot 4 share the same durations. Other than that, the values diverge much more than the other factors we have been examining. Again, this presents an argument in favour of Dauer's (1983) hypothesis, that the language structure differentiates languages and not their timing patterns. We have seen that the figures based on inter-stress interval show more similarity, yet the inter-stress interval is made



up of these two components, plus the pause time. For the divergence of these two factors to be cancelled out, to some extent, when they are added together indicates that the two subject groups share a common strategy for overall timing, with a much greater variation among the separate components.

The subjects average durations (see Figure 15) also point out the clear grouping by language. This does not differentiate the V1 by C1 analysis from the preceding two, as all three show an obvious separation. However, the other two are most clearly separated by ISI1, which, as we have already seen, is a component which lends itself to such differentiation more strongly. These figures have an elongated shape, whereas this figure has a fairly compact shape. Further, the two languages are clearly separated in dense aggregations about their respective means. In part, this can be attributed to the shorter duration of the two components being plotted. As eech is a motor activity (Allen, 1975), its variability is expressed as a percentage. This means that longer durations will entail greater variation. When this is combined with the lack of pause duration in the V1 by C1 graph, it explains most, if not all, of the reduction in variation among subjects.

In Figure 16, it is obvious that the coherence in the grouping for individual subjects! durations has increased. Both languages and foot size display clear influences, as opposed to the intermingling which becomes obvious as foot size increases in Figures 10 and 13. Also, the linear trend





for the French subjects retains a clear effect in the data. It seems reasonable to use a linear exponent for the French data, as the duration from the theoretical line is far less than is evident in the other figures. For English, the interesting point is that the general trend could be interpreted as showing stress isochronicity. At first, the vowel duration increases by a smaller amount than would be anticipated. When this is no longer possible (e.g. Klatt's (1976) incompressibility hypethesis), the consonant duration takes over and aids the struggle to stop the inter-stress interval from growing.

H. Ratios

Part of the problem with interpreting the ratio analyses of the data is that the shape the graphs would need to take to demonstrate syllable and stress isochronicity is unclear. No one has defined these hypotheses clearly enough in terms of their components to enable us to know what relationships to look for. For example, in a syllable-timed language, would all syllables share a constant ratio of vowel to consonant as well as a common duration? This, of course, then enters the area of segmental duration as Klatt s(1976) estimated that what he called "inherent phonological duration" accounts for 50% "of the variance in stressed vowel durations in a connected discourse." '. This is further backed up by Hill, Witten & Jassem (1978), who found

Klatt (1976), p. 1213.

phoneme type to govern 45% of the overall variance in segment duration for English.

For stress-timing, this lack of clarity is more profound as the inter-stress interval itself, while being maintained to be a constant duration, has never had this duration specified. In fact, the only measurement that seems appropriate with the data collected here, 499.7 msec., the average ISI1 duration, is only slightly shorter than foot 3, and would mean foot 1 would have to be double its measured . duration in order to fit. This duration as further supported by the lack of any apparent isochronicity from foot 1 to 3, which could indicate a shorter value. Since we are not told what effect fitting different feet into the inter-stress interval will have nor what duration the inter-stress interval is, it is imponently to determine whether the ratios presented here a with those predicted by the theory. One way to illustrate that these measurements show no sign of stress isochronicity is to choose a measure which maintained a consistent duration across the feet, such as first unstressed vowel, shown in figure 6(e). Under the assumption that the inter-stress interval was also constant, this figure would be a straight line across the plot. Another effect of stress isochronicity would be to render. these graphs as illustrations of the variance of the inter-stress interval component being plotted. Comparing figure 6(b), which shows stressed vowel/inter-stress interval, to figure 4, with stressed vowel duration alone,

it is obvious that more than the component is changing.

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of this study show little comfort for those who maintain the distinction between stress- and syllable-timing. Comparing the observed data with the data. predicted by the isochronic hypotheses, i is obvious that neither hypothesis accurately describes utterances. In view of the number of studies which have found similar results, it is clear that isochrony exists in language as it is produced in reasonate, it so covered by layers of other constraint's which creek its true aspect. Therefore, I consider these two concepts not to be appropriate descriptors of a language process. For an hypothesis to have validity, it must come, to light in some statistically significant way in the course of investigation. In the only study I have found which attempts to give a defined quantity to the tendency towards stress isochrony in English (Hill, Jassem & Witten, 1978), the authors claimed that it accounts for 9% of the variance in segment length. While such a figure may be low, it does not seem too much at odds with the data reported here. If such a breakdown is true, why should we group languages by a factor which is so minimal in relation to overall timing constraints?

At the base of stress and syllable isochrony is the assumption that timing patterns in language are malleable and subject to modification. In order for this to occur, the underlying muscle contractions would also need to be

reorganized. One question which has not been addressed is how such a massive change could take place. Is it reasonable to expect that a child learning English will start with a syllable-timed pattern and change to a stress-timed one automatically after a certain amount of practice and/or exposure (Allen & Hawkins, 1978)? How can we explain a Brazilian Portuguese speaker who shows indications of using syllable-timed speech in citation and stress-timed in casual speech (Major, 1981)? Obviously, this kind of change in motor commands can be achieved, but it is not the most attractive explanation, especially when we consider that an alternative exists which allows an explanation of both phenomena without recourse to alteration of timing control inside the central nervous system and brain.

As a further example, Daver (1983) claimed that all the languages he studied showed a consistent inter-stress interval of 500 msec. Because his figures match those of other investigators (Borzone de Manrique & Signorini, 1983; Uldall, 1971) as well as other evidence of human rhythmic activity (Allen, 1975; Lenneberg, 1967), this inter-stress interval of 500 msec. is well attested. When we consider, how stress- and syllable-timing would achieve an average

duration, it is obvious that they cannot telate to similar lines of motor control. A stress-timed, language would use a fixed inter-stress interval (presumably, 500 msec.),

requiring a Procrustean interface to squeeze up or stretch out the syllables to fit the time allotted. Syllable-timed

languages, however, would depend on an averaging of the durations of the actually occurring inter-stress intervals, as the ISI would depend on the number of syllables present. Such arrangements would require a method of adjusting the speed of the articulators depending on the foot size in English, with no concurrent adaptation in French. While this would explain the apparently more limited range of English feet, compared to French and Spanish, it raises many more questions. How can we explain a difference in underlying motor commands which correlates to language? And how can a person learn a language with a different type of timing than that of the native language?

This brings up the question of how timing control in speech is maintained. That speakers can control timing is beyond question - individuals possess an idiosyncratic speech rate, yet can speed up or slow down their output within a limited range. If this timing were located in a device external to the speech process itself, the coordination required with the language source would be immense, in order to account for variation such as long versus short vowels or differential shortening of segments and/or syllables as rate increases. Although hypothesizing different layers of timing control could account for this result, such that there are different mechanisms which account for segment, syllable and inter-stress duration, allowing each level to be adjusted in a nested fashion, the control required to implement speech could quickly become

impossible to exercise. When we consider how easily people can produce speech, even while engaged in other complex tasks, it seems apparent that not only practice is involved in explaining how the timing arises. It is possible that some form of top, down processing could explain how all the different layers of language interact to produce the observed result, but such a procedure seems doomed to hopeless complexity.

I do not maintain that elegance, or even lack of complexity, is required of any theory dealing with people's abilities. There is ample evidence to suggest that we are not bound by minimal complexity and simple functioning in our more conscious activities, such as choices between a multitude of options or attempts to optimize our work habits. However, there is an upper limit to the complexity of a situation which we can handle in a small amount of time. Although we can choose our ten favourite record albums of all time over a period of a few weeks, making the same choice in pen minutes would doubtless result in a different list. So, I do not argue that a solution to human behaviour must be put aside because it is complex. By breaking down a complex proposition into simpler components, we can analyze each section independently and obtain the result. The catch comes when we wish to obtain this result in a short space of time. Even under the assumption that, as a child learns a language, it also learns to automate a certain portion of the actions, phrases and responses used, a large chunk of

language is still left open as creative, non-repetitious, unrehearsed speech. It is in these cases that the constraints imposed by a complex operation are at their. maximum: Evidence from stutterers indicates that, when uttering rehearsed lines, as in singing or acting, there is no interference with the speech process. When the same people attempt to produce novel, utterances, however, they stutter (Healy, Mallard & Adams, 1976). This would indicate that a reading task, as used here, should give subjects a better chance to display the constraints imposed by the languages themselves and discard the production constraints on novel utterances. Even in a situation as relaxed as this, some subject's found it difficult to reproduce the text given to them, as is evidenced by the large amount of pause time. One French subject showed a decrease of 224.3 msec. in average inter-stress interval as a result of removing the pauses. This is roughly the average for foot 1! These difficulties with reading a text can, of course, arise due to limitations in other systems, such as faulty vision. No matter; pause time is an essential ingredient of language, even when strategically located at segment boundaries, as people need to breathe in order to speak. And this coordination adds another layer of complexity to the speech act, as well as to its analysis.

I believe that stress and syllable isochrony, as explanations for the perceived differentiation of spoken language, are incorrect. While the English and French

speakers tested show clearly that the languages do not treat the defined inter-stress intervals in an equivalent manner, a theory which claims the syllables are of equal duration in French is as patently wrong as one for inter-stress intervals of equal duration in English. The data do not support such an interpretation. Certainly, we can argue that French shows a greater tendency towards syllable-timing, as does English to stress-timing. The only problem with such a response is that it raises more questions than it answers. At the very least, we need a definition of tendency which can support further research before we can accept it; i.e. what percentage of this tendency is required before a ... language can be called either stress- or syllable-timed? If, on the other hand, we relegate isochrony to the perceptual domain, we need some explanation of how speech is timed in production. Perhaps syllable and stress isochrony refer to a phenomenon which relates to the interaction of speech production and perception. Clearly, the data indicate that neither hypothesis accurately describes the measured durations of the subjects. The gap between predicted and observed results is simply too large to be ignored by either experimenters or listeners.

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Appendix A

English - Firefighting Text

Lang

Once a forest fire is reported the firefighting strike force takes to the air. The fire-bombing tankers can be immediately called into service by the regional conservation society and used to mount an initial assault on the fire before it has had a charter to spread, and before the ground crews arrive. Some fires would be difficult to contain if it were not for these tankers, which are accompanied by a rapid twin-engine aircraft capable of speeds of up to 300 kilometres per hour and designated as the tracker aircraft with a firefighting expert on board. Aerial tracking is a radio communications system for guiding tankers and ensuring coordination between aerial firefighters and ground crews under conditions of maximum safety.

Helicopters are also useful because of their versatility and ability to perform highly specific tasks. In addition to scotting fires they are used in the transportation of firefighters and supplies. They also carry crews to areas on the perimeter of major fires to put out "spot" fires, isolated outbreaks detected by infrared Thermo-Vision scanners.

But, however spectacular the air attacks are, they alone cannot take on a forest fire. The battle must also be engaged from the ground: indeed it is the ground crews that are primarily responsible for bringing the fire under control. The head of the ground crews directs operations. He

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determines the size and direction of the fire, and the speed at which it is spreading, then sends his men ahead to make a firebreak by denuding the area of all combustible material on which the fire might feed. This firebreak is created with hand tools or heavy machinery such as fire plows or bulldozers; back-up comes from portable motor pumps that take enough water from nearby streams or lakes to drench the ground and stop the fire from spreading. The final step, once the fire has been contained, is to ensure that the fire cannot start up again or continue to smoulder for a few days and then flare up again with renewed vigor. Ground crews therefore go over the forest floor and area again with hoses making sure that every pocket of flame is well and truly extinguished.

<u>English - Train Text</u>

I had the train compartment to myself up to Rohana, and then a girl got in. As I had become blind, my eyes sensitive only to light and darkness, I was unable to tell what the girl looked like. But I knew she wore slippers from the way they slapped against her heels, and I liked the sound of her voice.

"Are you going all the way to Dehra Dun?" I asked.

I must have been sitting in a dark corner, because my voice startled her. She gave a little exclamation, and said "I didn't know anyone else was here."

I wondered if I would be able to prevent her from discovering that I couldn't see. I thought: Provided I keep to my seat, it shouldn't be too difficult.

The girl said, "I'm getting off at Saharanpur. My aunt is meeting me there. Where are you going?"

"To Dehra Dun and then to Mussoorie," I answered. "Oh, how lucky you are! I wish I were going to Mussoorie. I love the hills. Especially in October."

"Yes, this is the best time," I said, calling on my memories. "The hills are covered with wild dahlias, the sun is delicious, and at night you can sit in front of a log fire and drink a little brandy. Most of the tourists have gone, and the roads are quiet and almost deserted."

Then I made a mistąke. "What is it like outside?" I asked.

She seemed to find nothing strange in the question. Had she noticed already that I could not see? But her next question removed my doubts.

"Why don't you look out of the window?" she asked. The window was open, and I faced it, making a pretense of studying the landscape. "Have you noticed," I ventured, "that the trees seem to be moving while we seem to be standing still?"

"That always happens," she said.

I turned from the window and faced the girl, and for a while we sat in silence. "You have an interesting face," I said.

She laughed pleasantly, a clear, ringing laugh. "It's nice to be told I have an interesting face. I'm tired of people telling me I have a pretty face !"

Oh, so you <u>do</u> have a pretty face, I thought, and aloud I said: "Well, an interesting face can also be pretty."

"You'are very gallant," she replied. There was a pause. And then she said, "Thank goodness it's a short journey. I can't bear to sit in a train for more than two or three hours."

The engine's whistle shrieked, the carriage wheels changed their sound and rhythm. The girl got up and began to collect her things. I wondered if she wore her hair in a bun, or if it was plaited, or if it hung down loose over her shoulders, or if it was cut very short. The train drew slowly into the station. Outside, there was the shouting of porters and vendors, and a high-pitched female voice near the carriage door which must have belonged to the girl's aunt.

"Good-by, " said the girl,

There was some confusion in the doorway. A man getting into the compartment stammered an apology. Then the door banged shut, and the world was closed out again. I returned to my berth. The guard blew his whistle and we moved off. I found the window and sat in front of it, staring into the daylight that was darkness for me. The man who had entered the compartment broke into my reverie.

"You must be disappointed," he said. "I'm sorry I'm not as attractive a travelling companion as the one who just left!"

"She was an interesting girl," I said. "Can you tell me - did she keep her hair long or short?"

"I don't remember," he said. "It was her eyes I noticed, not her hair. She had beautiful eyes, but they were of no use to her - she was completely blind. Didn't you notice?"

<u>French</u> - <u>Firefighting</u> <u>Text</u>

Lorsqu'un incendie de forêt est repèré, la lutte débute du haut des airs. La Socièté de conservation peut faire appel immédiatement aux avions-citernes, dont l'utilisation a pour but de faciliter l'attaque initiale des incendies pendant qu'ils sont encore de dimensions réduites. En attendant l'arrivée des équipes au sol, les avions-citernes commencent la lutte qu'ils appuieront par la suite jusqu'à ce que l'incendie soit contenu. Sans ces avions-citernes, certains incendies pourraient difficilement être combattus. Ces avions-citernes sont accompagnés d'un bimoteur rapide (300 km/h) désigné sous le nom d'avion d'aéropointage, à bord duquel prend place un expert dans la lutte contre les incendies forestiers. L'aéropointage est une technique de quidage des avions-citernes visant à assurer, par les communications-radio, une bonne coordination de la lutte aérienne avec la lutte au sol, tout en garantissant la sécurité de l'opération.

Enfin, des hélicoptères, en raison de leur grande aptitude à répondre à des besoins spécifiques, servent á diverses tâches de transport de matériel et d'équipes, au repérage et également à l'observation des incendies; ils sont en outre utiles pour le déplacement, sur le périmetre des grands incendies, des équipes de suppression des fumées isolées, détectées à l'aide d'un appareil à infra-rouge appelé "thermo-vision".

Le combat contre le feu est également mené au niveau du sol. C'est d'ailleurs à l'équipe au sol que revient le principal rôle de neutralisation de l'incendie. Car, toute spectaculaire qu'elle soit, l'utilisation des avions-citernes ne peut, à elle seule, permettre de vaincre un incendie de fôret. Le chef de lutte de l'équipe au sol prend charge des opérations. Après avoir évalué l'ampleur, la direction et la vitesse de propagation de l'incendie, il déploie ses hommes dans un secteur où se dirige le feu, afin d'y effectuer un coupe-feu qui consiste à éliminer tout "aliment" combustible dont pourrait se nourrir l'incendie. Le coupe-feu est réalisé à l'aide d'outils manuels ou de machineries lourdes comme les béliers mécaniques (bouteurs). Et des motopompes, s'alimentant à même un cours d'eau voisin, serviront à acheminer en bordure du foyer d'incendie des milliers de gallons d'eau qui détremperont le sol à un point tel que le feu ne pourra s'y propager. Une fois l'incendie ainsi circonscrit, une dernière étape reste à accomplir. Afin d'éliminer tout risque ultérieur de reprise de l'incendie, l'équipe au sol arrose copieusement chaque petit foyer qui subsiste, car le feu pourrait couver pendant plusieurs jours et se propager de plus belle. Quand l'équipe au sol quitte finalement les lieux, l'incendie est bel et bien éteint.

<u>French - Train Text</u>

Jusqu'à Rohana, j'étais seul dans mon compartiment. Mais voilà qu'une jeune femme vient d'y pénétrer. A quoi ressemble ma compagne de voyage? Je n'en sais rien. Devenu aveugle, je ne distingue plus que les alternances de lumière et d'ombre. Mais au léger claquement de ses chaussures contre ses talons, je devine qu'elle porte des sandales. Et j'aime bien le son de sa voix.

"Allez-vous jusqu'à Dehra Dun?" dis-je.

Sans doute ai-je choisi un coin bien obscur pour m'asseoir, car elle sursaute et s'exclame:

"Je ne savais pas qu'il y avait déjà quelqu'un dans le compartiment!"

Serais-je capable de lui dissimuler ma cécité? Si je me contente de rester assis, cela ne devrait pas être impossible, après tout.

"Je m'artête a Saharanpur, reprend la jeune fille. Ma tante doit venir me chercher à la gare. Et vous?

-Je[®]vais à Dehra Dun, puis je continuerai sur Mussoorie.

-Oh! vous en avez de la chance! J'aimerais tant aller à Mussoorie, Les collines y sont si belles en octobre.

-Qui, c'est vraiment le meilleur temps de l'année, dis-je, m'enhardissant à évoquer mes souvenirs. Les collines embaument le dahlia sauvage, et le soleil est d'une tiédeur délicieuse. Le soir, on s'installe près du feu pour siroter un brandy. La majorité des touristes sont partis, les routes sont tranquilles, presque désertes."

Et alors, je commets une sottise:

ins in the

"Dites-moi, est-ce que c'est beau dehors?"

Elle ne paraît pas s'étonner de ma question. A-t-elle percé mon petit jeu? Sa réponse, en forme de question, me soulage.

"Pourquoi ne vous approchez-vous pas de la fenêtre?"

Le visage tourné vers la fenêtre ouverte, je fais mine de scruter le paysage.

"On dirait que ce^{*}sont les arbres qui se déplacent et pas nous. Avez-vous remarqué?

-C'est toujours comme ça", observe-t-elle.

Je me tourne vers elle. Pendant un bon moment, nous restons sans parler. Enfin, je hasarde: "Vous avez un visage intéressant."

Elle à un rire léger, clair et sans affectation.

"Voilà qui me change agréablement des banalités habituelles. J'en ai assez de me faire dire que je suis jolie!"

Donc, vous êtes jolie, me dis-je en moi-même, avant de répliquer:

"Un visage intéressant peut aussi être beau. -Vous êtes très aimable."

Le silence retombe. Cette fois, c'est elle qui renoue le fil de la conversation: "Dieu merci, le voyage n'est pas long. Après deux ou trois heures dans un train, je ne tiens plus en place." Le train siffle à en déchirer l'air. Sous nos pieds, les roues ne marquent plus le même rythme. Ma compagne s'est *levée et déjà s'apprête à partir. J'aimerais bien savoir comment elle est coiffée. A-t-elle les cheveux longs ou courts? Remontés, nattés ou dénoués?

Le train ralentit davantage, s'immobilise. Sur le quai, le long de notre wagon, une voix de femme haut perchée se mêle aux cris des porteurs et des vendeurs. Sûrement la tante.

"Au revoir", fait la jeune fille.

Il semble y avoir une petite bousculade à la porte. J'entends une voix d'homme qui bafouille des excuses, puis le nouvel arrivant referme la porte derrière lui, réduisant le brouhaha de la gare à une faible rumeur. Au coup de sifflet du chef de gare, nous redémarrons.

Assis à la fenêtre, le visage tourné vers l'extérieur, je contemple l'éternelle obscurité qui me masque le jour. Mon nouveau compagnon fait une remarque qui me tire de ma songerie.

"Vous devez bien êțre un peu déçu. Comme compagnon de voyage, je ne vaux sûrement pas la ravissante jeune femme qui vient de descendre!

-Elle était charmante. Dites-moi, avait-elle les cheveux longs ou courts?

-Ça, je n'en sais rien, me répondit-il d'un ton intrigué. Je n'ai pas remarqué ses cheveux, seulement ses yeux. Superbes, mais tellement inutiles! Elle est aveugle,

la pauvre. Ne l'avez-vous pas remarqué?"

Appendix B

Sampling Programme: Gee

1	C	
2		TO SAMPLE FROM TAPE RECORDER
3		AND RECORD ON MINGOGRAPH
		AND RECORD ON MINGOGRAPH
4	С	
5		CLEAR ALL
6	i.	LABEL 1
7	С	
8	Ŭ	DATA Y
9		DATA T
10		DATA SEG*8
11	С	
12		READ *TTY &SEG
13	ſ	SET NTH=32
		•
14		SET FREQ=8
15		SET SDIAL=3
16		SET SCROLL=ON
17		LABEL 0
18		CONTROL TR:PLAY
19		IF #SS:5 EQ 1 GOTO 0
20		SAMPLE
21		CONTROL TR:STOP
22		P
23	С	▲ · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	, υ	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
24		ED
25		LABEL 2
26		LOCK
27	*	WAIT 3SEC
28		IF #SS:1 EQ 1 PCURSE
29	•	IF #SS:2 EQ 1 PLAY
30	÷.,	IF #SS:0 EQ 1 GOTO 2
31		EX &SEG
3.2		RETURN
33	C	
		OTTE ICEC
34	·	QUE &SEG
35		MEAS DUR &Y &T
36		PRINT &Y &T
37		SET FMODE=ON
38		CALP
		SYMBOL 100 512 6 H TURN MINGOGR
39		
40		APH ON
41		SET FREQ=1
42		WAIT 5SEC
43		PLAY
44	C	
45		WAIT 1SEC
46		DWA &SEG
47	· .	GOTO 1
48		END
END	OF	
	Ur.	с. С. Т.Т.Т.
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S-orpoist

Display Programme: Sig

1 2	C C TO BRING SIGNAL FROM DISK C
3 [′] 4 5	C CLEAR ALL
6	SET VI=600
7	DATA X 0
8	DATA Y 16
9 10 11 12	C DO NOT FORGET TO PUT DISK C ON WRITE PROTECT FOR SAMA2 C
13	\$SYS GET 5 0 0 0
14	C
15 16	C SAMPLE
17	PRINT GIVE ME DISK
18	STARTING BLOCK NUMBER
19 20 21	C READ *TTY &X C
22	LABEL 0
23	\$SYS READ &X 20 0 &Y
24	ADD &X 16
25	C
26	PRINT &X &Y
27	ADD &Y 8
28	IF &Y LE 56 GOTO 0
29	C
30 31 32	SCALE 1000 511 PLAY
33	PR NOW YOU HAVE SIGNAL,
34 ·	PRESS SENSE SWITCH 3
35	LABEL 2
36	C
37	IF #SS:3 EQ 1 LINK G1
38	GOTO 2
39	END OF FILE
END	OF FILE

 \mathbf{r}

Measurement Programme: G1

1 2 3 4	C C C C C	TO MEASURE TIME SEQUENCES OF STUTTERING
5 6 7 8	-	PR SENSE SWITCH 1 PLAYS WHOLE SIGNAL SENSE SWITCH 0 PLAYS BETWEEN CURSORS
9 10 11 12 13	C C	PR BEFORE YOU FINISH LAST SEGMENT, PRESS SENSE SWITCH 3
14 15 16 17	C	DATA Y DATA T DATA SEG*8
18 19 20 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22 22	С	LABEL 0 PR GIVE ME SEGMENT NAME READ *TTY &SEG SET NTH=64
	с с с с с с с с	TO EXTRACT SIGNAL FOR MEASURING DURATION
	c	EDITOR LABEL 1 LOCK
	•	WAIT 3SEC IF #SS:0 EQ 1 PCURSE IF #SS:1 EQ 1 PLAY IF #SS:5 EQ 0 GOTO 1 EX &SEG RETURN
	C	QUE &SEG MEASURE DUR &Y &T PRINT &Y &T SINK NUMBER *OUT WRITE *OUT &SEG &Y &T
	C	PLAY DWA &SEG QUE SAM
	OF	IF #SS:3 EQ 1 LINK SIG GOTO 0 END FILE

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ISI1 Measurements

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ISI2 Measurements

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$\begin{array}{c} 108\\ 92\\ 70\\ 33\\ 88\\ 102\\ 64\\ 82\\ 56\\ 91\\ 84\\ 60\\ 68\\ 56\\ 65\\ 118\\ 111\\ 94\\ 93\\ 92\\ 125\\ 52\\ 91\\ 67\\ 92\\ 103\\ 52\\ 78\\ 71\\ 100\\ 133\\ 72\\ 53\\ 81\\ 65\\ 120\\ 73\\ 861\\ 91\\ 114\\ 92\\ 83\\ 64\\ 73\\ 110\\ 67\\ 78\\ 167\end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 60\\ 128\\ 91\\ 952\\ 148\\ 161\\ 586\\ 128\\ 952\\ 148\\ 164\\ 956\\ 128\\ 396\\ 157\\ 152\\ 128\\ 157\\ 152\\ 128\\ 104\\ 137\\ 104\\ 136\\ 104\\ 115\\ 126\\ 256\\ 104\\ 115\\ 126\\ 256\\ 104\\ 115\\ 126\\ 125\\ 104\\ 115\\ 126\\ 125\\ 104\\ 135\\ 108\\ 145\\ 108\\ 135\\ 108\\ 145\\ 108\\ 135\\ 108\\ 145\\ 108\\ 135\\ 108\\ 145\\ 108\\ 135\\ 108\\ 108\\ 108\\ 108\\ 108\\ 108\\ 108\\ 108$	$\begin{array}{c} 152\\ 120\\ 124\\ 145\\ 96\\ 140\\ 134\\ 128\\ 146\\ 96\\ 254\\ 134\\ 159\\ 254\\ 159\\ 254\\ 159\\ 254\\ 159\\ 254\\ 159\\ 254\\ 126\\ 134\\ 125\\ 217\\ 108\\ 558\\ 111\\ 120\\ 139\\ 122\\ 111\\ 424\\ 139\\ 962\\ 218\\ 111\\ 108\\ 155\\ 128\\ 112\\ 124\\ 121\\ 124\\ 121\\ 111\\ 424\\ 139\\ 962\\ 218\\ 173\\ 112\\ 114\\ 204\\ 139\\ 127\\ 184\\ 173\\ 112\\ 114\\ 204\\ 139\\ 127\\ 184\\ 173\\ 112\\ 116\\ 128\\ 128\\ 128\\ 128\\ 128\\ 128\\ 128\\ 128$	$\begin{array}{c} 196\\ 116\\ 161\\ 152\\ 46\\ 128\\ 236\\ 128\\ 654\\ 94\\ 217\\ 100\\ 221\\ 145\\ 100\\ 133\\ 101\\ 507\\ 117\\ 108\\ 816\\ 107\\ 888\\ 16962\\ 232\\ 779\\ 100\\ 102\\ 577\\ 108\\ 88962\\ 232\\ 779\\ 100\\ 102\\ 577\\ 108\\ 104\\ 107\\ 888962\\ 232\\ 79\\ 100\\ 100\\ 100\\ 100\\ 100\\ 100\\ 100\\ 10$	$\begin{array}{c} 144\\ 180\\ 64\\ 124\\ 83\\ 160\\ 140\\ 64\\ 120\\ 85\\ 161\\ 140\\ 52\\ 124\\ 56\\ 180\\ 193\\ 64\\ 126\\ 193\\ 64\\ 120\\ 193\\ 64\\ 136\\ 157\\ 94\\ 117\\ 151\\ 79\\ 161\\ 156\\ 151\\ 212\\ 212\\ 216\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 222\\ 216\\ 143\\ 132\\ 122\\ 216\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 142\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143\\ 143$	$\begin{array}{c} 147\\ 112\\ 92\\ 100\\ 64\\ 158\\ 111\\ 16\\ 88\\ 72\\ 192\\ 78\\ 87\\ 192\\ 78\\ 87\\ 192\\ 78\\ 87\\ 192\\ 78\\ 87\\ 192\\ 78\\ 87\\ 100\\ 96\\ 102\\ 117\\ 110\\ 111\\ 161\\ 82\\ 83\\ 127\\ 74\\ 90\\ 75\\ 90\\ 138\\ 92\\ 64\\ 99\\ 112\\ 168\\ 96\\ 76\\ 92\\ 79\\ 149\\ 91\\ 70\\ 80\\ 1221\\ 209\end{array}$

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