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# COMPARISONS OF PHONETIC CONTEXT DISTRIBUTIONS

#### IN LEXICAL AND ADULT-GENERATED

NONSENSE UTTERANCES (TITLE)

e BY

# PATRICIA DIANE FRANKLAND

# THESIS

# SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL, EASTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY CHARLESTON, ILLINOIS

1974 YEAR

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THIS THESIS BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE GRADUATE DEGREE CITED ABOVE

10 Dec 74 DATE 10 Dec 74 DATE

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# CHAPTER I

#### INTRODUCTION

Our language contains many words. People seem to agree that these words differ from one another in length, frequency of usage, and sound usage. However, what constitutes human word choice and make-up seems to be a controversial point. "Words are not useful because they are frequent, but frequent because they are useful" (C. K. Ogden, 1927). It seems that words such as "the," "for," "a," "and," "I," and "in" are used many times in our everyday communication. Is there areason why this occurs?

Speech is only a form of human communication (Zipf, 1965). Zipf applied statistical principles to the "observable phenomena of the stream of speech" (1965) and found that probably "the most striking feature of words is difference in lengths" (1965). They can range in length from one phoneme to a sequence of phonemes. Of greater importance for this study, he noted that shorter words occurred more frequently. After studying many languages and speech units of various sizes from phonemes, syllables, words, and sentences, he formulated his Law of Abbreviation. It states that "the length of a word tends to bear an inverse relationship to its relative frequency" (1965). This Law of Abbreviation seems to hold for other sizes of speech units. Another name for this concept is the Law of Economy of Effort. In simpler terms, people would rather use shorter words that require the least amount of effort.

The most remarkable feature of Zipf's Law is the orderliness of the frequency distribution of words in the speech stream. Just as the words vary in their rank order of frequency usage, so do the phonetic contexts, syllables, and phonemes that make up these words. For this study, phonetic context is defined as the totality of phonetic conditions affecting the production of a given speech sound (Evans, 1974). Thus, Zipf's Law predicts that phonetic contexts vary in their frequency of occurrence.

Why does this relationship exist?

Faced with this massive statistical regularity, you have two alternatives. Either you assume that it reflects some universal property of the human mind, or you can assume that it represents some necessary consequences of the laws of probability. Zipf chose the synthetic hypothesis and searched for a principle of least effort that would explain the apparent equilibrium between uniformity and diversity in our use of words (Zipf, 1965).

Simply put, there seems to be two possible explanations concerning this relationship between word length and frequency: "(1) the length is a cause of the frequency of usage, or (2) the frequency of usage is a cause of the length" (Zipf, 1965). It does not seem feasible that the shortness of a word could cause its frequency of occurrence because a speaker selects his words according to the meanings and ideas he wants to convey and not according to lengths. Thus, there seems to be no plausible reason to support the idea that a word's small magnitude causes its high frequency of usage (Zipf, 1965).

Another factor should be mentioned in the analysis of speech-sound occurrence-comparative philology (the science of language meaning). Philological study(Zipf, 1965) shows that the articulation of any phoneme is favored more in certain positions than in others, depending upon the adjacent sounds. The basis for these productions is found in a principle of coarticulation. Namely, ease of production is greater when the vocal mechanism producing the sound is already, to some extent, arranged for the following sound. Thus, because of the organization of the vocal mechanism, any given phoneme is easier to produce in some phonetic contexts than in others--coarticulation effects. Ease of production depends upon the structure of the combinations in which the phoneme occurs (Zipf, 1965; Evans, 1974). Consequently, it is probable that people arrange their vocal mechanisms for sound combinations where the production is comparatively smooth, this is the most favorable position of the phoneme. However, favorable position is a matter of degree. Thus, frequency of occurrence varies in an orderly manner (Evans, 1974).

Now the varying degrees of difficulty in the articulation of a phoneme resulting from the different combinations in which it occurs, together with the various relative frequencies of occurrences of the phonemes in its different combinations, may introduce a modification in the normal distribution of speech-sounds about the phonemic norm, which, it seems, may well be termed 'skewness' (Zipf, 1965).

# STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Several factors of speaking are important to phonetic context (Fleming, 1971). Among those related to phonetic context are ease of production, discrimination, and learning. Thus, it seems that speaking people have a repertoire of phonetic contexts that they call upon in various degrees. How can spontaneous utterances be tested to verify this fact and at the same time maintain validity? One answer might be to analyze words not based on prior semantic learning and examine the resulting phonetic contexts. Thus, adults could be asked to expressively respond with nonlexical items in an artificial situation. These nonlexical utterances could be analyzed and rank ordered for phonetic context. This could also prove the theory that phonetic contexts occur in varying degrees. The content validity of the Thorndike-Lorge list of 1,000 words, which was the original locus of content study, would be measured, too.

Since previous studies have dealt with the rank orderings of phonetic contexts, it would be important to find the contexts most frequently used in an artificial situation, and whether people use certain phonetic contexts more often than others on a regular basis.

This was a study of content validity. Kerlinger (1964) stated that "Content validity is guided by the question: Is the substance or content of this measure representative of the content or universe of content of the property being measured?" Content validity involves the adequacy of the

sampling or the representativeness of the part as a measure for the whole. Here, the universe is phonetic context frequency distributions, represented by the Thorndike-Lorge list of 1,000 most frequently occurring words. But, are the context distributions in adult-generated nonsense utterances representative of the universe?

The purpose of this study was to compare the phonetic context distributions in lexical and adult-generated nonsense utterances.

Specifically, the following questions were posed at the onset of the

study.

- What is the resultant rank order of frequency of occurrence of phonetic contexts in nonlexical utterances for the following twenty phonemes: /r/, /s/, /l/, /z/, /tf/, /dg/, /æ/, /\$/, /f/, /aI/, /k/, /n/, /u/, /d/, /I/, /a/, /e/, /g/, and /i/?
- 2. To what extent do the phonetic contexts of the nonlexical utterances rank order themselves in a manner similar to their frequency of occurrence for each of the twenty phonemes in the English language?

Stated as research hypotheses:

- 1. The above twenty phonemes can be rank ordered according to frequency of occurrence of phonetic contexts.
- There is no significant difference in the phonetic context distributions in lexical and adult-generated nonsense utterances.

# CHAPTER II

#### **REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

Word counts are not new in the literature. Many have been compiled over the years. Godfrey Dewey (1923) made an extensive study of the frequency of occurrence of words, syllables, and basic vowel and consonant sounds from written material. The Horns (E. Horn, 1925; M. D. Horn, 1928) did a word count on children's language. In 1930, French, Carter, and Koenig compiled an oral word count list based on telephone conversations terminating in New York City. Travis (1931) and Mader (1931) also reported ranking of sounds according to their frequency. The Thorndike-Lorge frequency lists (1944), which supplanted the earlier word counts of Thorndike (1932), were developed from printed texts for both adults and children. Rinsland (1945) completed a word list from school writing. Another word list was compiled by Dale and Chall (1948) using written texts. Burroughs (1957) and Haywood (1959) compiled spoken word counts based on children in interview situations and in free play, respectively. Language used in school texts has also been the basis for word lists (Fullmer and Kolson, 1961; Olson, 1965), Howes (1966) obtained a count of spoken language for adults by interviewing university

students and V. A. hospital patients. Jones and Wepman (1966) did a similar count for the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) protocols of normal adults. In 1967, Kucera and Francis compiled a word count based on general written American English. Emans (1969) based his word count on common signs. Carroll (1971) has composed the most recent word count based on oral language.

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Past word counts, based on purpose, sample size, source, year, and findings are summarized on the following pages.

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	8 FINDINGS
Literary Word Count	D <b>ew</b> ey, Melvil	1900	Word count	60,000 words in English literature	counted 60,000 words in twelve 5,000 word selec- tions from stan- dard English lit- erature	did not itemize the infrequent words counted, so could not be used as a basis for analysis of syllables and sounds
<u>The London</u> <u>Point Sistem</u> <u>/sic/ of</u> <u>Reading for the</u> <u>Blind</u>	Knowles, Rev. J.	1904	word count from Bible	not given to detail, other than 100,000 words	100,000 words of 'passages from the English Bible and from various authors'	gives in fre- quency order, the frequency of occurrence of the 353 most common words (those words which occur 25 times or more)
Six Thousand Common English Words, Their Comparativ /sic/ Frequency and What Can Be Done With Them	Eldridge, R. C.	1911	newspaper word count	four different issues of Sun- day newspapers published in Buffalo, N. Y. in July and August of 1909	four newspapers and 34,989 words	gives the order of frequency of occurrence of the 6,002 different words found in the newspapers of which the most frequent 750 con- stitute over 75% of the whole material analyzed

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
The Spelling Vocabularies of Personal and Business Letters	Ayres, Leonard P.	1913	letter word count	2,000 people's letters	tabulates 23,629 words from 2,000 short letters	found 2,001 diff- erent words and reports frequency of the more common
The Child and His Spelling	Cook, W. A. and O'Shea, M. V.	1914	word count from adult corres- pondence	thirteen adult family letters	adult letters of correspondence	gives several alphabet lists, with frequencies given; shows 186 words used by all 13 correspondents; 577 words used by a majority of the correspondents; no clear statement made of the most frequent words or their combined frequency, only 5,200 different words are found in the total 200,000
<u>Concrete</u> <u>Investigation</u> <u>of the Mat-</u> <u>erial of English</u> <u>Spelling</u>	Jones, W. Franklin	1914	word count in written themes	15,000,000 words	15,000,000 words of specifically writ- ten grade themes, according to the grade in which each was first used by at least 2% of the students	found 4,532 different words; lists 100 "spelling demons" or the most 100 frequently mis- spelled words, but gives no direct information as to the relative frequency of words
	•		HARLESION			

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	10 FINDINGS
<u>A Measuring</u> <u>Scale for</u> <u>Ability in</u> <u>Spelling</u>	Ayres, Leonard P.	1915	written word count	2,500 persons	based on the mat- erial of the lists of Cook, Knowles, Eldridge, and Ayres properly weighted and com- bined and reduced to a basis of occurrence per 100,000 words	368,000 written words; more than 2/3 of the words came from personal and business letters; gives in order of frequency the frequency of each per 100,000 words; the most common 1,000 make up 91,899 per 100,000; and the 100 most common words make up 59,591; lists in alphabetical order with frequencies, the second and third most common 1,000 words
Teacher's Word Book	horndike, Edward L. and Lorge, Irving	1921 (re- vised 1931-2 1944	written word count	41 sources of writing from adults and children	a count of 4,565,000 words from litera- ture for children; words from the Bible and English classics; elemen- tary school text books; books about cooking, sewing, farming and the trades; daily newspapers and correspondence	counted only lexical units, to make an alphabet- ical list of 10,000 words most frequent; a mea- sure of range and frequency of word occurrence are both given. (Range=how many of the 41 sources used the word.) (Frequency= how

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	11 FINDINGS
						often it is used. The measure of range and fre- quency of occur- rence are given by the credit number following the word. (Credit number of 49 or over means word is in first 1,000; 29-48=second 1,000; 19-28= third 1,000.)
		1932 revi- sion		200 sources	as above	gave 20,000 most frequent words
		1944 revi- sion		sources from first two studies plus three other counts	as above; but was first two studies, plus three other counts, including Lorge's magazine word count	counted over 4½ million words in three last counts; lead to list of 30,000 words of frequency
Relativ /sic7 Frequency of English Speech Sounds	Dewey, Godfrey	1923 re- vised 1950	to determine relative fre- quency of occurrence of simple sounds and sound com- binations in written and spoken English,	5,000 sources of written, spoken, and printed mat- erial	<pre>15% newspaper editorial English 15% newspaper news English 15% modern fiction 5% novel 5% short story 5% drama</pre>	Nearly all previou studies had dealt with wholly the frequency of words found 10,161 different words in 100,000; listed according to the following:

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	12 FINDINGS
			plus the fre- quency of syllables and words		<pre>10% modern American speeches 5% personal corr- espondence 5% business corr- espondence 5% modern adver- tising 5% religious Eng- lishBible, sermons, edi- torials 5% (popular) scientific English maga- zines 5% modern "spe- cial articles" from maga- zines 5% magazine edi- torial English 5% Saturday Even- ing Post 5% Literary Digest</pre>	a.) phonetic- ally transcribed in notation based on Revised Sci- entific Alphabet (based on 48 sounds); b.) analyzation of phonetic trans- criptions with re- spect to syllables c.) analysis of separate single sounds, with every variant of a singl root treated as a separate word Found 10,119 diff- erent words arr- anged in order of frequency of occ- urrence. Found 1,027 most common words based on occurrence more than 10 times each Used the Standard Dictionary (Funk & Wagnalls, N. Y.). total of 143,000 syllables for the 100,000 words; the 1,370 most fre- quent of these syllables formed

		a na shi Na shi a sa				13
NAME OF The study	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
"Conversation Among Children"	Zyne, Claire T.	1927	analysis of children's tendencies in unhampered con- versation	31 third grade children	13 boys and 18 girls in a free conversation period in the Training School of San Jose State Teacher's College during three months, from March 10 to June 10, 1926 Done in two 15 minute conversation periods each day, one at 9:00 a.m. and one at 2:45 p.m. All conversations were recorded and stenographically transcribed later.	<pre>133,586 syllable occurrences, or over 93% of the total. Single sounds counted according to occurrence in I, M, or F in syllables and similarly in words Also gave summar- ies of occurrences of proper names, numerals, abbrev- iations, and punc- tuation. found percentage of discussion time around certain topics; percentage of time talking spent by each speaker in the conversation; per- centage of total number of words used, and fre- quency of use of different parts of speech</pre>

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	14 FINDINGS
"The Commonest Words in the Spoken Vocabu- lary of Child- ren up to and Including Six Years of Age"	Horn, Ernest	1925	find words used most up to age six	over 150 children	combined three studies with: Ernest Horn's 80 children from age 1-6 years; Mrs. Horn's kindergarten students of Iowa and Minneapolis; and P. C. Packer's first graders in Detroit	from putting to- gether these three groups, found near ly 5,000 differ- ent words; found a list, more limited, that average first graders should know, by finding words in the first three lists with a total frequency of 15 or more to make the list of 10,000 words
"A Basic Writing Voc- abulary"	Horn, Ernest	1926	to compile the 10,000 words most commonly used in writing	untold amount of adult corr- espondence	business corres- pondence, personal letters, letters from people of more than average lit- erary ability, letters printed in magazines and metropolitan news- papers, letters of application, and letters of recommendation, other miscellan- eous correspondence minutes, resolu- tions, and comm- ittee reports, ex- cuses written to teachers by parents	all words, inclu- ding slang, collo- quial and supposed ly slang words wer recorded, wit pro- per names, words of less than four letters and most prepositions (41 more words) deleted. Each form of a word was tabulated separately. All abbreviations and contractions were recorded as writ- ten; frequency tabulations and analyses of each

NAME OF	DF-					15
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SCURCE	FINDINGS
						type of corres- pondence were made separately; from this then, a percentage of total words in each category which occurred most frequently was taken to make up a gen- eral list of the "10,000 words most commonly used in adult writing"
"The Words and Sounds of Telephone Conversations"	French, Norman R.	<b>1930</b>	find frequency of occurrence of words, sounds, syllabic struc- ture, and con- sonants	approximately 3,800 different speakers, mainly adults	telephone conversa- tions over typical toll circuits ter- minating in New York; a woman ob- server recorded certain parts of speech for 1500 conversations; the next week she counted only verbs in 500 conversa- tions; and the next week, only adjectives and adverbs were counted in 500 conversations; also recorded for 150 conversations each	has tables listing the most fre- quently occurring words, relative occurrences of sounds, syllabic structure of words and the percentage of distribution of consonants both preceding and following each vowel; comparisons for words were made based on ratios of total number of words to number of differ- ent words; ob- tained approxi-

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SCURCE	16 FINDINGS
					were pronouns, prepositions, con- junctions, and articles. The entirety of all conversations were recorded.	mately 80,000 words, of which less than 3% or 2,240 words were different words. The 50 most common words were different words in the conversa- tions listed in order of their respective fre- quencies of occur- rence. Words were divided into phonetic syllables then sounds, then frequency of occurrence of each sound was given. Found /w/ to be the most fre-
"An Analysis of the Conversation of Children and Adults"	Nice, M. M.	1932	finding parts of speech most frequently used by child- ren and adults	four children six adults	Margaret Morce Nice's four dau- ghters, from age 30 months to 10 years, her hus- band, and five people in the fam- ily from a course of general conver- sation in house- hold activities	quently occurring initial consonant. In general, the findings were that adults use more nouns and pre- positions and fewer pronouns and adjectives than children. Found a great difference in the frequency of word

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	17 FINDINGS
					for the adults and in play with children (no subject suspected his or her words being recorded.)	counts for the children and adults based on four categories of 2½ years; 3-4 years; 5-10 years; and adults. for 5-10 years was much agreement wit the frequency of words and Horn's (1943) list of most common words for kindergarten children. Could note a progressive decrease in the frequency of the use of the word "I"; decrease in concrete and vivid ideas to mor abstraction; less use of nouns and more of pronouns; less use of ges- tures and more of prepositions, and less emotional speech with more intellectual con- tent and the ability to draw finer distinctions

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	18 FINDINGS
The Basic Voca- bulary of Busi- ness Letters	Horn, Ernest & Peterson, Thelma	last c.w. 1943 ini- tial work 1919 and 1922	to improve sel- ection of words for spelling, and words which present little spelling difficulties	5,136,815 words from adult business letters	Following sources were investigated: a.) vocabulary of business corres- pondence b.) vocabulary of personal letters c.) vocabulary of letters of people with more than average literary ability d.) vocabulary of letters of appli- cation and rec- ommendation e.) vocabulary of adult writing, other than correspondence f.) letters of a single adult written over a period of 8 years. All words were re- corded, (including colloquialism, "obsolete" words and slang, but ex- cluding names of persons, places (proper names), months, and days or words of less than four letters.	Total number of words compiled was 5,136,815. The words for each class of business were arranged in alphabetical order with the total frequency of each word, the compiled frequencies were also computated.

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	19 FINDINGS
<u>A Basic Vocabu- lary of Elem- entary School</u> <u>Children</u>	Rinsland, Henry D.	<b>1947</b>	written word count	100,212 children grades 1-8	Children's writings from 1500 selected schools in all kinds of geo- graphic, economic, and social areas in the U.S. Ob- tained all kinds of children's writings representing their freest and most natural composi- tions; this inclu- ded personal notes, poems, examination papers, stories, compositions, arti- cles for school papers, and reports on projects, trips, and observations. Used only one composition from each child in grades 1-8.	Tallied words according to in- flectional units (as did Horn, rather than by lexical units as did Thorndike). Therefore, plurals etc. were tallied separately. Found 25,632 different words for a total of 6,012,359 running words. Lists the first 100; 500; 1,000; and 2,000 words for each grade.
"Tested Word Knowledge Vs. Frequency Counts"	Dolch, E. W.	1951	to ascertain word knowledge of children via interview test and frequency countPre- vious word counts were based on words children have	19,000 words 100 children beginners in grade one	Used the words found in the <u>Interview Vocabu-</u> <u>lary Study</u> and the word counts in the Combined Vocabu- lary List (1936). Thus having 19,000 words from these eleven counts.	

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	20 FINDINGS
			spoken or written. These word counts were based on what could then be used in basal readers. Therefore, the assumption was that children are using all the words they know in propor- tion to the familiarity of the words to them. However, this was a word count based on word knowledge, not word use.		Used pictures of the objects them- selves, or an explanation when objects or pic- tures couldn't be used.	To say a word was known to the majority of these children meant that 75 of 100 had to know what it meant. Found the generated list to be useful. How- ever, also found that children often appear to know a word through oppor- tunity and emotion al set. They do not speak and write about every- thing they know, but about inter- ests, attractions, or things they have opportunity to communicate about.
"The Relative Frequency of Occurrence of English Conson- ant Speech Sounds in Words in the Speech of Children in Grades One, Two, and Three"	Mader, John B.	1954	to find fre- quencies of occurrences of consonants of English in the I, M, F posi- tions of words for the child- ren of this age	81 students in grades 1-3	were students of the Demonstration School of Florida State University; 46 boys, 35 girls, ranging in age from 5-9 years to 9-0 years; was an interview-type of situation with	Found that five sounds, /n/, /t/, /d/, /r/, and /s/, made up 49% of the total occurrences of all sounds re- gardless of posi- tion of occurrence The general fre- quency of occur-

		· · · ·				
						21
NAME OF	RE-					
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
					guestions directed	rence of conson-
					toward trips made	ants was in the
					by the students,	same relative or-
					movies, and school	der for both
					activities. Each	boys and girls.
					interview was ap-	Rank ordering of
					proximately 10	frequencies were
					minutes. Record-	in close corre-
					ed all conversa-	lation with those
					tions, then, from	found by Voelker
					this, made a type-	and Travis. Found
					written copy of	consonants did not
					each conversation,	occur equally or
	$(f_{1}, \dots, f_{n}) \neq (f_{n}, f_{n})$				analyzed each text	approximately
					to determine fre-	equally in the
					quency and position	I, M, F positions
	بالمراجع والمراجع				of occurrence of	of words. Found
		l'Argen a suite			each consonant	in all grade
					sound used. 1=	levels that 5 con-
					First sound in word	sonants occur in
					F=last; M=all otner	the initial posi-
					/r/ was considered	tion over 90% or
					a consonant even	the time: //,
					when it appeared as	/1/, /W/, /J/,
					a vowel of sent-	and /nw/. Nine
					were not considered	initial position
					as such for ex-	over 70% of the
					ample in /str/ /s	time. One sound
					was T. $/t/=M. /r/=$	occurs in F posi-
					F. Used Webster's	tion over 90% of
					Collegiate Diction-	the time: $/z/$ -
					ary and the first	Every sound but
			$\label{eq:stars} \left\{ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$		listed pronuncia-	/di/ was recorded
					tion of each word.	at least once in
		the second				and the second

NAME OF	BE-					22
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
						every position. $\partial_3/$ did not occur in the final posi- tion. Four sounds $/s/, /\theta/, /w/$ , and /h/ made up 46% of all I sounds. Fiv sounds: /n/, /d/, /t/, /r/, and /z/ made up over 69% of all F sounds. True of all grades and both sexes, there was little variance between the two for either frequency or posi- tion of occurrence of sounds.
"Quantitative Study of the Speech of Australian Children"	Harwood, F.W.	1959	to record speech of these children in a variety of sit- uations to ob- tain a speech vocabulary rep- resentative of such children	24 "poor" child- ren; aged 4 years, 11 months up to 5 years 8 months	Utterances from transcript of children's utter- ances were re- corded for the Australian Council for Educational Research. Speech was recorded by stenographers.	Obtained approxi- mately 12,700 utterances of abou 99,000 running words. Transi- tions in sentence structures were then studied.

NAME OF THE STUDY "A Beginning Reading Vocabu- lary"	RE- SEARCHER Fullmer, Daniel W and Kolson, Clifford J.	YEAR 1961	PURPOSE to develop a word list to "guide the teacher in developing a word recogni- tion necessary for success in beginning reading"	SAMPLE SIZE eleven basal readers	SOURCE eleven basal readers totalling 45 pre-primers, primers, and first readers published between 1954 and 1959	23 FINDINGS Occurrence of individual words, according to a frequency criter- ian, and correla- tion with the Kindergarten Union List and Dolch Basic Sight Voc- abulary (1951) were tabulated. Final list con- tained 184 words. Had a complete overlap of this list and the IKU list. 64% over-
"A Word Count of Spoken English"	Howes, David	1965	spoken word count	41 adults (20 sophomores, 21 hospital patients)	Used 20 students from the Boston University School of Medicine and 21 patients from the Boston Vet- erans Administra- tion Hospital in Massachusetts. Recorded from 1960- 1965. Used inter- view technique and recorded 250,000 words50 inter-	Dolch. Transcribed into Standard English orthography with variations in dia- lect not consider- ed and omitted sounds in pro- nunciation added. Webster's Third International Dictionary used for spellings. Found a total of 9,699 different

						24
NAME OF	RE-					
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
					views of 5,000 words each. Used 100,000 words from student popula- tion and 150,000 words from hospi- tal patients. To obtain a sample of general conversa- tion, the initial stimulus for the patients was, "Tell me what brought you to the hospital;" and, to the stu- dents, "Tell me about the field you're majoring in." When conversation lagged, the inter- viewer would inter- ject, "Tell me a- bout your family," or "What do you think of the poli- tical situation?"	words of which 4,097 occurred only once in the complete sample. Student and patient counts were tabulated separately.
"Analysis of the Vocabulary of Seven Primary Reading Series"	Olson, Arthur V.	1965	to check for a smooth and pro- gressive in- crease in voca- bulary develop- ment between and among reading series	seven basal readers	seven basal readers at the pre-primer, primer, and first reader levels The vocabulary of each reader series was placed in al- phabetical order,	Found uneven transitions of vocabulary devel- opment both bet- ween and among reading series. Found a core voca- bulary of 92 words

						25
NAME OF	RE-					
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
					then total number of words and num- ber of new words introduced were checked at each level. Also gave a count of fre- quency of words appearing in five or more of the series.	common to five or more of the series.
A Spoken Word	Jones, Lyle V.	1966	to compare nor- mal to aphasic adult speech	54 adults aged 18-80; with ed- ucational level of second grade to Ph. D. with a preponderence of older people	Speech was collec- ted by asking each adult to tell a story based on 20 pictures from the Thermatic Apper- ception Test (Murray, 1943). Was a more spon- taneous speech collection than by many other means.	Presents a com- posite list of different words spoken by a selected sample of 54 English speak- ing adults. Gives a frequency count with which the different words were used. The most frequent 33 spoken words were found to account for more than 50% of all words uttered, averaged over the speakers. Found (as Zipf, 1935, 1949) that the word length was related to the frequency of usage

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	26 FINDINGS
						Mean length of first ten was 2.20 letters and second ten was 3.70 letter Lists, in order of mean relative fre- quency, the 1,102 most frequent words used by the 54 adults (all occurring at a mean rate of at least 4 per 100,000 Lists all words spoken by at least two respondents in alphabetical order under its grammatical class and all in alphabetical order combined. Total number of words from the 54 speak- ers was 136,450 with a range of words per person of 1,032 to 5,276. Transcribed tapes in traditional or- thography with dia- lectual variations ignored and omitted sounds in pro- nunciation added in transcription.

		an a				27
NAME OF	DE					
NAME OF	RE-	VEND	DIBDOGE	CANDLE GTOP	COUDCE	TITNDTNCC
THE STUDI	SEARCHER	ILAR	PURPUSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
						Punctuation added on subjective judgment. In sequential word repetitions, only the first occur- rence of the word was recorded. Sep arated words into 13 grammatical classes.
A Spoken Word	Wepman, Joseph M. and Hass, Wilbur	1969	count word fre- quency of spoken English	90 children; 30-5 yr. olds, 30-6 yr. olds, 30-7 yr. olds; equally divided between boys and girls into three groups	Each given a 20 card array of the Thermatic Apper- ception Test (Murray, 1943) in a single session. Responses were re- corded and trans- cribed in tradi- tional orthography. Dialectical varia- tions were ignored and omitted con- sonants or vowels in pronunciation were replaced in transcription. Punctuation was added on the basis of subjective judgment.	Words were cate- gorized for ana- lysis by parts-of- speech. Found 402 to be frequent at a rate of at least 2 per 10,000. Words are listed by fre- quency of occur- rence for parts of speech and for which of the three age levels used them.

						•
						28
NAME OF	RE-					
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS
"The Assessment of Readability by Noun Fre- quency Counts"	Elley, Warwick B.	1969	to describe and illustrate a new means of assessment of the readability of children's reading mater- ial; the basis of which is a noun rate count per given passage	20 secondary school students	Used a cloze test with 10 prose passages of approximately 150 words.	Found readability of material can be sensitively measured by noun analysis and fre- quency counts. Gives list of mean noun fre- quency levels and suitable ages for such reading material.
A Comparative Study of Voca- bulary Diver- sity	Moe, Alden J.	1974	to compare the vocabularies of 1.) first- grade children (speaking) 2.) first- grade primers 3.) first- grade trade books	<pre>15 first grad- ers 15 primers 15 trade books</pre>	15 first graders, 8 boys and 7 girls for oral language samples from 3 school districts all in middle- class socioecon- omic status areas. Were students identified by teachers to be of average ability and achievement. Mean age=6-11 years. Age range=6-4 to 7-4 years. Primers used were 15 pub- lished basal reader series. Used 15 trade books taken	<pre>1.) less vocabu- lary deviation among oral lang- uage samples than written; 2.) in all 3 voc- abularies, found 7,568 total words and 1,183 differ- ent words; 3.) the 100 words most frequently used in the oral samples accounted for 64% of the total words used are listed accor- ding to frequency of occurrence;</pre>
					from a list of 110 widely used trade books.	common to at least 10 of the 15 oral language samples

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	29 FINDINGS
						listed by fre- quency of occur- rence; 5.) of all 15 primer samples, found 7,533 total words and 738 different words. 6.) the 100 most frequently used words in the primer samples accounted for 67% of the total words usedlisted by frequency of occurrence; 7.) 50 words were common to at least 10 of the 15 primer samples listed by fre- quency of occur- rence; 8.) of all 15 trade books, has 7,539 total words and 1,536 diff- erent words 9.) most fre- quently used 100 words accounted for 56% of the total words used listed by fre- quency of occur- rence;

NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	30 FINDINGS	
THE STUDY	SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	FINDINGS 10.) 46 words common to at least 10 of 15 trade books listed by fre- quency of occur- rence; 11.) comparison of oral and primer vocabularies shows 1,183 different words in the combined oral samples; 738 diff- erent words in combined primer samples; with 379 words common to both vocabularies; 12.) comparison of oral and trade book vocabularies show 1,183 diff- erent words in the combined oral samples, 1,536 different words in combined trade book samples, with 515 words common to both vocabu- alries; 13.) in analysis of variance, the primer wocabu-	
						primer vocabu-	
laries means were considerably lower than oral or trade book vocabulary means; l4.) vocabularies of children's samples reflected much more diversity than the primer samples; l5.) chance of finding vocabulary items common to many oral or primer samples is rela- tively small; l6.) no signifi- cant difference between oral and trade book vocabu- lary diversity but, trade books are more diverse in vocabulary than primers; l7.) only 32 words in common on the 100 most frequently used words from the oral language and trade book samples.	NAME OF THE STUDY	RE- SEARCHER	YEAR	PURPOSE	SAMPLE SIZE	SOURCE	31 FINDINGS
--	----------------------	-----------------	------	---------	-------------	--------	--
							laries means were considerably lower than oral or trade book vocabulary means; l4.) vocabularies of children's samples reflected much more diversity than the primer samples; l5.) chance of finding vocabulary items common to many oral or primer samples is rela- tively small; l6.) no signifi- cant difference between oral and trade book vocabu- lary diversity but, trade books are more diverse in vocabulary than primers; l7.) only 32 words in common on the 100 most frequently used words from the oral language and trade book samples.

For the present study, a word will be defined as an articulate sound or series of sounds that symbolize and communicate an idea. Words may be two types--relational or notational. Relational words present relationships between ideas of thought, such as <u>with</u>. Notational words express ideas as terms of thought, such as <u>blue</u>. Words are used as signs of conception.

Word frequency and phonetic contexts of words are relevant to speech pathology. When working with children with articulation errors, speech pathologists would be interested in which phonetic contexts occur most frequently for the misarticulated sounds. These contexts are heard more frequently in speech. Thus, when establishing the initial goals and limitations according to need, they should be based upon those words and contexts that occur with the greatest frequency. There would be little reason to emphasize words and sound combinations that occur infrequently.

In early years, the main use for word counts was to establish a list of words to be used for basic children's reading books. However, these word counts did not consider the graphemic and phonological word structures and the contexts within which the words occurred. In 1951, Dolch found that word frequency lists do not always correlate with vocabulary lists. Thus, one possible use of word frequency counts is to select reading words.

A second use of word counts is to find children's interests (Zyve, 1927; Nice, 1932). These studies find differences in what children of various ages focus their attention upon. Words that have an apprent referential function are then examined.

A third approach is to look at word usage as "indicative of parameters of lexical organization, as a structural characteristic of the speaker" (Evans, 1974). The interest here would be the properties of vocabulary distribution used in the frequently occurring words. Zipf (1965), Mandelbrot (1961), Carroll (in Kucera and Francis, 1967) and Rapoport (1964) conducted research in this area. Relationships between age and change to adult usage, and how the semantic nature of new vocabulary word develops have been established (Leopold, 1953-54; Straight, 1968). However, this research has never elaborated on its developmental and psychological implications.

If Zipf's Law is true, a great deal of overlap among the most frequently occurring words would be expected. The Thorndike-Lorge (1944) word count was the largest of frequency counts. It was based on word frequency in the Bible, textbooks, reader, English classics, books for children in grades three through eight, recent and popular magazines, and miscellaneous adult and juvenile reading. Its size and scope implies a smaller sampling error. Thus, Griffith and Miner (1973) selected it as the basis of comparison with other word lists. A comparison between the first 3,000 words in the Dale-Chall (1948) list revealed an 82% overlap. The Thorndike-Lorge list was then compared with an oral language sample list by Black (1955). Between the first 1,000 words from both lists, an 88% overlap was found. Comparison of the first 1,000 words from the Thorndike-Lorge list and Carroll (1971) list revealed a 93% overlap. The high percentage of overlap is amazing since these lists were based on a variety of sources (oral, print, adult, and children). Due to sampling error and proper name usage, a complete (100%) agreement would not be expected.

Research has been conducted based upon the Thorndike-Lorge list. In 1973, Griffith and Miner analyzed the phonetic context distributions for the /r/ and /s/ among the first 1,000 words. Dorn (1973) and Schneider (1973) compared the first 1,000 words to the next 1,500 Thorndike-Lorge words for the /r/ and /s,1/, respectively. The proportions and rank orderings of phonetic contexts were not statistically different from Griffith and Mimer's research. Additional studies have been done to find the rank orderings for /z/, /tf /, /dg /, /e /, /e /, and /f / from the first 1,000 words. Thorndike-Lorge termed the first 1,000 words as first and second grade level and the next 1,500 words as third and fourth grade level. The agreement of findings supports the hypothesis that analysis of words beyond the fourth grade level would show similar rank orderings of context frequency.

#### Summary and conjections.

From this review, four primary findings predominate:

- 1. Words are phonetic units that vary in frequency.
- 2. Many word counts have been compiled for various reasons.
- The Thorndike-Lorge list seems to be a statistically valid word frequency list for analyzing phonetic contexts.
- 4. Words and their most frequent phonetic contexts are important to speech pathology as a means of analyzing and limiting therapy material for speech rehabilitation.

From these summarizations, it may be conjectured that:

- It is useful to review past studies and analyses of words and their phonetic contexts. But,
- the analysis of spontaneous human speech, not dependent upon any past learning, is of equal importance. And,
- 3. the comparison of past lexical word counts and analyses of phonetic contexts of spontaneously generated nonsense utterances of adults today is relevant to speech pathology because of its need in speech rehabilitation.

#### CHAPTER III

#### METHODOLOGY

The subjects, procedures, and equipment used for this study are discussed in this chapter.

#### Selection of subjects.

For this study, sixty subjects were chosen from college students at Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, Illinois. The adults ranged from freshmen to graduate students. Those with severe organic disorders, such as cerebral palsy and cleft palate, foreign students, and those who had any additional speech disorders, such as articulation errors, were excluded from the study. One verbal directive from the Length-Complexity Index (Miner, 1969) was used to evoke a conversational sample of speech for judgment of adequacy, specifically, "Tell me about your family."

Excluded from the study were those students who had been or presently were in exceptional ability classes or EMH (Educably Mentally Handicapped) classes in an attempt to get an "average" intellectual range of adults. Also excluded were students who had hearing losses. Subjects had to pass a 25 dB hearing screening test at 500, 1,000, 2,000, 4,000, and 8,000 Hertz air conduction.

#### Selection of stimulus, a pilot study.

Since no standardized method of eliciting nonsense utterances from adults exists, a stimulus method was selected. It consisted of a short story with the key words deleted. The subjects were to fill in the blanks with nonsense words.

A pilot study using three subjects, who met the previously stated selected criteria, was conducted to determine if nonsense utterances could be elicited by this stimulus method. All three subjects filled in all thirty-four blanks with a range of responses for all twenty phonemes. The range of occurrence for the consonants was from thirty-seven times to two times. The /g/ occurred most frequently with thirty-seven occurrences; /l/ was next with twenty-nine occurrences; and /r/ and /s/ followed with twenty-eight occurrences. The range of occurrence for the vowels was from thirty-three to two times. The /a/ occurred most frequently with thirty-three occurrences; /i/ followed with twenty-seven; and /u/ was next with fourteen occurrences. Thus, this stimulus method was used.

#### Selection of phonemes to be tested.

Twenty phonemes from the English language, as stated previously, were used in this study as representative of the distribution of order of the remaining twenty-three phonemes. The first nine phonemes that were chosen are the nine most frequently misarticulated sounds in the English language and, thus, are of special interest to the speech pathologist. The other eleven phonemes were chosen randomly from the remaining thirty-four phonemes.

#### Method of testing.

Since the pilot study was successful, that stimulus method was used to elicit nonsense utterances. The adults chosen for the study were screened for speech and hearing and had met the other selection criteria as previously stated. Each subject was tested individually in a speech therapy room at the Eastern Illinois University Speech and Hearing Clinic between July 26 and August 2, 1974, and August 26 and 30, 1974. The instructions and story can be found in Appendices I and II, respectively. The responses were recorded with a Rheem Califone TC-74 Solid State tape recorder on Scotch Magnetic Tape, silicone lubricated 1,5 mil acetate backing at a speed of seven and one-half inches per second. These responses were phonetically transcribed according to Kenyon and Knott (1953). To have a response unit long enough for analysis, each subject was required to produce at least thirty "word units."

#### Means of transcription and word analysis.

During the period of August 31 to September 9, 1974, the responses of each of the sixty subjects were transcribed phonetically. Each word was divided into syllables, and an accent mark was placed above the stressed syllable of each word. Phonemes are physiologically influenced by adjacent phonemes. Thus, phonetic contexts were classified as either singles (consonant-vowel combinations) or blends (consonant-consonant-vowel combinations). Another aspect is accent. Syllables may be accented or unaccented. Griffith and Miner (1973) reviewed the literature dealing with stress in relation to phonetic context analysis.

Fry (1955) reports that vowels in stressed syllables have longer duration than unstressed syllables. Bollinger (1955) argues that intonation is crucial to stress identification. Mol and Uhlenbeck (1955-56) point out that the ear as an acoustic analyzer is particularly sensitive to differences in duration among syllables. A later study by Fry (1958) concluded that both duration and intensity have influence upon stress perception. Lieberman (1960) reports that stressed syllables have higher fundamental frequencies, higher peak envelope amplitudes and longer durations than unstressed syllables. Stetson (1951) concludes that stress production is the result of increased intrapulmonic pressure, a conclusion essentially supported by more recent electromyographic studies (Ladefoged, Draper, and Whitteridge, 1958). Generally, muscle activity increases during the production of stressed svllables.1

It is customary to classify positions of phonemes as initial, medial, and final. This classification will not be used in this study. Stetson (1951) found that syllables were the basic phonetic units of speech and each existed on a separate chest pulse. Each chest pulse defined a syllabic boundary. Griffith and Miner (1973) found that syllable boundaries

<sup>1</sup>Griffith, J. and L. E. Miner. "A Phonetic Context Approach to Articulation Therapy." Paper presented at ISHA Convention. Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, Illinois (March, 1973), p. 10. were also defined by differences in stress of the succeeding syllable. According to Stetson, the vowel is the core of every syllable. The consonant releases or arrests the vowel. Thus, the consonant functions only within its syllables. Consequently, only initial (prevocalic) and final (postvocalic) consonantal positions are created. Keenan (1961) defined the medial position as being neither the first nor last sound in a word. He labeled the medial position as vague and ambiguous. He supported a classification system based upon the relationship to its syllables.

Thus, in this study, phonetic contexts were described according to their functions in the syllable-releasing (initial position) or arresting (final position), and described according to their appearance in accented or unaccented syllables.

#### Intra-examiner reliability.

Since the examiner was the only experimenter involved in collecting and transcribing the nonlexical utterances, intra-examiner reliability needed to be established for the examiner's ability to transcribe, syllabify, and accent these taped responses. Three taped samples were randomly selected to determine this reliability. Two weeks after the initial transcriptions, they were again transcribed. Thirty-four words were transcribed for each subject. The overall percentage of agreement between the transcriptions was 99%. This was interpreted to mean that the examiner's reliability with herself was 99%. In repeated transcriptions, 99% of the responses would be transcribed identically; one percent would not.

#### Analysis of results.

The purpose of this study was to compare the phonetic context distributions in lexical and adult-generated nonsense utterances. The resulting rank order of the phonetic contexts' frequency of occurrence in nonlexical utterances was the first step in analysis. The following steps were taken to find the rank ordering for the twenty phonemes. Griffith and Miner's (1973) method of analysis was used for the nonlexical utterances. Each word was transcribed and then analyzed according to position in the syllable of the specific phoneme, syllabic accent (only to one degree), and context of the phoneme. Thus, the transcribed phonetic context was analyzed based on its occurrence in the releasing or arresting position in the syllable, for consonants; in the initial, medial, or final position, for vowels; and in an accented or unaccented syllable.

The second question posed asked to what extent do the phonetic contexts of the nonlexical utterances rank order themselves in a manner similar to their frequency of occurrence for each of the twenty phonemes in the English language. To answer this, a difference test was run. The information for the nonlexical utterances was compared to that of the lexical utterances. To analyze the data, Mann-Whitney <u>U</u>'s, a test of significant difference, were tabulated.

An alpha level of .05 was established. Thus, if the  $\underline{U}$  score was significant for that phoneme the rank order relationship between lexical and nonlexical utterances would not be similar. If the  $\underline{U}$  score was not significant, the phonetic contexts for that phoneme rank order themselves in a similar way in lexical and nonlexical utterances.

#### CHAPTER IV

#### RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to compare the phonetic context distributions of the Thorndike-Lorge list of 1,000 most frequently occurring words and adult generated nonlexical utterances. This chapter reports the statistical computations and interprets the results.

#### Frequency rank order for nonlexical utterances.

As previously described, the phonetic contexts for each of the twenty phonemes were ranked according to their frequency of occurrence. The resultant rank orderings are found in Appendix III. These distributions were the basis for comparison with the Thorndike-Lorge frequency data.

One research hypothesis for this study was: The nonlexical phonemes can be rank ordered according to frequency of occurrence of phonetic contexts. The data show that the twenty phonemes can be rank ordered to frequency of occurrence in a manner similar to the Thorndike-Lorge data. It was found that certain contexts occur more frequently than others and can be listed according to frequency, as Zipf's Law would predict.

# Comparison of rank orders for lexical and nonlexical utterances.

The second question asked in this study was: To what extent are the phonetic context distributions of the Thorndike-Lorge list of 1,000 words and adult-generated nonlexical utterances similar? Therefore, the transcribed utterances were analyzed using the Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$  Test (Downie and Heath, 1970, pp. 270-73; Siegel, 1956, pp. 117-18). The Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$  is one of the most powerful non-parametric tests (Siegel, 1956). It is a statistical measure used with independently drawn random samples which may be of unequal sizes. It is the most useful alternative to the parametric  $\underline{t}$  test to test for significant differences in samples.

<u>U</u>'s were run for each of the twenty phonemes in each of their possible positions of appearance. Blends and singles were analyzed separately. A total of 82 <u>U</u>'s were run. An alpha level of .05 was set. Thus, a significant <u>U</u> meant that for that particular phoneme's position, the rank order relationship between lexical and nonsense utterances would not be similar. Those phonemes and their significant <u>U</u>'s are listed in Tables 1 and 2.

Thus, nine of the consonant positions were significant, and two of the vowel positions were significant.

Inspection of these values for the twenty phonemes illustrates a variety of findings.

1. Eight contexts found in the nonlexical utterances were not present in the Thorndike-Lorge data. The contexts found

* MAN N	WHITNEY U	COMPARISON	BETWEEN	THORNDIKE	-LORGE
	AN	D NONSENSE	UTTERANC	ES	

TABLE	l
-------	---

Consonants

Phoneme		Sin	gles		an an an an Taon an an an Aragan Taon an Aragan	Ble	ends	
	I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA
r								
S			SS					SS
1	37.5				.006			
Z	2					-		
t t		SS			-	· <u>-</u>	SS	-
d	ti da Arri			NSU	-	-	SS	-
f gange	NSU			SS				-
		SS		SS				<b></b>
		SS		SS				-
k			25			1	.02	SS
d	13		• . • .		SS		3	NSU
g	20.5	.024				NSU		

TABLE 2

Vowels

Phoneme	I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA M/A	M/UA
aI u		NSU		SS	N SU N SU
e	.036				
1	NC	NC	NC	NC NC	NC

numbers = level of significance of the  $\underline{U}$ , alpha level of .05 ss = sample sizes too small for statistical analysis NSU = context absent in nonsense utterances - = context absent in both samples NC = contexts not considered in this position \*This was a two-tailed test

only in the nonlexical list were primarily vowels and initial and final consonant blends. These contexts and their distributions can be found in Appendix IV.

- Twelve contexts were absent in both distributions. These were primarily in the initial and final blends. These contexts and their distributions can be found in Appendix V.
- Eleven of the phonetic context distributions had samples too small for statistical analysis. Lists of these distributions appear in Appendix III.
  - a. /s/ singles--F/UA shows two contexts in both the Thorndike-Lorge and nonlexical distributions. The /s/ appeared in both.
  - b. /s/ blends--F/UA shows two contexts for both lexical and nonlexical distributions. These contexts are in no way similar.
  - c. /tf/ singles--I/UA shows two contexts for both distribu tions. The /tf / predominates in both.
  - d. /tf/ blends--F/A shows two contexts in each distribution.
    These are /ntf / and /rtf / with /ntf / being predominant in both.
  - e.  $/d_{3}/$  blends--F/A gives two contexts for each distribution. Both contained /nd<sub>3</sub>/.

- f. /f/ singles--F/UA contains one context for each distribution.
   They are in no way similar.
- g. /f / singles I/UA shows one context --//s /--for both.
- h. /f / singles--F/UA shows one context for each and are not similar.
- i. /k/ blends--F/UA gives one context for the lexical distribution and two for the nonlexical distribution. The contexts are completely dissimilar.
- j. /d/ blends--I/A shows one context--/dr/--in both distributions.
- k. /aI/ vowels--F/UA shows one context for both distributions.
   They were not similar.
- 13% of the <u>U</u>'s were found to be significant. These contexts can be found in Appendix VI.

Looking more closely at the eleven contexts in which there was a significant difference between the lexical and nonlexical distributions, one can see the influence of statistical artifacts. Several of these contexts are significantly different because the lexical distributions have a lesser variety of contexts than the nonsense utterances. However, the frequency of similar contexts in the lists may not differ greatly, and the rankings are similar.

The second research hypothesis stated at the onset of this study was: There is no significant difference in the phonetic context distributions of lexical and adult-generated nonsense utterances. Thirteen percent, or eleven out of 82, of the Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$ 's were significant. The probability of getting 13% significant  $\underline{U}$ 's by chance is .001791. Probability values range from 0 to 1. A value of 1 stands for absolute certainty, and 0 indicates there is no chance at all that the event will occur. Therefore, the probability of getting 13% significant  $\underline{U}$ 's by chance is very slim. Thus, the research hypothesis was accepted. Certain phonetic contexts are generated by speakers more regularly than others. Zipf's Law of least effort has been given validity. There appears to be content validity for the nonsense utterances in comparison to the lexical ones. The context distributions obtained from adults seem to be representative of the universe of lexical distributions. People tend to call upon certain contexts more often than others. Thus, these are the ones that should be emphasized in therapy.

#### Conclusions.

The twenty phonemes were analyzed according to phonetic contexts and could be rank ordered by frequency of occurrence. Statistical analysis showed that only 13% of the phonetic context distributions in the two lists were significantly different. Some of these were due to statistical artifacts. Thus, both research hypotheses, stated previously, were accepted.

Content validity, as described earlier, involves the adequacy of the sampling or representativeness of the part as a measure for the whole.

Here, the universe was the phonetic context distributions, represented by the Thorndike-Lorge list of 1,000 most frequently occurring words. It was found that the context distributions in adult-generated nonsense utterances are representative of the universe of phonetic contexts.

#### CHAPTER V

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Various word studies of vocabulary usage have evolved through the years. Many word frequency counts have been done, but little has been done to obtain an objective evaluation of frequency of context usage. George Zipf began studies of this type in 1927. He stated that people tend to speak in the shortest and most effortless means available to them. Griffith and Miner (1973) found an orderliness in the frequency distributions of words during speech. Their information was centered around the Thorndike-Lorge list of 1,000 most frequently occurring words. However, it was not known if people used certain phonetic contexts more often than others. There was a need for a tool to evaluate phonetic context usage since the present stress is upon accountability and verification of semantic usage.

The main purpose of this study was to compare the phonetic context distributions of lexical and nonlexical utterances and to determine if there was a significant difference between the frequency rank order of phonetic contexts in the two distributions. The steps taken were: (1) selecting a sampling method for eliciting nonsense utterances from adults,

(2) collecting and taping these samples of nonlexical utterances, (3) transcribing the nonlexical utterances, (4) dividing the transcriptions into syllables and placing the accent marks over the stressed syllables,

(5) determining the examiner's reliability in transcribing responses,

(6) categorizing the contexts according to syllabic positions and stress,
(7) rank ordering each phonetic context according to frequency of occurrence for each possible position, (9) comparing the lexical and nonlexical distributions, and (10) determining whether there was a significant difference between lexical and nonsense distributions.

The questions posed at the beginning of this study were:

- What is the resultant rank order of frequency of occurrences of phonetic contexts in nonlexical utterances for the following twenty phonemes: /r/, /s/, /l/, /z/, /tf/, /dg/, /f/, /s/, /s/, /f/, /aI/, /k/, /n/, /u/, /d/, /I/, /a/, /e/, /g/, and /i/?
- 2. To what extent do the phonetic contexts of the nonlexical utterances rank order themselves in a manner similar to their frequency of occurrence for each of the twenty phonemes in the English language?

Nonsense utterances were elicited from college students of Eastern Illinois University, Charleston, Illinois, by giving them a paragraph with the key words left out. Thirty-four responses were produced by each subject. These responses were recorded with a Rheem Califone, model 70-TC, tape recorder at a speed of seven and one-half inches per second on silicone lubricated 1.5 mil acetate concert tape. The utterances were transcribed with the aid of Kenyon and Knott (1953) and according to the method used by Griffith and Miner (1973). The utterances were divided into syllables and accent marks were placed over the primary stressed syllables. Then, each syllable was analyzed according to phonetic context.

Intra-examiner reliability was determined by transcribing again the utterances and syllabicating the words of three randomly selected tape samples two weeks after the initial transcription. A percentage of agreement index was then computed--99%.

Each phoneme was then analyzed according to context of occurrence and position of occurrence in syllables. For consonants, the initial and final positions, accented and unaccented, were used. For vowels, initial, final, and medial positions, accented and unaccented, were used. The contexts found were then rank ordered according to frequency of occurrence for each of the positions.

For each of the context positions containing three or more items, a Mann Whitney  $\underline{U}$  Test (Downie and Heath, 1970) was computed. A total of 82  $\underline{U}$ 's were computed. An alpha level of .05 was set. Eleven of the 82  $\underline{U}$ 's were significant at this level. Therefore, 13% of the phonetic context distributions varied in the nonsense utterances from the lexical Thorndike-Lorge list. Eleven of the comparisons yielded samples too small for statistical analysis. However, several of these eleven contained contexts that were of equal proportions in both samples. Also, many statistical artifacts came into play in the 13% that were significantly different.

This was a study of content validity. Were the nonlexical utterances representative of the universe of phonetic contexts? The Thorndike-Lorge list analysis by Griffith and Miner (1973) was the universe of phonetic contexts. Because of the high percentage of nonsignificant  $\underline{U}$ 's, it seems that people tend to call upon certain contexts more regularly than others, and that these contexts produced in artificial situations represent the universe of lexical contexts.

The research hypotheses posed at the beginning of this study were accepted. Thus, phonemes can be rank ordered according to frequency of occurrence of phonetic contexts, and there is not a significant difference in the phonetic context distributions in lexical and adult-generated nonsense utterances. Although the context distributions were not identical, a general overview shows that speech is repetitive.

#### Implications for future research.

Several applications for further study seem to be indicated from the results of this study. Follow up studies might indicate:

 An investigation of how these nonlexical phonetic context distributions compare with the Thorndike-Lorge list of 10,000 words.

- An investigation of phonetic contexts in artificial situations according to specific age and educational levels.
- An investigation of specifically, misarticulated sounds according to phonetic contexts when nonlexical items are used as articulation stimuli.

#### APPENDIX I

#### INSTRUCTIONS TO SUBJECTS

A short story will be given to you. The key words have been left out. I want you to fill in these blanks with nonsense words--words that are not known to our language. Here are two examples:

The tass is liggy.

The lutz bined the dows. (Berry, 1969)

### APPENDIX II

### STORY GIVEN TO, SUBJECTS

A	and	were	and	in the _	The
	to the			_ in the	to
The	· 		with	The	to the
	and the	to	the	The	9
for the	by the	•	and		in the
and		•			

#### APPENDIX III

### RESULTANT RANK ORDER DISTRIBUTIONS OF PHONETIC CONTEXTS FOR TWENTY PHONEMES

T-L = Thorndike-Lorge Ns. = Nonsense

### <u>/r/ Singles</u>

### I/A

	<u>T -L</u>	N	<u>S.</u>
[re]	7	[r]	25
[ri]	6	[ra]	18
[re]	5	[122]	17
[ral]	5	[ri]	12
[11]	4	[ru]	. 9
[ro]	4	[ro]	5
[ru]	3	[re]	5
[ræ]	2	[ral]	4
[10]	2	[raU]	3
[raU]	2	[r.]	1
[ra]	1	[re]	1
[ro]	1	[rU]	1
- <b>-</b> -	42		101

I/UA

[r]	16	[rə]	4
[rə]	2	[ 122 ]	2
[ro]	1	[ri]	1
	19	[ru]	1
		[re]	-1
• •	•		9

F	/	Ά	
	/	<b>n</b>	

[Ir]     13     [ar]       [or]     13     [er]       [ar]     11     [Ir]       [or]     7     [er]	21 12 3
[or]     13     [er]       [ar]     11     [Ir]       [or]     7     [er]	12 3
[ar] 11 [Ir] for! 7 [er]	3
forl 7 [er]	
	1
[Ur] 6	61
[ær] 5	
[aIr] 4	
[aUr] <u>2</u>	
85	
<u>T-L</u> F/UA <u>Ns.</u>	÷
[or ]	3
[er]	3
	6

/r/	Blen	ds
/ +/ -	22011	<b>~</b> ~

*/ **	I/A
-------	-----

[pr]	13
[tr]	12
[gr]	11
[br]	10
[fr]	9
[dr]	7
[str]	7
[kr]	5
[Or]	2
[spr]	2
	68

[fr]	31
[kr]	23
[tr]	20
[br]	19
[gr]	15
[dr]	6
[pr]	5
[0r]	4
[skr]	4
[str]	4
[ <b>/</b> x]	3
[mr]	2
[ <b>5x</b> ]	1
[wr]	1
[sr]	1
	139

I/UA

	<u>T-L</u>		F/A
[rt]		10	
[rd]		8	
[rm]		5	
[rk]		3	
[rs]		3	ſ
[rdg]		3	i de la constante de la constan
[r0]		2	
[m]		2	ſ
[rt]		$\frac{1}{37}$	
	с.		ſ
			ſ

[rk]		12
[rp]		12
[rt]		7
[rf]	· ·	7
[rn]		6
[rt/]		5
[rm]		4
[rd]	•	3
[rb]		2
[r/]		1
[rst]		- 1
[rg]		1
[10]		1
[rz]		1
[rs]		1
[xv]		1
		65

Ns.

F/UA

[rf]

 $\frac{1}{1}$ 

		<u>/s/ Singles</u>		
[se]	22	I/A	[et]	21
[\$1]	12		[si]	12
[=_]	10		[80]	8
[SAI]	9		[ sa ]	6
[si]	9		[ 522 ]	5
[ 53 ]	6		[su]	5
[se]	5		[sc]	4
[sɔ]	5		[sal]	3
[ 80 ]	4		[se]	2
[su]	2			2
[saU]	2		[ 83*]	2
[ 522]	1			80
[sol]	1			
	88			

<u>Ns.</u>

 $\begin{array}{r}
 7 \\
 5 \\
 3 \\
 1 \\
 \underline{1} \\
 25
 \end{array}$ 

I/UA

			_	
[\$2]	8		[ \$ 2 ]	
[ 53' ]	3		[SI]	
[32]	1		[si]	
[ so ]	<u>1</u>		[sa]	
	13		[su]	
			[ 32 ]	
			[ 50 ]	

<b>[ Is ]</b> 10	[1.	15
[ = ] 9	[as]	14
[ <b>es</b> ] 6	[26]	12
<b>[æs]</b> 6	[23]	9
[is] 3	[]	6
[ <b>ss</b> ] 3	[us]	6
[aIs] 3	[aUs]	4
[	[AIS]	3
[as] 1	[es]	3
[08] 1	[is]	2
[ <b>us</b> ] 1	[aIs]	1
[aUs] 1	[38]	1
[ <b>JI</b> s] 1	[05]	1
47		77

## F/UA

[is]	8		[əs]	7
[25]	$\frac{4}{12}$		[38]	<u> </u>
		<u>/s/ Blends</u> I/A		
[st]	19		[st]	22
[ <b>s</b> p]	11		[s1]	16
[str]	7		[sk]	15
[sk]	4		[ <b>s</b> n ]	13
[ 82 ]	3		[ sw]	7
[spr]	2		[sn]	5

<u>1</u>	<u>'-L</u>			<u>Ns.</u>
[sp1] [skw] [sn] [s1] [sw]	$1$ $1$ $1$ $1$ $\frac{1}{51}$		[st] [skw] [str] [sr] [sp]	4 4 1 <u>1</u> 92
		I/UA	[ en ]	2
			[sn] [sk] [st]	2 _1 _5
		F/A		
<pre>[st] [ns] [ts] [ts] [rs] [ks] [sk] [nst] [ls] [ps# [kst]</pre>	19     8     4     3     2     1		[ks] [st] [sk] [ts] [ps] [ns] [rs] [sp]	$     \begin{array}{r}       17 \\       16 \\       13 \\       13 \\       6 \\       2 \\       1 \\       \underline{1} \\       69 \\       \hline       7       7       7       7       7       $
		F/UA		
[ns] [st]	4 2 6		[ts] [sk]	$\frac{2}{\frac{1}{3}}$
		<u>/l/ Şingles</u>		
		I/A		
[16] [15] [16] [1a] [11]	9 7 6 5 5		[1] [1æ] [1a] [1_] [1_]	30 19 15 10

<u>T</u>	<u>-L</u>		<u>Ns.</u>
[11]	4	[11]	8
[10]	4	[10]	7
[12]	3	[1a]	5
[1a]	2	[le]	5
[1_]	2	[10]	3
[1]	1	[1]	3
[ 1aU]	<u>_</u>	[laU]	1
	51		116

I/UA

[11]	10	•	[11]	24
[12]	3		[1ə]	11
[1a]	1		[11]	5
•	14		[ 1 <b>ə</b> ]	3
			[1a]	2
			[laI]	_2
				47

_		' _	
г		λ	
-	/	A	

[11]	12 10		[I1] [41]		13 6
[01]	8		[al]	· ·	6
[#1]	6		[æ]]		5
[a1]	4				5
[ul] [æl]	4		[0]]		3
[e1]	3		[31]		2
[all]	3		[U1]		$\frac{2}{45}$
[U1]	2				
[1]	2				
[_1] [_1]					
	61				
		F/UA			••••
[ə1] [ɔ1]	9 <u>2</u> 11		[ə1] [a1] [æ1]		139 2 1
			[11]		$\frac{1}{143}$

	<u>T-L</u>			<u>Ns.</u>
		<u>/l/ Blends</u>		
		I/A		
[k1] [b1] [f1] [g1] [æ1] [æ1] [sp1]	$     \begin{array}{r}       10 \\       4 \\       4 \\       2 \\       1 \\       1 \\       \frac{1}{23}     \end{array} $		[b1] [f1] [k1] [p1] [g1] [s1] [/1]	49 46 34 18 17 16 6 <u>1</u> 187
in an a' the The the the The the the		I/UA		
[g1] [b1]	$\frac{2}{\frac{1}{3}}$	F/A	[b1] [p1] [f1] [/1]	2 1 1 <u>1</u> 5
[1d] [1f] [1t] [1p] [1k] [1v] [1vz] [1s]	13 5 4 1 1 1 1 1		[1t] [1p] [r1] [1f] [1t/] [1d]	4 2 1 1 1 1 1 10
[10]	$\frac{1}{28}$			

F/UA

[1d] <u>26</u> 26

<u>T-L</u>		<u>Ns.</u>
	/z/ Singles	
	I/A	
[21] 1 [222] 1 [2^] 1 [2a] <u>1</u> 4	[zI] [zæ] [zi] [zu] [ze] [ze] [ze]	25 8 8 8 6 6 6
	[za] [zo] [z] [z]	3 2 2 <u>1</u> 73
	Í/UA	
[zə] 3 [zī] <u>1</u> 4	[za] [z1] [z7] [z1] [z1] [z0]	$3$ $2$ $2$ $2$ $2$ $2$ $\frac{1}{14}$
	F/A	
[Iz]       6         [uz]       6         [oz]       5         [iz]       4         [.z]       4         [aIz]       4         [ez]       3         [wz]       2         [.z]       2	[æz] [Iz] [az] [oz] [uz] [iz]	$     \begin{array}{r}       10 \\       9 \\       5 \\       3 \\       2 \\       1 \\       30 \\       \end{array} $

<u>T-L</u>		<u>Ns</u> .		
	F/UA			
[a]z] []z] [ez]	2 1 1 4	[uz] [iz] [az] [əz] [oz] [wz]	5 5 4 3 1 <u>1</u> 19	
	/z/ Blends			
	I/A			
		[zw] [z1]	$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}}$	
	I/UA			
	- F/A			
[1vz]	<u>1</u> 1	[tz] [gz] [bz] [rz] [nz] [dz] [ŋz]	8 3 2 2 2 1 <u>1</u> 19	
	F/UA		н н. Н	
[mz]	<u>1</u>	[ŋ²] [zd] [gz] [12] [nz]	2 1 1 1 <u>1</u> 6	

			<u> </u>	NS.
		/tf / Singles		
		I/A		
[t/e] [t/i] [t/] [t/e] [t/e] [t/e] [t/a] [t/a] [t/a]	$ \begin{array}{c} 2\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ -\\ 1\\ -\\ 9 \end{array} $		[t/u] [t/a] [t/1] [t/i] [t/~] [t/~] [t/o] [t/aU] [t/aI]	$ \begin{array}{c} 6 \\ 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ \end{array} $
		I/UA		
[t/ə] [t/ə]	3 <u>1</u> 4		[t/ð] [t/e]	2 _1 _3
		F/A		
[it/] [It/] [~t/] [æt/] [at/] [st/]	5 3 2 1 <u>1</u> 15		[It/] [it/] [at/] [ut/] [.t/] [æt/] [æt/]	6 5 3 2 2 <u>1</u> 24
e da ser ser Ser e		F/UA		

/tf / Blends I/A

I/UA
<u>T</u> -	- <u>L</u>	F/U	<u>N</u>	<u>s.</u>
[nt/] [rt/]	3 _1 _4		[nt/] [rt/]	5 _ <u>1</u> 6
		F/UA		
		/ag / Singles I/A	<u>3</u>	
[dʒɛ] [dʒ尹] [dʒɔ]] [dʒa] [dʒa] [dʒɔ]	4 3 2 2 <u>1</u> 15		[dg I] [dg A] [dg i] [dg a] [dg e] [dg e] [dg e] [dg e] [dg e] [dg u] [dg aU] [dg a I]	8 6 5 4 3 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 39
		I/UA		33
[dgə] [dg1] [dge]	2 1 <u>1</u> 4		[dʒi]	<u>2</u> 2
		F/U		
[edg] [Idg] [edg] [~dg]	2 1 1 <u>1</u> 5		[adz] [ædz] [^dz] [ædz] [idz]	4 1 1 <u>1</u> 8

	<u>T -L</u>	F/UA	<u>Ns</u> .
[ Idg ]	$\frac{1}{1}$		
		/ <b>dg</b> / Blends	
		I/A	
		I/UA	
		F/A	
[rdg] [ndg]	3 _2 5		[ndg] 3 [dgd] <u>2</u> 5
		F/UA	
		<u>/f/ Singles</u> I/A	
[f]] [fo] [fa] [fa]] [fe] [fw] [fo] [fi] [fv] [fu] [fy] [faU]	8 7 6 4 4 4 3 2 2 2 2 1		

<u>T-L</u>		I/UA	<u>N</u>	<u>S.</u>
[fə] [fo] [fơ]	2 1 1 4		[fə] [fu] [f1] [fa] [fo]	9 1 1 1 1
		F/A		13
[æſ]	$\frac{1}{1}$		[3f] [^f] [#f] [	14 4 2
			[If] [ef] [af] [Uf]	2 2 2 2
			[if] [alf] [uf] [of]	2 1 1 <u>1</u>
		F/UA		35
[af]	$\frac{1}{1}$		[uf]	$\frac{1}{1}$
		/s / Dlanda		

<u>/f/ Blends</u>

I/A

 [fr]
 9
 [f1]
 48

 [f1]
 4
 [fr]
 29

 13
 [fw]
 2

 [f1]
 1
 1

 80
 80

I/UA

<u>T</u>	<u>-L</u>		Ī	<u>ls.</u>
[1f] [ft]	5 <u>3</u> 8	F/A	[ft] [rf] [pf] [lf]	9 6 3 <u>1</u>
		F/UA		13
		<u>/// / Singles</u> I/A		
[/o] [/U] [/i] [/e] [/I] [/e] [/w] [/w] [/u] [/aU]	$ \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 12 \end{array} $		[/o] [/i] [/I] [/u] [/y]	2 2 2 1 _1 _1
[/•]	<u>-7</u> 7	I/UA F/A	[/ə]	<u>-2</u> 2
[ 1/ ] [ e/ ] [ a/ ] [ æ/ ] [ √ ]	5 3 2 1 <u>1</u> 12		[a/] [I/] [æ/] [u/]	8 2 1 <u>1</u> 12
[1/]	3	F/UA	[ψ]	2

T-L			Ns.
	<u>/<b>ʃ</b>/ Blends</u> I/U		
		[/1] [/m] [/r] [/n]	
	I/UA		
		[/1]	
	F/A	[x/] [/t]	
	F/UA		
	/k/ Singles		
	I/A		

[k_]	9	[ka]	19
[kæ]	8	[ke]	15
[kɔ]	7	[ki]	13
[ka]	5	[kI]	10
[ko]	5	[kæ]	8
[kI]	4	[ko]	5
[ke]	2	[k3]	4
[kɛ]	2	[ku]	3
[kU]	2	[kaU]	3
[ki]	1 <b>1</b>	[k_]	3
[ku]	1	[kaI]	2
[kaI]	1	[ke]	_2
[kaU]	<u> </u>		87
4 - A - A	48		

<u>1</u> 

<u>1</u> 

<u> </u>	I/UA		<u>Ns.</u>	
[kə] 9		[ki]		6
[k] 3		[kə]		6
[kI] 1		[ku]		3
[ke] <u>1</u>		[ka]		3
14		[ko]		2
		[kə]		2
		[kI]		_1
	Sec. 19			22

F/A

[ <b>ek</b> ] 6	[ak]	40
[ <b>Ik</b> ] 5	[aek]	39
[ek] 5	[ik]	32
<b>[æk]</b> 4	[ Ik]	31
[Uk] 4	[ <b>3</b> k]	18
[ik] 3	[uk]	15
[ <b>ak</b> ] 3	[Ek]	14
[ <b>ok</b> ] 3	[ok]	10
[ <b>ɔ</b> k] 2	[_k]	10
[ <b>3k</b> ] 1	[ek]	10
[alk] <u>1</u>	[aIk]	3
37	[ <b>x</b> ]	2
	[Uk]	<u> </u>
		225

F/UA

[ Ik ] [ ək ]	8 2 10		[Ik] [aik] [Uk]	5 1 <u>1</u> 7
		<u>/k/ Blends</u> I/A		
[k1]	10		[k1]	32
[kw]	6		[kr]	. 25
[kr]	5		[ <b>s</b> k]	15
[sk]	5		[kw]	5
[skw]	1		[skr]	4
	27		[skw]	4
				85

	<u>T -L</u>	I/UA		<u>Ns.</u>
- 			[sk]	<u>_3</u> 3
[kt]	5	F/A	[ŋk]	45
[nk]	4		[ks]	16 14
[ks]	2		[rk]	12
[sk] [1k]	1		[sk] [nkt]	11
[kst]	$\frac{1}{17}$		[kst]	1
, .	17		[IJks]	$\frac{1}{105}$
		F/UA		
[kt]	<u>1</u>		[sk] [ŋk]	$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}}$
		/n/ Singles		
		I/A		
[no]	6		[nr]	13
[ne] [n_]	5 5		[n]] [ni]	10 9
[nal]	5		[na]	9
[ne] [ni]	4 3		[nu] [næ]	8
[næ]	3		[ne]	4
[nI] [na]	2		[no] [naU]	4 2
[no]	2		[n_]	$\frac{1}{cc}$
[nu] [naU]	$\frac{1}{39}$			00

	<u>T-L</u>		I/UA		<u>Ns.</u>	
n]		4		[no]		9
n]]		2		[ni]		4
nər]		_1		[na]	•	3
		7		[nu]		2
- 				[nə]		1
				[nər]		1
				[n]		1
					2	21

F/A

[ <b>m</b> ]	19		[æn]	13
[In]	18		[ In]	11
[]	13		[an]	11
[387]	11	an an an the star at a	[in]	9
[en]	9		[un]	6
[in]	8		[ _n ]	5
[on]	5		[aIn]	4
[aIn]	4		[en]	3
[an]	4		[en]	3
[ <b>3</b> 7]	4		[on]	3
[aUn]	4		[aUn]	3
[un]	3		[37]	<u> </u>
[ <b>an</b> ]	1			72
[JIN]	1			
[jun]	<u> </u>			
	106			

F/UA

[ <b>ɔn</b> ]	40		[ ən ]	26
[ In ]	9		[an]	6
[ <b>ə</b> n ]	2		[ In ]	2
[]	1		[in]	1
	52		[en]	_1
				36

/n/ Blends

I/A

[sn]

 $-\frac{1}{1}$ 

[sn] [/n] [nj]

	<u>T -L</u>	I/UA	]	<u>Ns.</u>
-			[ <b>s</b> n ]	<u>2</u> 2
		F/A		
<pre>[nd] [nt] [ns] [nk] [nt/] [ndg] [rn] [nst]</pre>	22 16 8 4 3 2 2 1 58		[nt] [nd] [rn] [nt/] [ndg] [nz] [ns] [ntz]	$     \begin{array}{r}       16 \\       9 \\       6 \\       6 \\       3 \\       3 \\       2 \\       \underline{1} \\       46 \\       \end{array} $
		F/UA		
[nt] [ns] [nd]	6 4 <u>3</u> 13		[nd]	<u>7</u> 7
		/d/ Singles		
		I/A		
[dI] [de] [dU] [di] [de] [da] [de] [de] [du] [du] [da]	$   \begin{array}{r}     7 \\     5 \\     4 \\     3 \\     2 \\     2 \\     2 \\     1 \\     1 \\     \underline{1} \\     36 \\   \end{array} $		[da] [dI] [do] [dw] [du] [di] [de] [de] [ds] [ds] [ds] [da]]	$20 \\ 15 \\ 13 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 9 \\ 8 \\ 6 \\ 6 \\ 4 \\ 2 \\ 101$

	<u>T -L</u>	I/UA		<u>Ns.</u>
[ID]	10		[15]	7
dəl	6		[dæ]	5
[dæ]	6		[du]	3
dul	2		[do]	3
	1		[də]	3
	25		[41]	2
			[da]	2
			[de]	1
			[dar]	1
			•	27

F/A

[sd]	11	[ard]	24
[aId]	11	[1]	21
[Ud]	7	 [be]	10
[ed]	6	[ad]	8
[14]	5	[bo]	6
[ard]	4	[zd]	5
[b_]	. 4	[Ud]	5
[pd]	4	[ _d]	5
	3	[ud]	3
faudi	2	[aId]	2
[ad]	2	[ed]	2
[ud]	2	[aUd]	2
[bo]	1	[14]	2
•,•	62	[bIc]	1
			96

F/UA

[ <b>əd</b> ] 5	[ Id]	11
[ard] 3	[be]	7
[Id] 1	[be]	5
[od] 1	[14]	2
[nd] 1	[ud]	2
$\overline{11}$	[ad]	1
		28

/d/ Blends

I/A

<u>7</u> 7

[dr]

[dr]

<u>6</u> 6

	<u>T-L</u>	I/UA		<u>Ns.</u>
[dr]	<u>-2</u> 2			
		F/A		
[nd]	22		[nd]	10
[1d]	13		[gd]	5
[rd]	<u>8</u>		[rd]	3
	43		[14]	2
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			[dz]	1
			[vd]	1
			[bd]	1
1. 11 - A.			[md]	1
			[ nd ]	1
				27

F/UA

[nd]

<u>3</u>

/g/ Singles

I/A

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[90]		4		[gu]	14
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[gI]		3		[93]	5
[ <b>9</b> 2]		2		[gi]	4
[go]	•	1		[gæ]	4
[gU]		1		[9_]	3
[9~]	•	1		[gat]	1
[97]		1			72
[gal]		<u>1</u>	· · ·		1
		29			

	<u>1 - L</u>	I/ UA	<u>T</u>	<u>IS.</u>
[90] [97] [9 <del>]</del> ]	$\begin{array}{c} 1\\ 1\\ \frac{1}{3}\end{array}$		[gə] [gi] [gi] [gu] [gu] [gə]	8 5 1 1 <u>1</u> 18
		F/A		
[ Ig] [eg] [æg] [ 0g] [ Ug]	$\begin{array}{c} 2\\ 2\\ 1\\ 1\\ 1\\ 7\\ 7\end{array}$		[Ig] [ag] [wg] [ug] [^g] [ig] [eg] [vg] [ug] [aIg] [eg]	66 32 20 18 10 8 4 2 1 1 1 163
		F/UA		
[ Ig] [əg]	$\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}}$		[Ig] [ig] [eg] [ag]	3 1 1 <u>1</u> 6
		/g/ Blends		
		I/A		
[gr] [g1]	$\frac{11}{\frac{2}{13}}$		[g1] [gr] [gw] [gj]	17     17     3     1     2     2     2     2     2     2     2     2     2     2     3     2     2     3     2     3     4

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		38

I/UA <u>Ns.</u> <u>T - L</u> [91] 22 F/A [gd] [gz] [rg] 5 3 1 9 F/UA [gz]  $\frac{1}{1}$ /ə/ i/ua [ə] [əd] [əs] 30 6 <u>1</u> 37 F/UA 8 5 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 30 [tə] 16 [par] [ der ] 13 [dæ] [və] [ ]2] 10 [æ] [ 23 ] 8 5 5 5 4 4 4 3 3 2 2 1 1 90 [per] [tə] [ 📷 ] [bar] [fə] [kæ] [bə] [t/ə] [nə] [næ] [ə] [t/ə] [97] [93] [ 87] [ 137 ] [ dzə ] [37] [ b#] [ 1#] [ 8#]

[wə] [dər] [kər] [fər] [vər]	2 1 1 1 <u>1</u> 6			
		/ <b>3</b> / I/A		
[3-] [3-0]	$\frac{1}{2}$		[\$k] [\$] [\$d] [\$t] [\$p] [\$1]	
		F/A		
[ sr] [ dgr] [ pr] [ fr] [ 0r] [ hr] [ wr]	4 3 2 1 1 1 1 1 13		[kr] [str] [pr] [gr] [fr] [vr] [zr] [nr] [1r] [dgr]	
		M/A		
[W7] [b7] [t7] [h7] [f7] [g7] [s7]	4 2 2 1 1 1		[n3] [b3] [f3] [d5] [g3] [kw3] [k13]	

M/UA

<u>T -L</u>

<u>Ns.</u>

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<u>T-L</u> [er] 1 [1r] 1 [t/r] <u>1</u> 16

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[ <b>u &gt;</b> ]		2
[ 57]		2
[f1]]		1
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[23]		1
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[str]		1
[snæ]		1
[j]		1
[137]		1
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[13]		1
[ks]		1
[swa-]		1
[dem]		1
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[aIn] [aIs] 2 <u>1</u> 3

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I/A

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[aId]		1
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I/UA

[a]]

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F/A

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[plaI]	2	[bal]	2
[tal]	1	[ral]	1
[dal]	1	[SAI]	1
[fal]	1. 1	[dal]	1

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<u>6</u> 6 <u>Ns.</u>

[waI] 1 [faI] <u>1</u> 12

[haI]	1
[mal]	1
[nal]	1
[ LAI ]	1
[hwaI]	1
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[draI]	1
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[skal]	1
	19

F/UA

[mal]

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[waI]

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M/A

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fal	5	[sal]	3
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[dwal]	2	[snal]	1
[val]	2	[hal]	1
[hal]	2	[twaI]	1
[pral]	2	[tal]	1
[ iwa0]	2	[dgal]	1
[kaI]	1	[bral]	1
[ da I ]	1	[wal]	1
[zal]	1	[wal]	1
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[smal]	1		31
	54		

<u>T</u> -	<u>-L</u>	M/UA	<u>Ns.</u>	
tal] sal] lal]	1 $1$ $1$ $3$			
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		I/A		
			[u] [uk] [up] [ug] [uts]	13 2 2 2 1
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			[u] [ud] [up]	16 1 <u>1</u> 18
		F/A		
[tu] [fju] [dju] [du] [du] [/u] [hu] [blu] [tru] [gru] [gru] [vju] [øru] [hju] [mju]	$ \begin{array}{c} 3\\2\\2\\2\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\1\\21\end{array} \end{array} $		[bu] [tu] [nu] [t/u] [ru] [du] [wu] [zu] [u] [zu] [lu] [gu] [ku] [gu] [ku] [mu] [pu] [fu] [fju]	17 10 6 5 5 5 4 4 3 3 2 2 1 1

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F/UA

[tu] [nju]

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[ku] [su] [pu] [zu] [vu] [su] [hu] [ru] [gu]

M/A

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28	[hu]

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[niu]	1
	98

<u>Ns.</u>

M/UA

/<u>e</u>/

I/A

[e] [et] [edg]

[bju]

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[be]	2	1	[be]	3
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[we] [te] [de]

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sel	4	[le]
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klej	1	lgrej
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[sple	Jahr	1
		59

M/UA

	/ <u>I</u> /		
	I/A		
[ In ]	5 	[Ig]	7
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[In]	$2^{-1}$ and $2^{-1}$	[Im]	6
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[It]	Le de la companya de	[15]	4
[If]	and the second second second	[Iŋ]	4
[1/]	1	[It]	3
[11]	l de la companya de l	[I]	3
[Ir]	1	[Ip]	2
[Int/]	<u>l</u>	[Iz]	2
14	3	[In]	2
		[Ink]	1
		[1/]	1
		[Int]	1
		[10]	1
		[Ivd]	1
			49

I/UA

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[1/]	2	[Ind]	<u> </u>
[Ist]	2		119

<u>Ns.</u>

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[Ig]			1
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F/A

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M/A

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	5	[fr1]	13
[t]	5	[t]	13
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[01]	3	[111]	9

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2	[ <b>hI</b> ] 5
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$\frac{1}{2}$	[v]] 4
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M/UA

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[wI] [kI] [vI] [zI] [hI] [dgI] [1I] [g1I]	$   \begin{array}{r}     3 \\     -1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     1 \\     21 \\   \end{array} $		[b] [z] [p] [p]] [w] [w] [n] [m] [1] [f] [k]	$ \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 26 \end{array} $
		/ <u>i</u> /		
		I/A		
[i] [it] [iv] [iz] [it/] [ist]	$ \begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ - \frac{1}{7} \end{array} $		[i] [ik] [it] [ip] [ig] [is] [i1]	$     \begin{array}{r}       14 \\       5 \\       2 \\       2 \\       2 \\       1 \\       \frac{1}{27}     \end{array} $
		I/UA		
			[i] [id] [in] [ig] [ib]	63 2 1 1 <u>1</u> 68
		F/A		
<pre>[ri] [si] [bi] [ði] [ni] [gri] [pi] [di]</pre>	4 3 2 2 2 2 2 1 1		[ni] [ti] [zi] [si] [ki] [fi] [ri] [mi]	6 5 4 4 3 3 3

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M/A

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<b>t/i]</b> 1	[ali]	
[ <b>ni]</b> 1	[ <b>ai</b> ]	
<b>wi]</b> 1	[wi]	
<b>twi]</b> 1	[tri]	
dri] 1	[f1i]	
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swi] <u>1</u>	[k11]	
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F/UA

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M/A

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hwa]	1
	58

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[gla]		6
[ sna]		6
		č
[kla]		D
[dga]		5
[va]		5
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M/UA

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[ga] [fa]	n de <sub>Ser</sub> ender Neterie de la tradicio	1
[wa]		1
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[na]		_1
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# APPENDIX IV

## PHONETIC CONTEXTS PRESENT IN ONLY NONLEXICAL UTTERANCES

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
			r		

#### Blends

					·
I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
z J	s J k n	<b>∫</b> g	r l g		

#### Vowels

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
u	ar u e i a	Ι	e i a		i

### APPENDIX V

## PHONETIC CONTEXTS ABSENT IN BOTH DISTRIBUTIONS

			Singles				
	I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA	
				t			

### Blends

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
t√	t√		t		
dg	đş		dş		
	f z		f		

Vowels

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
					e

### APPENDIX VI

## PHONETIC CONTEXTS FOUND TO BE SIGNIFICANTLY DIFFERENT BETWEEN LEXICAL AND NONLEXICAL UTTERANCES

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
g l z d	g	k			

Blends

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
		d			

Vowels

I/A	I/UA	F/A	F/UA	M/A	M/UA
е					
i					

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