

1 **A cross-sectional age group study of coarticulatory resistance: the case of late-acquired**
2 **voiceless fricatives in English**

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20 **Purpose:** As a class, fricatives are more “resistant” to consonant-vowel coarticulation than other
21 English sounds. The current study investigates the relative coarticulatory resistance of /θ, s, ʃ/ in
22 child and adult speech to better understand the acquisition of individuated speech sounds.

23 **Method:** Ten 5-year-old children, seven 8-year-old children, and 9 college-aged adults produced
24 [əFV] sequences in carrier phrases, where F was /θ/, /s/, or /ʃ/ and V was /æ/, /i/, or /u/. In
25 Experiment 1, coarticulation was perceptually indexed: 65 adults predicted the target stressed
26 vowel based on forward-gated AV speech samples for a subset of 4 speakers from each age
27 group. In Experiment 2, dynamic spectral measures of the /əFV/ sequences were analyzed using
28 SSANOVA to again test for vowel effects on fricative articulation across age groups.

29 **Results:** The perceptual results indicated that fricatives blocked vowel-to-vowel coarticulation
30 across speaker age groups. Contrary to expectation, vowels were most accurately predicted when
31 F was /s/, and not when it was /ʃ/ or /θ/ across age groups. Acoustic results indicated the
32 expected biomechanically-motivated /ʃ/ > /s/ > /θ/ coarticulatory resistance hierarchy in adults’
33 speech. By contrast, /ʃ/ > /s/ were similarly influenced by context in 8-year-olds’ speech, and the
34 results from 5-year-olds’ speech suggested an influence of order-of-acquisition in that /θ/ was
35 surprisingly resistant to coarticulation.

36 **Conclusion:** The study results are taken to suggest that a temporal constraint on fricative
37 articulation interacts with biomechanical constraints during development to influence patterns of
38 coarticulation in school-age children’s speech.

39

40 **Keywords:** speech development; segmental articulation; anticipatory coarticulation; fricative
41 acquisition

42 **Introduction**

43 Speech sound acquisition is typically approached from a phonemic perspective (e.g., Prather,
44 Hedrick, & Kerns, 1975; Smit, Hand, Freilinger, Bernthal, & Bird, 1990; Dodd, Holm, Hua, &
45 Crosbie, 2003). Studies focus on how children do or do not achieve the same sound across
46 syllable positions and on how these sounds compare to those obtained by the adult. Motivated by
47 a developmentally sensitive theory of speech production (Redford, 2015; 2019), we advocate for
48 studies that supplement the phonemic approach with one that focuses on context and on the
49 dynamics of speech sound articulation (Howson & Redford, 2021). Such an approach assumes
50 that coarticulation is central to understanding the emergence of segment-sized articulatory targets
51 (Nitttrouer, Studdert-Kennedy, McGowan, 1989; Studdert-Kennedy, 1991; Davis & Redford,
52 2019); an assumption that takes seriously the well-known positional effects on consonant
53 acquisition (see Inkelas & Rose, 2007; Theodore, Demuth, & Shattuck-Hufnagel, 2010; 2012).
54 Here, we adopt this approach to investigate school-aged children’s production of the voiceless
55 fricatives [θ, s, ʃ] – a subset of the so-called late 8 sounds of English (Sander, 1972; Smit et al.,
56 1990; Shriberg, 1993). The overarching goal is to identify the constraints and strategies that
57 underpin the development of speech sound production.

58 The late 8 sounds in English include the aforementioned voiceless coronal fricatives, [θ, s, ʃ],
59 the voiced variants of these fricatives [ð, z, ʒ], and liquids [l, ɹ] (see, e.g., Shriberg, 1993:121). A
60 major reason cited for the late acquisition of these sounds is their articulatory complexity
61 (Sander, 1972; Locke, 1983). Consider the coronal fricatives: these require independent control
62 over the tongue tip/blade and body to achieve constrictions that facilitate a turbulent airstream
63 (Stevens, 1971; Shadle, 1985, 1990; Proctor, Shadle, & Iskarous, 2010). Previous research has
64 found that medial grooving of the anterior tongue body is also critical for the production of
65 sibilant fricatives (Narayanan, Alwan, & Haker, 1995; Stone & Lundberg, 1996; Narayanan &
66 Alwan, 2000); meanwhile, pharyngeal cavity volume, controlled by tongue root advancement
67 and laryngeal height, distinguishes voiced from voiceless fricatives (Proctor, Shadle, & Iskarous,
68 2010). At the same time, the glottis must be appropriately modulated to maintain a transglottal
69 pressure drop, despite the oral constriction, so that airflow across the constriction is sufficient to
70 create an audible turbulence (Stevens, 1971; Shadle, 1990).

71 Importantly, the vocal tract adjustments needed to produce fricatives must be sustained
72 through time for aerodynamic (Shadle, 1985; 1990) and perceptual reasons (see Jongman, 1989).

73 In this way, fricatives differ from most of the other speech sounds in English, which allow for
74 continuous movement into and out of targeted vocal tract configurations. Continuous movement
75 is possible because most sounds are based in articulations that exploit physical or biomechanical
76 saturation effects, which give rise to stable acoustics (see Stevens, 1989; Perkell et al., 1997). In
77 contrast, the sustained configuration required for fricative articulation represents a disruption of
78 movement into and out of adjacent targets. This disruption explains the reduced coarticulation of
79 fricatives with other sounds (Byrd, 1996). We suggest that the disruption may also contribute to
80 their generally stronger coarticulatory “resistance” compared to stop and liquid consonants
81 (Farnetani & Recasens, 1993). Either way, the articulatory targets for these sounds are likely
82 specified more precisely than for other sounds: MacNeilage (1970:193) made the observation,
83 repeated in Byrd (1996: 232), that “targets for fricatives are specified with more precision than
84 targets for stop consonants because the acoustic result is more dependent on precise articulator
85 position in the former case.” We suggest that when children successfully sustain a vocal tract
86 configuration in service of the acoustic goal, fricatives are naturally disambiguated from their
87 articulatory context, leading to the acquisition of a narrowly-defined speech motor target. In the
88 current study, we investigate the implications of this developmental hypothesis for the
89 coarticulation of voiceless fricatives with a subsequent vowel.

90 **Fricative-Vowel Coarticulation in Children’s Speech**

91 In order for children to achieve the sustained fricative constriction that will direct airflow to
92 produce audible turbulence, they must abandon preferred articulatory strategies that condition
93 vowel-to-vowel coarticulation and tight consonant-vowel coarticulation in running speech (e.g.,
94 a tongue-body first strategy; see Howson & Redford, 2021). This suggests that children may pass
95 through a stage where they produce fricatives that are especially decoupled from their immediate
96 context. But the few studies on fricative-vowel coarticulation in children’s speech paint a more
97 complicated developmental picture than this hypothesis would suggest. We aim to make sense of
98 this picture by focusing on segment-dependent differences in fricative-vowel coarticulation in
99 child and adult speech.

100 In a classic early study, Nittrouer, Studdert-Kennedy, and McGowan (1989) examined the
101 acoustics of /s, ʃ/ in two vowel contexts, /i, u/, in speech elicited from adults and children, who
102 were divided into 5 age groups ranging from pre-school aged (3 and 4 years) to school-aged (5
103 and 7 years). Elicitations were reduplicated FV FV disyllables, used to maximize the opportunity

104 for coarticulation. Acoustic analysis of the fricative spectra for F1 at locations least likely to be
105 influenced by vowel articulation (i.e., 100 millisecond prior to the onset of the first vowel)
106 indicated that the youngest children's production of /s/ and /ʃ/ were much less distinct than adult
107 productions, consistent with the later acquisition of these sounds (Sanders, 1972; Smit et al.,
108 1990; Shriberg, 1993). Nonetheless, there was also an effect of vowel context on the mean
109 centroid frequency for /s/ across all age groups. This effect was found to decrease with age,
110 suggesting greater fricative-vowel coarticulation in younger children than in older children, and
111 greater fricative-vowel coarticulation in all children compared to adults. Careful acoustic
112 reasoning led the authors to argue that this effect was not due to lip rounding or to differences in
113 constriction shape; instead, they argued that the results suggested greater overlap in the
114 production of fricatives and vowels in children's speech compared to adult speech.

115 Nittrouer et al.'s (1989) general conclusion that children's speech is more coarticulated than
116 adults' speech, though based only on /sV/ sequences, has been supported in a number of
117 subsequent developmental studies on consonant-vowel articulation (Zharkova, Hewlett, &
118 Hardcastle, 2011; Noiray, Abakarova, Rubertus, Krüger, & Tiede, 2018; Rubertus & Noiray,
119 2018; Howson & Redford, 2021). A number of these studies also confirm the effect of segment
120 identify on coarticulatory strength. For example, Katz & Bharadwaj (2001) used electromagnetic
121 articulography (EMA) to study tongue tip (TT) and tongue body (TB) movements during
122 production of /s/ and /ʃ/ in the context of /i/ and /u/ in 5- and 7-year-old children's speech
123 compared to adults' speech. They found that TT and TB movement diverged earlier as a function
124 of vowel context during /s/ production in children's speech compared to adults' speech; no
125 differences were found for /ʃ/ production. And, in a head-to-head comparison of /s/-vowel and
126 /ʃ/-vowel versus /t/-vowel and /p/-vowel coarticulation in speech produced by children between
127 the ages of 3 and 13 years old, Zharkova (2018) reports vowel-dependent differences in the
128 location of tongue bunching during /pV/ production for all age groups. Fewer vowel-dependent
129 differences for location were found for the other CV sequences, though differences for /tV/
130 sequences were found by age 9 years and differences for /sV/ were found by age 13 years.
131 Another measure performed only on the coronal consonants, degree of tongue curvature, showed
132 vowel-dependent differences during /tV/ production for children aged 3 through 13 years, similar
133 differences during /sV/ production for children aged 5 through 13 years, and similar differences
134 during /ʃV/ production for children aged 7 through 13 years.

135 Zharkova (2018) interpreted the apparent interaction between segment and age on degree of
136 coarticulation to suggest an interaction between biomechanical constraints and an order-of-
137 acquisition hierarchy: “(t)he consonants that are generally acquired later were demonstrated in
138 this study to take longer to develop mature coarticulatory patterns, with those consonants that
139 have more articulatory demands on the tongue showing the most protracted development of
140 vowel-related coarticulation” (p. 268). Although Zharkova is referring to the findings for stops
141 versus fricatives, one might also hypothesize that a similar interaction between order of
142 acquisition and production constraints may also define a degree of coarticulation hierarchy for
143 these segments.

144 **Degree of Coarticulation Hierarchies**

145 Recall that our developmental hypothesis is that the sustained constriction needed to achieve
146 fricative articulation contributes to especially reduced fricative-vowel coarticulation during early
147 accurate production of these sounds. This hypothesis is broadly consistent with Zharkova’s
148 (2018) finding of reduced coarticulation of fricative-vowel sequences relative to stop-vowel
149 sequences in younger children’s speech. The temporal constraint hypothesis is less obviously
150 consistent with the finding of segment-specific differences in fricative-vowel coarticulation, such
151 as that /s/-vowel sequences are more coarticulated earlier than /ʃ/-vowel sequences (Nittrouer et
152 al., 1989; Zharkova, 2018; but see Zharkova et al., 2011, 2012). We suggest that this difference
153 is due to an order-of-acquisition effect on coarticulation. In particular, /s/ may be acquired
154 especially early compared to the other articulatory complex sounds of English (Shriberg,
155 1993:121-122). In fact, McLeod & Crowe (2018) treat the voiceless alveolar fricative as a
156 middle-acquired sound rather than a late-acquired one based on a comprehensive survey of the
157 literature on children’s acquisition of consonant across 27 languages.

158 McLeod & Crowe (2018) also show that the voiceless interdental fricative /θ/ is among the
159 last acquired sounds in English: whereas /s/ is acquired between ages 3 and 5 years, /θ/ is
160 typically acquired between 5- and 7-years-old (p. 1559). Although they do not explain why /θ/ is
161 acquired so late, we speculate that it is because of its weak acoustic profile and relatively low
162 frequency compared to the sibilant fricative. A weak acoustic profile results in a less salient
163 acoustic target from which to reverse engineer articulation; lower frequency sounds are practiced
164 less during the course of normal acquisition than higher frequency sounds. In combination with
165 the temporal constraint on fricative articulation, these characteristics of /θ/ are expected to have

166 consequences for its degree of coarticulatory resistance in younger children’s speech. In
167 particular, the prediction is that /θ/ will be more resistant than /s/ to coarticulation. An especially
168 strong effect of order-of-acquisition on coarticulation predicts that /θ/ will also be more resistant
169 than /ʃ/ to coarticulation when both are produced accurately in young children’s speech.

170 An order of acquisition coarticulatory resistance hierarchy is contrary to the segment-
171 dependent pattern of resistance predicted by adult-based models of coarticulation that reference
172 spatial-temporal constraints on articulation (e.g., Bladon & Al-Bamerni, 1976; Bladon & Nolan,
173 1977; Recasens, 1985; Recasens, Pallarès, Fontdevila, 1997; Recasens & Espinosa, 2009).
174 Consider the well-established degree of articulatory constraints (DAC) model of lingual
175 coarticulation (Recasens et al., 1997; Recasens & Espinosa, 2009). According to this model, the
176 tongue body involvement in articulation of /ʃ/ renders this sound more resistant to consonant-
177 vowel coarticulation than /s/, which depends more on the tongue blade for its articulation. The
178 alveolar fricative is in turn hypothesized to be more resistant to coarticulation than the interdental
179 fricative, which is also articulated with the tongue blade (Recasens & Rodríguez, 2016). The
180 rationale is that /s/ requires more precision to achieve its constriction than /θ/, where the more
181 ballistic tongue-fronting movement associated with interdental articulation can be achieved with
182 minimal demands on the tongue body. The DAC model thus predicts a /ʃ/ > /s/ > /θ/ resistance
183 hierarchy that is compatible with results from adult speech data: Rodríguez & Recasens (2017),
184 who examine the voiced interdental, /ð/, rather than the voiceless variant, showed that it was less
185 resistant than /s/ or /ʃ/ to consonant-vowel coarticulation.

186 **Current Study**

187 The literature indicates segment-specific differences in the degree to which children
188 coarticulate consonant-vowel sequences, including fricative-vowel sequences. Although
189 consonant-vowel sequences are often substantially more coarticulated in younger children’s
190 speech compared to older children’s and adults’ speech (Zharkova et al., 2011; 2012; Noiray et
191 al., 2018; Rubertus & Noiray, 2018; Howson & Redford, 2021), fricative articulation requires
192 that a narrow constriction be sustained through time for aerodynamic and perceptual reasons. We
193 hypothesize that this requirement provides a temporal constraint on fricative articulation that
194 interacts with an order-of-acquisition effect to predict especially minimal /θ/-vowel
195 coarticulation compared to /s/-vowel coarticulation in young school-aged children’s speech.
196 Further, we note that an especially strong, independent effect of order-of-acquisition on

197 segmental articulation predicts less /θ/-vowel coarticulation than /ʃ/-vowel coarticulation in
198 children’s speech. Overall, order of acquisition is expected to result in patterns of coarticulatory
199 resistance in children’s speech that differs from those predicted by the adult-based DAC model
200 of lingual coarticulation (Recasens et al., 1997; Recasens & Espinosa, 2009). The DAC model
201 predicts that /θ/-vowel coarticulation will be greater than /s/-vowel coarticulation and that /s/-
202 vowel coarticulation will be greater than /ʃ/-vowel coarticulation. The current study tests for an
203 order of acquisition effect on coarticulatory resistance. Specifically, the analyses test for the
204 effect of context on fricative-vowel coarticulation as a function of place-of-articulation within
205 and across 3 age groups: 5-year-olds, 8-year-olds, and adults. Child and adult speakers produced
206 sentences with phrase-medial monosyllabic target words that had /θ, s, ʃ/ in onset position and /i,
207 æ, u/ in the vowel nucleus. The target words were preceded by an unstressed vowel (i.e., schwa
208 in “the”). Fricative resistance to coarticulation was measured in two different experiments: (1) a
209 gated audio-visual (AV) speech prediction task that focused on the extent to which vowel-to-
210 vowel coarticulation was blocked by different voiceless fricatives in child and adult speech; and
211 (2) an acoustic comparison of dynamic formant and center-of-gravity spectral measures by vowel
212 context to investigate the influence of context on different fricatives within each age group.
213 Detailed methods follow, beginning with the general methods that applied to both experiments.

214

215 **General Method**

216 **Overview**

217 The experiments reported below are based on the same speakers and same speech materials.
218 These are introduced here to provide an appropriate background for the methods detailed under
219 Experiment 1 and 2.

220 **Participants**

221 Audiovisual speech data were collected from 26 native English speakers in three age groups:
222 5-year-old children, 8-year-old children, and college-aged adults. There were ten 5-year-olds (4
223 female and 6 male), seven 8-year-olds (3 female and 5 male), and 8 adults (4 female and 4 male).
224 Adults were recruited by word-of-mouth and through the Linguistics and Psychology human
225 subjects pool; they were college-aged and ranged from 18.9 – 22.11 years ($M = 20.22$, $SD =$
226 1.07). Children were recruited using a developmental database maintained by the Psychology

227 Department at the University of Oregon. The 5-year-olds ranged in age from 67 to 77 months (M
228 = 70.4, $SD = 3.17$); 8-year-olds ranged in age from 94 to 103 months ($M = 97.63$, $SD = 2.97$).

229 The college-aged adults had no self-reported history of speech or hearing therapy. Typical
230 speech, language, and hearing development in children was determined based on standardized
231 speech-language assessments performed in the laboratory. All children had standardized scores
232 within 1 standard deviation of the mean on the articulatory subtest from the Diagnostic
233 Evaluation of Articulation and Phonology (DEAP; Dodd et al., 2002) and on the core language
234 subtests from the Clinical Evaluation of Language Fundamentals – Fifth Edition (Semel et al.,
235 2013). Children also passed a hearing screen. They were given a 1000 Hz tone at 20 dB in the
236 right ear. If this elicited the appropriate response, they were then tested on tones at 1000, 2000,
237 and 4000 Hz at 20 dB in each ear (at a time), following the guidelines set by the American
238 Academy of Audiology Childhood Hearing Screening Guidelines (2011).

239 We acquired verbal and written consent from caregivers and the child participants as well as
240 from the adult participants for the assessment and elicitation and also to show audiovisual clips
241 of the participants’ speech to other university students (see Experiment 1). All procedures were
242 reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of Oregon. Families
243 and college-aged adults were financially compensated for their time. Children also selected a
244 small prize from a prize drawer upon study completion.

245 **Speech Materials and Elicitation**

246 Speakers were audiovisually (AV) recorded during the elicitation task using a Panasonic AJ-
247 PX270 audio-video camcorder. Lighting was provided by two Genaray SP-E-240B Spectro LED
248 Essential 240 Bi-color LED lights. Each of the stimulus sentences were to be produced in the
249 carrier phrase “I bought the *target* hat.” The target was a word that contained one of the three
250 voiceless fricatives in onset position, followed by one of three vowels, /i, æ, u/. Table 1
251 summarizes all the target stimuli.

252 *Table 1. Summary of target stimuli used in this experiment.*

	/s/	/ʃ/	/θ/
/i/	sea	she	thief
/æ/	sap	shack	thatch
/u/	sue	shoe	thew

253 Target words were associated with pictures as a memory aid to be used during elicitation
254 (e.g., a shack with a hat on it for “*shack hat*”). Participants were first taught the picture-word
255 association (e.g., “This shack has a hat on it. We are going to call the hat a *shack hat*.”). Next,
256 the full target sentence was elicited: the experimenter would produce the sentence and then the
257 participant would repeat it after the experimenter. During the actual elicitation phase, participants
258 were shown the relevant pictures and then prompted with an audio recording: “You bought the
259 *target hat* today. What did you do today? Please tell me.” The targeted response was: “I bought
260 the *target hat* today.” A repetition was then prompted with: “What did you do today?”

261 Target words were elicited once per block in a randomized order. Three blocks resulted in a
262 total of 6 repetitions of each target phrase and so in a total of 54 sentences per speaker. Adults
263 and 8-year-olds produced all sentences fluently and as expected. Younger children occasionally
264 produced the target phrase with a prosodic break between the determiner and target word. When
265 this occurred, the experimenter reminded the child of the full target phrase and the procedure for
266 the item in question was repeated. The sentences with prosodic breaks were not analyzed.

267 **Experiment 1**

268 We used a gated AV speech prediction task to assess the effect of vowel on coarticulation as
269 a function of the different fricatives of interest and age group. This method for measuring
270 coarticulation, introduced and validated by Redford and colleagues (Redford, Kallay, Bogdanov,
271 & Vatikiotis-Bateson, 2019; Howson, Kallay, & Redford, 2020), leverages a perceiver’s implicit
272 knowledge of speech production to detect subtle anticipatory cues in the audiovisual signal. The
273 perceiver’s task is to predict a segment of interest (e.g., an upcoming vowel) at various gates
274 given the information up to the particular gate. The accuracy with which they can do so has been
275 shown to reflect the amount of anticipatory information available in the speech stream at that
276 gate. Because the method leverages both auditory and visual information, it can be used to detect
277 more information across larger temporal domains than acoustics alone (Redford et al., 2018).

278 The gated AV speech method for measuring coarticulation has also been validated for
279 children’s speech and for data collection in the online environment (Howson et al., 2019).
280 Moreover, like the Redford et al. (2018) study, the Howson et al. study with children showed that
281 coarticulatory cues to an upcoming stressed vowel are available as early as the onset of the
282 definite article, *the*, used to create the /ə/ context for /əCV/ sequences. The Redford et al. study
283 showed that these cues vary in a manner consistent with the expected degree of coarticulatory

284 resistance of the C in question: perceivers identified an upcoming vowel earlier and more
285 accurately in /hV/ sequences compared to /gV/ sequences; identification was also earlier and
286 more accurate for /gV/ sequences compared to /sV/ sequences.

287 In Experiment 1, we use the gated AV speech method to test for expected age-related
288 differences in anticipatory coarticulation as a function of the voiceless fricative in question. The
289 perceiver's task was to predict the stressed vowel in a target word given AV clips that were cut
290 to provide speech information up until different points (i.e., gates) in the overall speech stream.
291 Above chance accuracy at gates that preceded the vowel target implies the presence of
292 coarticulatory cues to vowel identity; higher accuracy indicates greater coarticulation than lower
293 accuracy. Analyses focused on the extent to which prediction accuracy varied with segment
294 identity and age group. Perceivers were expected to predict the stressed vowel earlier and more
295 accurately for /əsV/ sequences than for /əθV/ sequences in children's speech, assuming an effect
296 of order of acquisition on coarticulatory resistance. Depending on the independent strength of
297 this effect, perceivers were also expected to predict the stressed vowel earlier and more
298 accurately for /əʃV/ sequences than for /əθV/ sequences in children's speech. By contrast,
299 prediction accuracy was expected to be highest for /əθV/ sequences in adults' speech followed
300 by /əsV/ sequences and then /əʃV/ sequences in keeping with the DAC model of coarticulation.

301 **Methods**

302 *Perceivers*

303 For the gated AV speech prediction task, 65 college students (aged 20 to 24 years old) were
304 recruited through the University of Oregon, Psychology and Linguistics Human Subjects Pool to
305 serve as perceivers. The students received course credit for their participation. Data collection
306 was hosted through the online data collection platform, Testable (www.testable.org). Participants
307 were given a link for participation and assigned to one of three conditions, defined by the onset
308 fricative in the target word: /θ/, /s/, or /ʃ/. Participants signed up for just one condition and were
309 not permitted to participate in the other conditions. 23 participants completed the /s/ condition,
310 21 participants completed the /ʃ/ condition, and 21 participants completed the /θ/ condition.

311 *Stimuli*

312 To create the gated stimuli, 2 male and 2 female speakers from each age group were selected
313 randomly for a total of 12 speakers. The smaller number of speakers allowed us to design the
314 experiment so that age group and vowel context were within-perceiver factors. The second

315 repetition of each target phrase elicitation in each of the 3 blocks of repetitions was used to
316 generate the gated AV speech stimuli for a total of 3 repetitions per target phrase. Recall that
317 these target phrases were embedded in the carrier sentences: “I bought the FV(C) hat today.” The
318 full sentences were extracted from the overall recording and then cut at the following gate
319 locations: (1) the closure of /b/ in *bought*; (2) vowel midpoint in *bought*; (3) consonantal closure
320 for /ð/ in *the*; (4) vowel midpoint in *the*; (5) fricative offset for the target word, and (6) vowel
321 midpoint of the target word (e.g., *I bought the she hat*; əj b¹ a² tθ³ ə⁴ ʃ⁵ i⁶ hæʔ; see Figure 1).
322 These cuts generated a total of 6 short AV clips for each sentence, which provided progressively
323 more information about the identity of the target vowel (= /i/, /æ/, or /u/). The 12 speakers by 3
324 repetitions by 6 cuts by 3 voiceless fricatives by 3 target vowels resulted in 1,944 gated stimuli.
325 Again, the stimuli were blocked by fricative onset and presented in separate conditions to
326 perceivers (i.e., 648 stimuli per condition).

327 [Figure 1 about here]

328 **Procedure**

329 All perceivers judged the 648 gated stimuli associated with a particular voiceless fricative
330 onset. The task was to identify the target vowel based on the gated stimuli; that is, it was a 3-way
331 forced choice identification task with the possible responses of /i/, /æ/, or /u/. Judgment accuracy
332 at gates that preceded the vowel onset (= Gate 6) depends on the presence and strength of
333 coarticulatory cues to the stressed vowel at those gates. Participants would watch the AV clip
334 and then make their response by selecting from among 3 buttons, labeled “e”, “a”, and “u” for /i/,
335 /æ/, or /u/, respectively. Participants were also given the target words that correspond to each of
336 the three vowel choices with the final video frame (e.g., *sap*, *sea*, *sue*). The final frame of the
337 video would remain on the screen until a response was made. Speakers were blocked within
338 condition so that perceivers made responses on all stimuli associated with a single speaker before
339 moving on to the next speaker. Stimuli within each block were randomized as was the order of
340 the speakers. The entire experiment was conducted online using the platform Testable
341 (www.testable.com).

342 **Analyses**

343 Raw accuracy measures were converted into the Rand Index (ACC; Rand, 1971) using the
344 fossil package (Vavrek, 2011) in R (R Core Team, 2019). The Rand Index measures the
345 similarity between two data clusters. In the present case, the similarity metric is the comparison

346 between the responses made by the participant and the correct response for each set of stimuli.
347 The result is a bias-corrected measure of prediction accuracy, the ACC measure, which indicates
348 the presence and strength of coarticulatory cues to the (variable) stressed vowel target at each
349 Gate for each Participant, and for each Fricative and Age Group. ACC was compared statistically
350 using a linear mixed effects (LME) model with the lme4 package (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, &
351 Walker, 2015) and p-values were calculated using Satterthwaite's Method (Satterthwaite, 1946)
352 with the lmerTest package (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff, & Christensen, 2017). The R^2 value
353 (Devore, 2011) was calculated with the MuMin package (Barton, 2018). The linear model
354 included the fixed effects of Gate (6 levels: 1-6), Fricative (3 levels: /θ, s, f/), and Age Group (3
355 levels: 5-year-olds, 8-year-olds, and Adults). The model included a random by Fricative slope
356 with a random intercept for each Participant. We also included a random intercept for each
357 Speaker (i.e., the speaker that the Participant was seeing in each clip). A random by Fricative
358 slope with a random intercept for Speaker was omitted because it resulted in a singular fit. Post-
359 hoc tests were done using Tukey HSD (Tukey, 1949) in the emmeans package (Lenth, 2018).
360 Data visualization used the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2018). See Table 2 in the appendix for a
361 confusion matrix for each vowel.

362 **Results**

363 The overall LME model had an R^2 of 0.50 and the model achieved convergence with a relative
364 gradient below the acceptable limits (< 0.001). The model results indicated a significant simple
365 effect of Gate [$F(5, 4603) = 604.65, p < 0.001$], a significant Gate by Fricative interaction [$F(10,$
366 $4603) = 6.10, p < 0.001$], and an interaction between Gate by Age Group [$F(10, 4603) = 1.84, p$
367 $= 0.049$]. Contrary to expectation, prediction accuracy did not vary systematically with the simple
368 effect of Age Group [$F(2, 11) = 1.13, p = 0.357$] nor with the interaction of Age Group and
369 Fricative [$F(4, 4555) = 1.03, p = 0.388$], or Age Group, Fricative, and Gate [$F(20, 4603) = 0.90,$
370 $p = 0.584$]. Nonetheless, the results shown in Figure 2 hint at the possibility of age-related
371 differences in the availability of coarticulatory cues as a function of fricative articulation. These
372 results can be seen in Figure 2, where the rand index derived from correct vowel prediction is
373 plotted as a function of Gate, Fricative condition, and Age Group. Note that the rand index, used
374 to generate a bias corrected measure for accuracy and in this dataset, converts the three-way
375 choice of vowels into either a correct or incorrect measure taking into account any bias in
376 answering that participants may have had to choose one vowel over the others. As a result,

377 chance is 0.5 instead of 0.33 because the three-way choice is transformed into a correct or
378 incorrect response (i.e., 2 choices).

379 [Figure 2 about here]

380 The data in Figure 2 indicate that the effect of Gate was due to the expected increase in
381 prediction accuracy with proximity to the target vowel (= Gate 6, V). Post hoc mean
382 comparisons indicate that the rand index at every gate was significantly different from every
383 other gate ($p < 0.05$) except for the difference between the first two gates (Gate 1, [b]: $M =$
384 0.477 , $SD = 0.140$; Gate 2, [ɑ]: $M = 0.488$; $SD = 0.141$; $p = 0.578$) and the gates associated with
385 the onset and vowel midpoint of the determiner “the” (Gate 3, [ð]: $M = 0.510$, $SD = 0.128$; Gate
386 4, [ə]: $M = 0.518$, $SD = 0.141$; $p = 0.881$).

387 Although there was no overall difference in prediction accuracy as a function of Fricative
388 identity [$F(2, 47) = 0.17$, $p = 0.841$], the significant interaction between Gate and Fricative is in
389 line with the expectation that anticipatory cues to vowel identity would vary systematically with
390 the fricative. In the present data, the interaction was due to the different levels of prediction
391 accuracy obtained at the fricative gate (= Gate 5, F; see Figure 3). Post hoc comparisons indicate
392 that perceivers were better able to judge the identity of the subsequent vowel when the fricative
393 was /s/ ($M = 0.602$, $SD = 0.132$) compared to when it was /ʃ/ ($M = 0.551$, $SD = 0.146$) or /θ/ ($M =$
394 0.527 , $SD = 0.137$). Intriguingly, perceivers were equally poor at predicting the upcoming vowel
395 at the offset of /ʃ/ and /θ/ regardless of a speaker’s age.

396 Post hoc mean comparisons were also used to explore the Gate by Age Group interaction.
397 These comparisons did not reveal any significant difference between the Age Groups at each
398 Gate ($p > 0.05$); however, the tests revealed that Gate 1 was significantly different than Gate 2 (p
399 $= 0.015$) for 5-year-olds, but not for 8-year-olds ($p = 0.396$) or Adults ($p = 0.251$). The tests also
400 indicated a significant difference between Gate 2 and Gate 4 for 5-year-olds ($p = 0.010$), but not
401 8-year-olds ($p = 0.994$) or Adults ($p = 0.141$). These findings suggest that perceivers were able to
402 make above chance predictions about the vowel context prior to the onset of the fricative in 5-
403 year-olds’ speech compared to 8-year-olds’ or adults’ speech. Figure 3 shows this effect more
404 clearly by presenting overall accuracy by Gate for the different age groups.

405 [Figure 3 about here]

406 **Discussion**

407 The significant Gate by Fricative interaction in the present experiment indicate fricative-
408 dependent differences in the perceivers' ability to predict an upcoming vowel. These differences
409 index the relative coarticulatory resistance of the different fricatives. More specifically, the
410 results indicate that anticipatory coarticulatory cues were strongest for /s/ and equally weak for
411 /θ/ and /ʃ/. The coarticulatory resistance hierarchy based on these data is thus /θ/ = /ʃ/ > /s/.
412 Although the DAC model predicts higher resistance for /ʃ/ than for /s/, this model does not
413 predict that resistance for /θ/ would be higher than for /s/. Only the order-of-acquisition
414 hypothesis makes this prediction. The strongest version of this hypothesis might even predict that
415 coarticulatory resistance would be stronger for /θ/ than for /ʃ/ in children's speech. Of course, the
416 hypothesis also predicts an effect of age on the resistance hierarchy. But, despite some
417 suggestion to the contrary in the data presented in Figure 2 (i.e., some visible differences by age
418 group at Gate 5, F), the expected interaction between Age Group and Fricative was not
419 significant. Instead, there was a significant Gate by Age Group interaction that was consistent
420 with previous research findings that show stronger coarticulatory effects in younger children's
421 speech compared to older children's and adults' speech (e.g., Zharkova et al., 2022; 2012;
422 Noiray et al., 2018; Zharkova, 2018). But unlike in those studies, this effect was limited to
423 vowel-to-vowel coarticulation; it was not observed for consonant-vowel coarticulation.

424 The surprising finding that /θ/ and /ʃ/ were equally opaque to coarticulatory effects could
425 suggest that the voiceless interdental fricative is special in English. We had assumed that its
426 supraglottal articulatory dynamics are highly similar to [ð] in the Rodríguez & Recasens (2017)
427 study or Proctor (2009) study, but this may not be the case. After all, unlike English /θ/, Catalan
428 (Rodríguez & Recasens, 2017) and Spanish (Proctor, 2009) [ð] are an intervocalic allophone of
429 /d/. Its allophonic status could have implications for its articulation. For example, the intervocalic
430 /d/ in both Catalan and Spanish could exhibit greater coarticulation because they are in essence a
431 lenited allophone of the underlying segment /d/. On the other hand, it could be that English /θ/ is
432 in fact a "strong" articulation, rendering it more resistant than allophonic [ð] to coarticulation
433 with an adjacent vowel. It should also be noted that [ð] is often realized as an approximate and
434 thus has laminar airflow, instead of turbulent airflow. With regards to English, Shadle, Proctor,
435 & Iskarous (2008) were able to demonstrate a great deal of variability in the coarticulatory
436 patterns for English /θ/. They examined 5 speakers' production of /θ/ in four vocalic
437 environments /i, a, ə, u/ using MRI data. They found that 2 of the 5 speakers had significant

438 variability in the posterior tongue position based on vocalic environment, while three speakers
439 showed only small variations in tongue position. This might suggest that for some speakers, the
440 tongue tip movement for /θ/ may require significant bracing of the tongue body to achieve and
441 then sustain its interdental position, thus limiting pre-posturing for the upcoming vowel during
442 articulation.

443 An alternative explanation for the surprising finding that the target vowel was equally
444 difficult to predict in /θV/ and /fV/ sequences may have to do with the high visual salience of an
445 interdental articulation. It could be that seeing the tongue tip between the teeth distracts
446 perceivers from attending to the more subtle cues associated with anticipatory vowel articulation,
447 which are conveyed by jaw height, lip shape, and soft tissue deformations in the neck (due to
448 changes in pharyngeal volume). Support for this methodological explanation of the finding
449 comes from the unanticipated effect of the sentence frame on findings reported in Redford et al.
450 (2018). In that study, the metrical context for a determiner noun phrase was manipulated by with
451 the verb: in one condition the plain verb “pack” was used; in the other, the phrasal verb “pack
452 up” was used. The task was to predict whether the rhyme of the target noun was “oop” (= [u:p])
453 or “ack” (= [æk]). When the bilabial stop was adjacent to the onset of the determiner (i.e., the
454 “pack up” condition), perceivers were strongly biased towards an “oop” response; no such bias
455 existed in the “pack” condition. Although we used a bias-corrected accuracy measure here (as
456 well as in the Redford et al. study), the results could still indicate that perceivers are influenced
457 by processing factors that are extraneous to the construct of interest (i.e., coarticulation).

458 **Experiment 2**

459 The perplexing result of equivalent perceiver performance across the /θ/ and /f/ conditions in
460 Experiment 1 may be an epiphenomenon of the perceptual method used to measure anticipatory
461 coarticulation. This possibility leads us wonder whether the absence of an effect of age group on
462 prediction accuracy in Experiment 1 may also be due to methodological factors. Two such
463 factors comes to mind: the increment of measurement and the small number of speakers within
464 each age group.

465 In Experiment 1, gates were mostly aligned to the midpoint of a segment, except for the
466 fricative gate where it was placed at the release of the fricative constriction and before the onset
467 of the voiced resonances for the upcoming vowel. The target vowel was not reliably predicted
468 until this fricative gate in older children and in adults. This suggests that the coarticulatory action

469 of specific interest to us is taking place somewhere during the articulation of the fricative. In
470 Experiment 2, we investigate this action in greater detail by testing for context-induced
471 differences on dynamic spectral changes in the fricative in the context of different /əFV/
472 sequences. We also address the extremely small sample problem by measuring all 6 repetitions
473 produced by all 26 speakers who were recorded. The results from Experiment 1 lead us to predict
474 no effect of the target vowel on the spectral dynamics of schwa. The predictions for the spectral
475 dynamics of the fricative depend on the constraints that create a coarticulatory resistance
476 hierarchy, including developmental ones. If resistance to fricative-vowel coarticulation is due
477 only to biomechanical conflict, and the phonemic English interdental is indeed articulated very
478 similarly to the allophonic Catalan interdental, then the spectral dynamics of the fricative are
479 expected to show stronger effects of the target vowel when the fricative is /θ/ than when it is /s/;
480 the target vowel effect on fricative spectra should also be stronger for /s/ than for /ʃ/. But, if
481 children's acquisition of fricatives depends on their being able to disengage from the vowel
482 context, then we would expect to see effects of the target vowel on the spectral dynamics of the
483 fricative that vary with the order of fricative acquisition; that is, the effect of target vowel should
484 be stronger on early acquired /s/ and /ʃ/ than on the later acquired /θ/, especially in the youngest
485 children's speech.

486 **Methods**

487 The participant characteristics, speech materials, and elicitation procedure used are described
488 in detail under General Methods above. Here, we note that in addition to collecting AV data,
489 audio-only data was also obtained using a wireless Shure ULX1-M1 microphone that was attach
490 to a hat that participants wore. The wireless microphone sent audio information to Marantz
491 Professional Solid State PMD660 where it was recorded at 44,100 Hz and 16-bit.

492 **Measurement and analyses**

493 Praat was used to segment the schwa preceding the fricative, the fricative, and the vowel
494 following the fricative. Onset of the schwa was determined to be the end of aperiodic noise
495 associated with the preceding /ð/ in "the" and the onset of periodic noise and formant structure
496 associated with the schwa. The offset was taken to be the dissipation of formant structure and an
497 increase in the presence of aperiodic noise associated with the fricative onset in the target word.
498 The offset of the schwa vowel was used as a marker for the onset of the fricative. The offset of
499 the fricative was determined to be the end of aperiodic noise and the onset of formant structure

500 and periodic noise associated with the stressed vowel in the target word. The offset of the
501 fricative was used as the onset to the stressed vowel. The offset of the stressed vowel was
502 determined in one of two ways, depending on if there was a following consonant or not. If there
503 was a following stop/affricate consonant, offset of the vowel was determined by the onset of
504 closure associated with the stop or stop portion of the affricate and the dissipation of formants
505 structure. If there was no following consonant, the dissipation of intensity and formant structure
506 in the waveform was used to identify vowel offset. Formants (F1-F3) were extracted at 10
507 equally spaced intervals for both vowels; center of gravity (COG) was extracted at 10 equally
508 spaced intervals for fricatives. Formant tracking for F1, F2, and F3 were adjusted manually for
509 each of the segmented vowels to ensure accurate tracking and then Hz values were extracted. For
510 COG, a window of 0.03s was selected with each interval at the center of the selection and then
511 COG was extracted. Statistical comparisons were performed in R (R Core Team, 2019) using
512 smooth spline (SS)ANOVA (Gu, 2002). The technique has been used to analyze the effect of
513 context on lingual trajectories based on ultrasound data (Davidson, 2006) as well as the effect of
514 context on formant trajectories based on acoustic data (e.g., Howson & Redford, 2021). Here, we
515 use the technique to analyze both formant and COG trajectories as a function of the target vowel
516 context. Since the smoothing functions themselves are not interpretable from model outputs
517 alone (Flego & Forrest, 2021), best fit contours and confidence intervals are visualized to
518 identify context-dependent differences in the given trajectories. Statistically significant areas of
519 differences can then be observed where the confidence intervals do not overlap on the
520 SSANOVA plot.

521 We also calculated the root mean square error (RMSE) across COG trajectories to index
522 vowel-dependent variability in fricative articulation within speaker in order to directly test for
523 systematic differences due to Fricative and Age Group and the interaction of these two fixed
524 effects. The RMSE was chosen because it compares to input vectors and provides a summary
525 measure for how different the two vectors are from each other, with a larger number indicating
526 more difference. Thus, we operationalize the difference between vocalic environments and use
527 this as an indicator for coarticulatory resistance (i.e., higher RMSE = less resistance/more
528 variability; lower RMSE = more resistance/less variability). COG values at each interval of
529 measurement was averaged across repetitions within fricative, vowel context and speaker. We
530 then used the `rmse()` function in the Metrics package (Hamner & Michael, 2018) in R (R Core

531 Team, 2021) to calculate RMSE, which is equal to the total difference in mean COG values
532 across contour comparisons within speaker and so to variability in fricative articulation as a
533 function of vowel context. Lower RMSE values indicate less vowel-dependent variability, or FV
534 coarticulation, than higher RMSE values. The RMSE values were then entered as the dependent
535 variable in a linear model that tested for the fixed effects of Age Group (3 levels: 5-year-olds, 8-
536 year-olds, and Adults), Fricative (3 levels: /θ, s, ʃ/), and Context Comparison (3 levels: /Fi/
537 versus /Fæ/; Fi/ versus /Fu/; and /Fæ/ versus /Fu/). We included a random by participant
538 intercept. Data visualization was performed with ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016).

539 **Results**

540 The results are presented by speaker age group. Within each age group, we present the
541 SSANOVA plots with best fit contours for each segment in the /əFV/ sequences. The plots for
542 /əθV/ are presented first, followed by the plots for /əsV/, and then /əʃV/. The contours and
543 confidence intervals displayed in each plot are examined to identify vowel-dependent differences
544 in fricative articulation. The extent of these differences gives rise to a description of segment-
545 dependent coarticulatory resistance that is provided by way of summary for the results from each
546 age group, prior to the detailed results. The results for adult speakers are presented first, followed
547 by those from 8-year-old speakers, and then 5-year-old speakers. The order of presentation
548 allows us to directly compare resistance hierarchies as a function of age, beginning with the
549 mature hierarchy. Following the SSANOVA results, we present the results of the RMSE
550 analysis.

551 ***Adult Speakers***

552 The results from adult speakers indicate a coarticulatory resistance hierarchy that is
553 consistent with expectations from the DAC model: /ʃ/ > /s/ > /θ/. More specifically, the COG
554 trajectories for the interdental fricative vary substantially with the target vowel; those for the
555 alveolar fricative vary much less with the target vowel; and, COG trajectories for the
556 palatoalveolar fricative do not vary with vowel context. The results also suggest that fricative
557 articulation blocks vowel-to-vowel coarticulation, regardless of fricative type: contours that are
558 best fits of schwa formant trajectories did not vary with the target stressed vowel for any
559 fricative. Detailed results follow.

560 **Interdental fricative.** Figure 4 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əθV/ sequences
561 produced by adult speakers. Best fit contours that correspond to formant or COG trajectories,

562 depending on the segment, are color-coded by target vowel: /i, æ, u/. From left to right, the plots
563 show formant trajectories for /ə/, followed by COG trajectories for the fricative, and then
564 formant trajectories for the target vowel. The best fit contours clearly indicate the expected
565 difference in F1, F2, and F3 trajectories for the target vowels, /i, æ, u/. There were also very clear
566 differences in the COG trajectories as a function of this vowel: COG was highest for /u/,
567 followed by /i/, and then /æ/. The markedly higher COG in the /u/ context suggests a retracted
568 tongue tip during the fricative articulation in this context. If this is the case, then coarticulation
569 with the following /u/ may have resulted in voiceless fricative articulation that was more akin to
570 [s̺] than to [θ]. A more dental articulation would result in more airflow hitting the upper incisors
571 causing more turbulent airflow and the higher COG that is observed for /θ/ in this context. This
572 contrasts the typical articulation where the tongue is between the teeth (c.f., Narayanan, Alwan,
573 & Haker, 1995), resulting in a more sibilant-like articulation. However, it is also possible that
574 jaw height plays a significant role in shaping the COG of /θ/. The relative jaw height for each of
575 the vowels /u/ > /i/ > /æ/ also reflects the COG levels from highest to lowest, respectively.

576 [Figure 4 about here]

577 Figure 4 indicates that the trajectory dynamics also differed by context: in the /u/ context, the
578 COG trajectory increased across a greater number of intervals compared to in either the /i/ or /æ/
579 context; the early rise in the COG trajectory was steeper in the context of /i/ compared to /æ/. As
580 expected based on the results from Experiment 1, /ə/ formant trajectories did not vary as a
581 function of the target vowel.

582 **Alveolar fricative.** Figure 5 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əsV/ sequences produced
583 by adult speakers. Again, trajectories are color-coded by stressed vowel context. As before, the
584 rightmost panel presents the best fit contours and confidence intervals for the F1, F2, and F3
585 measures, and – as expected – these differ with target vowel quality. The middle panel presents
586 the best fit contours for /s/ measures. These indicate a significant effect of the target vowel on
587 COG trajectories, even though this effect was weaker than for /θ/ (cf. middle panel in Figure 2
588 above). The /s/ COG trajectory was highest in the /æ/ context, followed by the /i/ and then the /u/
589 context. The dynamics of the /s/ trajectories were roughly similar across vowel contexts: a quick
590 increase in COG was followed by a relatively steady COG until a quick fall at the end of
591 articulation. Again, the target vowel had no effect on /ə/ formant trajectories, consistent with /s/-
592 blocking of anticipatory vowel-to-vowel coarticulation.

593 [Figure 5 about here]

594 **Palatoalveolar fricative.** Figure 6 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əfV/ sequences
595 produced by adult speakers. Contours color-coded by target vowel show the expected differences
596 in formant trajectories for the vowels: /i, æ, u/. Unlike for /əθV/ or /əsV/, the middle panel shows
597 no effect of target vowel on the COG trajectories. Unsurprisingly, the effect of target vowel is
598 also not evident: the color-coded contours for schwa F1, F2, and F3 are entirely overlapped
599 (leftmost panel).

600 [Figure 6 about here]

601 *8-year-old Speakers*

602 The results from 8-year-old speakers indicate a coarticulatory resistance hierarchy that is
603 inconsistent with expectations from the DAC model: /f/, /s/ > /θ/. Again, the interdental fricative
604 varied more substantially with the target vowel than did the alveolar fricative, but this difference
605 was smaller than in adult speech. The best fit contours for the alveolar and palatoalveolar
606 fricative indicated differences in COG trajectories as a function of vowel context: /s/ and /f/ were
607 articulated differently before /i/ than before /æ/ or /u/. Detailed results follow.

608 **Interdental fricative.** Figure 7 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əθV/ sequences
609 produced by 8-year-old speakers. We again see the expected differences in formant trajectories
610 by target vowel (rightmost panel). The effect of vowel on /θ/ trajectories was smaller than in the
611 adults' data (*cf.* Figure 3), but there was nonetheless evidence of anticipatory fricative-vowel
612 coarticulation: the COG trajectory was lower in advance of an /æ/ target compared to an /i/ or /u/
613 target; the COG trajectories also diverged beginning at fricative midpoint in advance of /i/ and
614 /u/. Intriguingly, the formant trajectories for schwa (left) suggest some effect of the target vowel
615 on schwa.

616 [Figure 7 about here]

617 **Alveolar fricative.** Figure 8 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əsV/ sequences produced
618 by 8-year-old speakers. The effect of target vowel on formant trajectories is clearly visible in the
619 rightmost panel. Some effect of vowel was also evident during /s/ articulation: the COG
620 trajectory was higher in advance of /i/ compared to /æ/ or /u/. Overall, though, the effect of
621 vowel on /s/ was smaller than the effect of vowel on /θ/ in 8-year-olds' speech (*cf.* Figure 7
622 above); it was also smaller than the effect of vowel on /s/ in adults' speech (*cf.* Figure 5 above).
623 There was no significant effect of target vowel on schwa formant trajectories: confidence

624 intervals around the best fit lines overlap. The possible exception to this description is in the
625 contours associated with the F1 measurements at schwa offset. There, F1 was slightly higher in
626 the context of a low front vowel than in the context of either high vowel.

627 [Figure 8 about here]

628 **Palatoalveolar fricative.** Figure 9 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əfV/ sequences
629 produced by 8-year-old speakers. The target vowel formants are again shown as best fit contours
630 in the rightmost panel. There is a clear effect of this stressed vowel on /f/ (middle panel), which
631 is at odds with the adult data, in particular, COG was higher when the preceding vowel was /i/
632 across the entire fricative interval. The effect of vowel on /f/ is therefore stronger than the effect
633 of vowel on /s/ in 8-year-olds' speech (see Figure 8). There is no effect of vowel target on schwa
634 formant trajectories.

635 [Figure 9 about here]

636 *5-year-old Speakers*

637 The results from 5-year-old speakers indicate even more minimal fricative-vowel
638 coarticulation than in older children's and adults' speech. Unlike in 8-year-olds' and adults'
639 speech, the interdental fricative is at least as resistant as /s/ to the influence of the following
640 vowel, and perhaps more so. The palatoalveolar fricative is again the most resistant to
641 coarticulation, and so the hierarchy is: /f/ > /θ/ ≥ /s/. This hierarchy suggests the influence of both
642 biomechanical constraints and an order-of-acquisition effect on fricative-vowel coarticulation.
643 Detailed results follow.

644 **Interdental fricative.** Figure 10 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əθV/ sequences
645 produced by 5-year-old speakers. The overlapping best fit contours in the leftmost panel again
646 indicate no effect of target vowel on schwa formant trajectories. The expected difference in
647 target vowel formant trajectories are shown in the rightmost panel. The stressed vowel had a very
648 minimal effect on the preceding fricative: the confidence intervals around the best fit line
649 indicate largely overlapping COG trajectories during /θ/ articulation as a function of vowel
650 context. That said, the trajectories do separate somewhat beginning at the middle of the fricative
651 in advance of /u/ versus /æ/.

652 [Figure 10 about here]

653 **Alveolar fricative.** Figure 11 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əsV/ sequences produced
654 by 5-year-old speakers. There was a significant difference in COG trajectories for /s/ when

655 preceding /u/: the contour indicates an overall lower COG peak and shallower trajectory overall.
656 There were no observed differences in the preceding /ə/ for any context.

657 [Figure 11 about here]

658 **Palatoalveolar fricative.** Figure 12 presents the SSANOVA plots for the /əʃV/ sequences
659 produced by 5-year-old speakers. The confidence intervals around the contours indicate no
660 vowel-dependent COG differences on the preceding /ʃ/. A small effect of vowel context was
661 observed on /ə/ formant trajectories directly before articulation of /ʃ/: F1 was somewhat higher in
662 the /i/ context than in the /æ/ or /u/ context. This difference is in the opposite direction of an
663 effect of vowel height on F1 and so suggests the influence of the palatoalveolar fricative: in
664 particular it suggests a slightly more anterior and constricted posture for this fricative in the /i/
665 context compared to the /æ/ or /u/ context.

666 [Figure 12 about here]

667 **RSME Analysis**

668 The RSME results revealed a main effect of Fricative [$F(2, 160) = 75.48, p < 0.001$] and
669 Context Comparison [$F(2, 160) = 6.39, p = 0.002$], but not of Age Group [$F(2, 20) = 1.36, p =$
670 0.280]. The expected interaction between Fricative and Age Group was nonetheless significant
671 [$F(4, 160) = 8.04, p < 0.001$]; the interaction between Group and Context Comparison was also
672 significant [$F(4, 160) = 3.18, p = 0.015$]. The other interactions were not statistically significant
673 [Fricative \times Context, $F(4, 160) = 2.15, p = 0.077$; Group \times Fricative \times Context, $F(8, 160) = 1.39,$
674 $p = 0.204$]. The R^2 metric for the model was 0.605.

675 Posthoc analyses on RSME values associated with fricatives revealed a significant
676 difference between between /θ/ and /s/ $M = 1216 (SD = 831)$ vs. $M = 589 (SD = 300)$; $p < 0.001$],
677 /θ/ and /ʃ/ $M = 1216 (SD = 831)$ vs. $M = 328 (SD = 171)$; $p < 0.001$], and /s/ and /ʃ/ ($p = 0.002$).
678 The differences were consistent with a coarticulatory resistance hierarchy where /ʃ/ > /s/ > /θ/:
679 the interdental fricative differed most across the vowel context comparisons in child and adult
680 speech as shown in Figure 13. But posthoc tests also confirmed that /θ/ varied more across vowel
681 contexts in adults' speech than in children's speech [adults vs. 8-year-olds, $M = 1615 (SD =$
682 $1166)$ vs. $M = 814 (SD = 388)$, $p < 0.001$; adults vs. 5-year-olds, $M = 1615 (SD = 1166)$ vs. $M =$
683 $1130 (SD = 491, p = 0.048)$].

684 [Figure 13 about here]

685 **Discussion**

686 As in Experiment 1, the analysis of spectral dynamics indicated that fricative articulation
687 largely blocks vowel-to-vowel coarticulation no matter the age of the speaker. Only a very few
688 small differences in schwa formant trajectories were observed: before /θ/ in 8-year-old children's
689 speech and before /ʃ/ in 5-year-old children's speech; only the adjustment before /θ/ in 8-year-
690 olds' speech was consistent with vowel-to-vowel coarticulation. Also as in Experiment 1, the
691 spectral dynamics indicated that /ʃ/ was more resistant to consonant-vowel coarticulation than /s/.
692 But, unlike in Experiment 1, the finding was that /θ/ was least resistant to coarticulation. The /ʃ/
693 > /s/ > /θ/ resistance hierarchy was confirmed for all age groups in an analysis of overall
694 difference (RMSE) between trajectories across vowel contexts within fricative. Still, there was
695 an effect of age on /θV/ coarticulation. The best fit contours for the 10 measures taken during the
696 fricative interval were markedly different for /θ/ across vowel contexts in adults' speech; the
697 COG trajectories for /θ/ also varied with vowel context in 8-year-olds' speech, but not across the
698 entire duration of frication; COG trajectories for /θ/ were also less variable across vowel contexts
699 in 5-year-olds' speech compared to adults' speech. The SSANOVA results were confirmed in an
700 analysis of overall vowel-dependent differences: RMSE values for /θ/ were higher in adults'
701 speech than in either group of children's speech.

702 **General Discussion**

703 We studied anticipatory vowel coarticulation as a function of fricative identity in speech
704 produced by school-aged children and college-aged adults to better understand the constraints
705 that influence the development of segmental articulation. The hypothesis was that the spatial-
706 temporal constraint of creating a sustained constriction for fricatives would lead to especially
707 reduced vowel-to-vowel and consonant-vowel coarticulation during their early accurate
708 production. The constraint would manifest as an order of acquisition effect whereby the
709 especially late acquired interdental fricative, /θ/, would be more resistant to vowel coarticulation
710 in young children's speech than the earlier acquired alveolar fricative, /s/, and possibly even
711 more resistant than the palatoalveolar fricative, /ʃ/. The predicted /θ/ > /ʃ/ ≥ /s/ resistance
712 hierarchy was not upheld across the different experiments. Instead, a final analysis in Experiment
713 2 clearly indicated /ʃ/ > /s/ > /θ/ across age groups: the target vowel had the smallest effect on the
714 articulation of /ʃ/, the next smallest effect on /s/, and the largest effect on /θ/. The latter hierarchy
715 is in line with predictions from the DAC model of lingual coarticulation (Recasens et al., 1997;
716 Recasens & Espinosa, 2009), which references biomechanical constraints to explain patterns of

717 coarticulation. According to this model, when tongue body movements are more constrained by
718 the requirements of a constriction, anticipatory vowel-to-vowel and consonant-vowel
719 coarticulation is low; when tongue body movements are less constrained by the requirements of a
720 constriction, coarticulation is high. Palatoalveolar fricatives are thus expected to block
721 anticipatory coarticulation more than alveolar fricatives, which in turn are expected to block
722 anticipatory coarticulation more than interdental fricatives. This is because palatoalveolars are
723 articulated by raising and fronting the tongue blade and predorsum, which requires more
724 involvement of the tongue body (via contraction of the genioglossus) than the raising and
725 fronting of the tongue tip or blade needed for the alveolar or interdental constrictions. Moreover,
726 consonants, like /s/, which require precise control over constriction degree will also require more
727 bracing by the tongue body than consonants, like /θ/, that are more ballistic in their movement,
728 and so, /s/ is expected to block coarticulation more than /θ/.

729 Although order of acquisition did not upend the resistant hierarchy predicted by DAC, the
730 perceptual and acoustic results nonetheless indicate developmental effects on coarticulation that
731 are somewhat contradictory: the results indicate somewhat more vowel-to-vowel coarticulation
732 in children's speech compared to adults' speech, and somewhat less fricative-vowel
733 coarticulation in children's speech compared to adults' speech. The former result of increased
734 vowel-to-vowel coarticulation is in line with previous findings (Rubertus & Noiray, 2018); the
735 latter result of decreased fricative-vowel coarticulation – due as it is primarily to the interdental
736 fricative – is consistent with the predicted order of acquisition effect. In what follows, we argue
737 that the former result is compatible with holistic speech plans, and the latter with the emergence
738 of segment-sized speech motor targets over developmental time. We begin with fricative-vowel
739 coarticulation.

740 In the past decade, ultrasound studies of children's speech have largely confirmed Nittrouer
741 and colleagues' interpretation of their /sV/ acoustic findings: younger children's speech is
742 generally more coarticulated than older children's speech, which is more coarticulated than
743 adults' speech (see, e.g., Nittrouer et al., 1989; Zharkova et al., 2011; 2012; Noiray et al., 2018;
744 Rubertus & Noiray, 2018). Nittrouer and colleagues framed their interpretation with reference to
745 the whole word production hypothesis, which first arose in the 1970s to account for the patterns
746 observed in child phonology (e.g., Waterson, 1971; Ferguson & Farwell, 1975; Menn, 1983). In
747 speech, one version of the hypothesis is that early speech plan representations are gestural

748 amalgams (Studdert-Kennedy, 1991); another is that speech plan representations are holistic
749 motor and perceptual forms that are integrated during the production process (Redford, 2019).
750 Either way, the hypothesis assumes a differentiation process to explain how children come to
751 acquire segment-like behaviors that characterize adult speech. At the level of speech motor
752 control, this means overcoming biomechanical linkages such as the linkage that exists between
753 the tongue body and tongue tip.

754 We had previously proposed that children adopt a tongue-body first strategy to facilitate
755 sequential production of different speech sounds (Howson & Redford, 2021). This strategy
756 accounts for the higher levels of vowel-to-vowel and stop-vowel coarticulation generally
757 observed in children's speech, as well as our findings of strong anticipatory vowel effects on
758 liquid production in children's speech compared to adults' speech and the finding that young
759 children do not distinguish /l/ from /ɫ/ along the F2 dimension prior to maximal constriction of
760 the vocal tract in contrast to adult speech (Howson & Redford, 2021). The current study asked:
761 How does a child overcome a tongue-body first strategy to produce fricatives, which require a
762 sustained constriction to generate turbulence? We hypothesized that children must pass through a
763 developmental stage where they *disengage* the fricative from the vocalic environment in order to
764 acquire the speech sound (i.e., produce it correctly). This hypothesis predicts that young children
765 who have only recently acquired fricatives should exhibit less fricative-vowel coarticulation than
766 older children and adults, and so that later acquired fricatives should be less coarticulated with
767 surrounding vowels than earlier acquired fricatives. The results from Experiment 1 were
768 inconclusive, but the results from Experiment 2 provide some support for the latter hypothesis:
769 children's fricatives were less influenced by vowel context than adults' fricatives overall;
770 moreover, the interdental fricative – which is typically acquired last of the voiceless fricatives –
771 was more resistant to influences from a subsequent vowel in children's speech than in adults'
772 speech.

773 But, if children are disengaging the tongue body from the vowel context when producing
774 fricatives, why is it that fricatives did not also fully block vowel-to-vowel coarticulation in the
775 youngest speakers? Recall, that the strongest evidence for vowel-to-vowel coarticulation comes
776 from Experiment 1 where perceivers were at above chance accuracy in predicting the target
777 stressed vowel at the midpoint of the unstressed determiner vowel in 5-year-olds' speech. The
778 accuracy measure was bias-corrected, which meant collapsing across the response options of /i/

779 or /u/ or /æ/. Given these options, the anticipatory effect on schwa must be understood as an
780 effect of vowel backness or an effect of vowel height or an effect of vowel rounding or as some
781 combination of these effects. Whereas an effect of vowel backness would undermine the
782 disengagement hypothesis for fricative articulation, an effect of vowel rounding would only be
783 consistent with the idea that the child's speech plan is at least the size of a determiner + noun. An
784 effect of vowel height might be understood as either an effect of jaw position or tongue body
785 position, and so is less diagnostic than the other effects.

786 To better understand what anticipatory vowel postures perceivers detected at the midpoint of
787 the schwa in 5-year-olds' speech, we examined the uncorrected accuracy data shown in Figure
788 13. These data suggest an overall response bias towards /i/ that is evident across the early gates.
789 Such a bias is consistent with the narrow constriction required for fricative articulation. This bias
790 was marginally reduced in 5-year-olds' speech. At the same time, accuracy for /u/ increased
791 marginally at the determiner gates in 5-year-olds' speech. Together, the data suggest that
792 perceivers detected an effect of anticipatory rounding on schwa production in the youngest
793 children's speech. A similar effect might account for the small context-dependent formant
794 differences observed for schwa in 8-year-olds' speech. Either way, the results do not undercut
795 the disengagement hypothesis used to explain why /θV/ sequences were less coarticulated in
796 children's speech compared to adults' speech.

797 [Figure 14 about here]

798 Overall, the present results suggest that the DAC model of coarticulation generalizes to
799 explain coarticulatory patterns in children's speech. The results are also compatible with a
800 developmental scenario for fricative acquisition that includes a stage during which the
801 articulation is disengaged from the vocalic environment. Once the constriction target for a
802 fricative target is well established, movements into and out of its articulation can again be
803 optimized for context. As a consequence, anticipatory posturing for the subsequent vowel
804 increases with speech practice – to the extent allowed by the fricative constriction target itself.
805 The present results suggest that the practice effects may extend for some time after accurate
806 production of a fricative is achieved.

807 We conclude with separate notes on the mismatch between our perceptual results from
808 Experiment 1 and the acoustic results from Experiment 2 since we believe these to raise new and
809 interesting questions that could be addressed in future studies on fricative-vowel coarticulation.

810 In Experiment 1, perceivers' performance suggested that /θ/ was as resistant to coarticulation as
811 /ʃ/. But, in Experiment 2, /θ/ acoustics were found to be profoundly influenced by the adjacent
812 vowel in adults' speech and, to a lesser extent, in 8-year-olds's speech. We interpret the
813 mismatch to suggest the importance of visual cues to the perception of /θ/ and the relative
814 unimportance of acoustic cues. After all, the interdental fricative is an especially low intensity
815 and spectrally diffuse sounds, which is easily confused with others. While articulatory
816 complexity and aerodynamic properties of /θ/ likely play a role in delayed acquisition, we
817 assumed that their weak spectral profile also provides part of the explanation for the slow
818 acquisition of /θ/ relative to the other fricatives. But there is also substantial individual
819 differences in the order with which sounds are acquired. Some children no doubt acquire /θ/
820 early relative to their peers. Others even use /θ/ to substitute for /s/. The mismatch between our
821 perceptual and acoustic results suggest a reason for individual differences: it could be that
822 different orders of acquisition of /θ/ reflects differences in the extent to which children are
823 sensitive to visual information in the acquisition of speech goals.

824 Other smaller mismatches between the perceptual results in Experiment 1 and acoustic
825 results in Experiment 2, such as the greater effect of vowel context on /ʃ/ in AV speech
826 judgments than on acoustics, also beg the question of how children may exploit visual cues in the
827 acquisition of running speech. Does the presence of visible cues to coarticulation influence the
828 acquisition of coarticulatory patterns? Many of these patterns will be language-specific,
829 suggesting that coarticulation cannot simply emerge as an epiphenomenon of speeded
830 movements into and out of sequential targets. The prolonged acquisition of adult-like fricative-
831 vowel production provides an opportunity to explore these ideas and related questions in future
832 work.

833

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990

991 **Appendix**

992

993 *Table 2. Confusion matrix for /i, æ, u/ responses for all stimuli (top left), /θ/ (top right), /s/*

994 *(bottom left), and /ʃ/ (bottom right).*

ALL				θ			
Target	Response			Target	Target		
	i	æ	u		i	æ	u
i	0.519	0.272	0.207	i	0.531	0.240	0.228
æ	0.395	0.398	0.205	a	0.413	0.361	0.224
u	0.352	0.262	0.384	u	0.409	0.244	0.345

s				ʃ			
Target	Response			Target	Response		
	i	æ	u		i	æ	u
i	0.531	0.240	0.228	i	0.485	0.307	0.208
æ	0.413	0.361	0.224	a	0.347	0.450	0.201
u	0.409	0.244	0.345	u	0.333	0.287	0.378

995

996

997 **Figure Captions**

998 *Figure 1. The final frame for each cut from one repetition of a 5-year-old's production of I*
999 *bought the she hat (aj b|¹ a|² tθ|³ ə|⁴ f|⁵ i|⁶ hææt).*

1000 *Figure 2. Rand Index (ACC) by gate, fricative condition, and the speakers' age groups. The*
1001 *dotted line on the plot indicates the threshold for being above or below chance.*

1002 *Figure 3. Rand Index (ACC) by gate and the speakers' age groups. The dotted line on the plot*
1003 *indicates the threshold for being above or below chance.*

1004 *Figure 4. Trajectories for adult /əθV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and target*
1005 *vowel (right); COG trajectories for /θ/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1006 *Figure 5. Trajectories for adult /əsV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and target*
1007 *vowel (right); COG trajectories for /s/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1008 *Figure 6. Trajectories for adult /əfV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and target*
1009 *vowel (right); COG trajectories for /f/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1010 *Figure 7. Trajectories for 8-year-old /əθV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and*
1011 *target vowel (right); COG trajectories for /θ/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1012 *Figure 8. Trajectories for 8-year-old /əsV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and*
1013 *target vowel (right); COG trajectories for /s/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1014 *Figure 9. Trajectories for 8-year-old /əfV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and*
1015 *target vowel (right); COG trajectories for /f/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1016 *Figure 10. Trajectories for 5-year-old /əθV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and*
1017 *target vowel (right); COG trajectories for /θ/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1018 *Figure 11. Trajectories for 5-year-old /əsV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and*
1019 *target vowel (right); COG trajectories for /s/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1020 *Figure 12. Trajectories for 5-year-old /əfV/ sequences: formant trajectories for schwa (left) and*
1021 *target vowel (right); COG trajectories for /f/ (center). Color coding is by vowel target.*

1022 *Figure 13. Boxplots of RMSE for Age Group × Fricative.*

1023 *Figure 14. Raw accuracy measures for /i/ (left), /æ/ (middle), and /u/ (right), for each fricative /s/*
1024 *(top), /f/ (middle), /θ/ (bottom). Adults are in blue, 8-year-olds are in green, and 5-year-olds are*
1025 *in red.*