

Dynamic acoustic-articulatory relations in back vowel fronting: Examining the effects of coda consonants in two dialects of British English

Emily Gorman¹ and Sam Kirkham¹

*Department of Linguistics and English Language, Lancaster University,
County South, Lancaster LA1 4YL, United Kingdom^{a)}*

1 This study examines dynamic acoustic-articulatory relations in back vowels, focus-
2 ing on the effect of different coda consonants on acoustic-articulatory dynamics in
3 the production of vowel contrast. We specifically investigate the contribution of the
4 tongue and the lips in modifying F2 in the FOOT-GOOSE contrast in English, us-
5 ing synchronized acoustic and electromagnetic articulography data collected from 16
6 speakers. The vowels FOOT and GOOSE were elicited in pre-coronal and pre-lateral
7 contexts from two dialects that are reported to be at different stages of back vowel
8 fronting: Southern Standard British English (SSBE) and West Yorkshire English
9 (WYE). The results suggest similar acoustic and articulatory patterns in pre-coronal
10 vowels, but we find stronger evidence of vowel contrast in articulation than acous-
11 tics for pre-lateral vowels. Our lip protrusion data does not help to resolve these
12 differences, suggesting that the complex gestural makeup of a vowel-lateral sequence
13 problematizes straightforward accounts of acoustic-articulatory relations. Further
14 analysis reveals greater between-speaker variability in lingual advancement than F2
15 in pre-lateral vowels.

^{a)}e.gorman@lancaster.ac.uk;

16 I. INTRODUCTION

17 Understanding the relationship between movements of the vocal tract and the acoustic
18 signal has formed a central concern of research in speech production for over one hundred
19 years (Atal *et al.*, 1978; Carignan, 2019; Fant, 1960; Mermelstein, 1967; Stevens, 1997).
20 The ways in which acoustics and articulation specify one another is vital for understanding
21 the nature of the information that is available in linguistic communication (Goldstein and
22 Fowler, 2003; Iskarous, 2016), and lies at the heart of different theories of speech produc-
23 tion (Guenther, 2016; Honda *et al.*, 2002). Acoustic-articulatory relations have even been
24 invoked as a central explanation for how the vocal tract is modularized for the purposes of
25 phonological contrast. For example, Stevens (1989) proposes a ‘quantal theory’ of speech
26 production, whereby a small number of vocal tract regions are exploited for phonological
27 contrast. He proposes that these regions are relatively robust to the effect of articulatory
28 perturbations on acoustics and that languages favour regions of articulatory space that yield
29 stable acoustic outputs despite small variations in articulatory positions. This is one hy-
30 pothesis behind some observed non-linearities in the acoustic-articulatory relationship, with
31 movements in some vocal tract regions yielding larger acoustic changes than in others.

32 Despite the complex and multi-dimensional nature of the acoustic-articulatory relation-
33 ship, there exist a number of relatively robust correspondences, such as the well-established
34 correspondence between the second formant frequency and the advancement of the tongue
35 body in unrounded vowels (Fant, 1960). However, a number of studies have also uncovered
36 varying degrees of acoustic-articulatory mismatch in even relatively well-understood phe-

37 nomena. For example, [Blackwood Ximenes et al. \(2017\)](#) report an EMA study of vowels in
38 dialects of North American English and Australian English, and show that the relationship
39 between F2 and tongue advancement is linear for some vowels, but non-linear for others,
40 such as GOOSE. They suggest that such non-linearities may be accounted for by variation
41 in lip rounding and tongue curvature.

42 **A. Acoustic-articulatory relations and motor equivalence**

43 While acoustic-articulatory relations are fundamentally grounded in the physics of reso-
44 nance, the precise nature of the relationship may be shaped by factors such as phonological
45 structure, language-specific factors, vocal tract anatomy, and speaker variation. A range
46 of studies show speaker-specific patterns of articulation, which have been widely studied in
47 terms of motor equivalence. Motor equivalence refers to ‘the capacity to achieve the same
48 motor task differently’ ([Perrier and Fuchs, 2015](#), 225) and, in speech, typically involves using
49 different articulatory strategies in order to produce the same speech goal. Motor equiva-
50 lence has been widely found in perturbed speech, with speakers adapting to a perturbation
51 in order to produce a goal similar to their typical speech patterns ([Honda et al., 2002](#); [Trem-
52 blay et al., 2003](#)). However, motor equivalence also occurs in regular speech, with speakers
53 exhibiting complementary covariation of different articulators in order to constrain acoustic
54 variability for a particular phoneme ([Perkell et al., 1993](#)).

55 While there is much evidence that acoustic-articulatory relations are often speaker-specific
56 (e.g. [Carignan 2019](#)), in some cases acoustic-articulatory relations can pattern with as-
57 pects of linguistic structure. For example, [Kirkham and Nance \(2017\)](#) show that acoustic-

58 articulatory relations can subtly but consistently vary between a bilingual’s two languages,
59 even when there are strong phonological correspondences between languages. For this rea-
60 son, our study adds an additional dimension of variability by examining acoustic-articulatory
61 relations between two dialects of British English, which we review in greater detail below.

62 **B. Back vowel fronting in British English**

63 The fronting of back vowels in varieties of English is a well documented phenomenon,
64 which involves vowels such as GOOSE /u/ and FOOT /ʊ/ undergoing fronting in apparent
65 time (Ferragne and Pellegrino, 2010; Harrington *et al.*, 2011). Within the context of British
66 English, back vowel fronting is reported to be most advanced in the south and least advanced
67 in the north of England (Ferragne and Pellegrino, 2010; Lawson *et al.*, 2019). The fronting
68 of GOOSE is typically limited before a coda lateral (Kleber *et al.*, 2011), due to the backing
69 effect of the dorsal gesture in coda laterals. Despite this, recent research shows that some
70 dialects do show fronting before /l/, which may represent a later stage of the sound change
71 (Baranowski, 2017).

72 The primary acoustic correlate of back vowel fronting is F2 frequency, but a number of
73 studies have sought to better understand the articulatory mechanisms behind back vowel
74 fronting and whether predicted acoustic-articulatory relations hold in such contexts. For
75 instance, Harrington *et al.* (2011) analyse the degree of lip protrusion and tongue advance-
76 ment during the production of the GOOSE vowel in SSBE, which is known to be undergoing
77 fronting, and compare this to the KIT and THOUGHT vowels, which are not thought to be
78 changing. Their results show that GOOSE is produced with tongue advancement compara-

79 ble to that of KIT, while lip rounding in GOOSE is comparable to that of THOUGHT. This
80 suggests that the high F2 in GOOSE is achieved via tongue advancement, rather than lip
81 unrounding, at least in these SSBE speakers. Furthermore, a recent study by [Lawson *et al.*](#)
82 (2019) used audio-synchronised ultrasound imaging, combined with a lip camera, to com-
83 pare the articulatory strategies of GOOSE production in speakers from England, Ireland,
84 and Scotland. Their results show that while varieties do not significantly differ in F2 of
85 GOOSE, they do vary in articulatory strategies. Specifically, speakers from England and
86 Ireland used an advanced tongue position with protruded lips, while Scottish speakers used
87 less lip protrusion and a more retracted tongue body.

88 C. Coda consonant effects on vowel fronting

89 One of the strongest influences on back vowel fronting in English is the coda consonant
90 that follows the vowel. A coda lateral typically inhibits vowel fronting due to the demands of
91 tongue dorsum retraction involved in lateral velarization. [Strycharczuk and Scobbie \(2017\)](#)
92 consider coarticulatory effects of the coda consonant on back vowel fronting in SSBE, using
93 ultrasound tongue imaging and F2 measurements to analyse pre-coronal and pre-lateral
94 FOOT-GOOSE contrasts. They find that acoustics and articulation pattern similarly pre-
95 coronally, but the pre-lateral context shows acoustic-articulatory mismatches. In particular,
96 FOOT and GOOSE are merged in F2 across their duration, but remain distinct in tongue
97 advancement. This suggests that a straightforward relationship between F2 and tongue
98 advancement does not hold in pre-lateral contexts.

99 One possibility that [Strycharczuk and Scobbie \(2017\)](#) raise is the role of the lips, but they
100 are unable to address this in their study due to the lack of lip data. Previous research shows
101 that lip protrusion is a significant feature of GOOSE vowel production in English ([Harrington](#)
102 [et al., 2011](#); [Lawson et al., 2019](#)) and one hypothesis is that the non-linear patterns observed
103 by [Strycharczuk and Scobbie \(2017\)](#) in pre-lateral vowels may be explained via covariation of
104 tongue and lip movement. Indeed, previous research has examined covariation of the tongue
105 and lips in /u/ production, finding that some speakers show a weak correlation between
106 articulators ([Perkell et al., 1993](#)). Such within-speaker covariation may be used to maintain
107 some degree of acoustic consistency across multiple productions, but it may also be the case
108 that different speakers weight the contribution of lingual and labial articulatory gestures
109 differently, as in [Lawson et al. \(2019\)](#). In the present study, we aim to better understand
110 these issues by investigating the contribution of dynamic tongue and lip movements to the
111 production of back vowel contrasts.

112 **D. The present study**

113 In this study, we model dynamic acoustic and articulatory variation in the FOOT-GOOSE
114 back vowel contrast in two dialects of British English using electromagnetic articulography
115 (EMA). By exploiting EMA’s ability to measure movements of multiple flesh points during
116 speech, this study aims to build upon [Strycharczuk and Scobbie \(2017\)](#) in measuring the
117 contribution of the tongue and the lips to the GOOSE-FOOT contrast in pre-coronal and pre-
118 lateral contexts. Given the known effects of lip protrusion on F2 ([Harrington et al., 2011](#);
119 [Lawson et al., 2019](#)), we expect that a more integrated view of lingual and labial articula-

120 tions will allow us to better understand the non-linear relationships previously found between
121 F2 and tongue advancement within pre-lateral FOOT and GOOSE vowels (Strycharczuk and
122 Scobbie, 2017). In addition to this, we compare two dialects of British English (SSBE and
123 West Yorkshire English) in order to test whether previously reported acoustic-articulatory
124 patterns for SSBE also generalise to a dialect with a different vowel system, given previ-
125 ous findings for between-dialect variation in acoustics and articulation (Blackwood Ximenes
126 *et al.*, 2017). Previous research suggests that GOOSE-fronting is most advanced in the south
127 of England, and least advanced in the north of England (Ferragne and Pellegrino, 2010; Law-
128 son *et al.*, 2019), with West Yorkshire English being a robustly northern variety. Indeed,
129 some studies have previously reported that West Yorkshire English represents a much earlier
130 stage of the change (e.g. Ferragne and Pellegrino, 2010; Watt and Tillotson, 2001). We an-
131 ticipate that exploring acoustic-articulatory dynamics between these two dialects of English
132 may reveal distinctive acoustic-articulatory strategies that allow us to test the nature of
133 vowel contrasts across slightly different systems.

134 II. METHODS

135 A. Speakers

136 Simultaneous audio and EMA data were collected from 16 speakers, all of whom were
137 native speakers of British English. 8 participants (3 female, 5 male) spoke Standard Southern
138 British English (SSBE), while 8 participants (5 female, 3 male) spoke West Yorkshire English
139 (WYE). All speakers were aged between 18–27 years old at the time of data collection

140 (2018–2019), and were born in the Southeast (SSBE) or West Yorkshire (WYE) regions of
141 England. Speakers were specifically recruited according to whether they self-reported to have
142 an SSBE or WYE accent, which was subsequently verified by the authors based on salient
143 features for each accent reported in the literature. For example, SSBE is characterised by
144 distinctions between vowels such FOOT and STRUT which are indistinct in northern varieties
145 of English such as WYE, while WYE is characterised by monophthongal realisations of
146 canonical diphthongs such a GOAT and PRICE (Hughes *et al.*, 2005). All participants lived
147 in Lancaster at the time of recording.

148 **B. Stimuli**

149 Stimuli were presented using PsychoPy in standard English orthography. Stimuli com-
150 prised the same four monosyllabic words as in Strycharczuk and Scobbie (2017), each of
151 which was repeated 5 times in a randomized order in the carrier phrase ‘say X again’, where
152 X was the target word. The stimuli were designed to target the contrast between the GOOSE
153 and FOOT vowel phonemes in fronting (pre-coronal) and non-fronting (pre-lateral) contexts.
154 The specific word pairs used were *foot/food* and *full/fool*.

155 **C. Experimental design and procedure**

156 All recordings took place in Lancaster University Phonetics Lab. Audio data was recorded
157 using a DPA 4006A microphone, preamplified and digitized using a Sound Devices USBPre2
158 audio interface, and recorded to a laptop computer at 44.1 kHz. EMA data were recorded at
159 1250 Hz using a Carstens AG501 electromagnetic articulograph, which records sensor data

160 on flesh points in the vocal tract across three dimensions (with two angular coordinates).
161 Three sensors were attached to the midline of the tongue, including the tongue tip (TT),
162 which was placed approximately 1cm behind the tongue tip; tongue dorsum (TD), which
163 was placed around the velar constriction area; and tongue body (TB), which was positioned
164 equidistant between the TT and TD sensors. Sensors were also attached to the vermilion
165 border of the upper and lower lips, as well as the lower gumline. The reference sensors
166 used for head movement correction were attached to the upper incisors (maxilla), bridge
167 of the nose, and on the right and left mastoids behind the ears. All sensors were attached
168 midsagittally, except for the sensors behind the ears. The sensor locations on the midsagittal
169 vocal tract are represented in Figure 1.

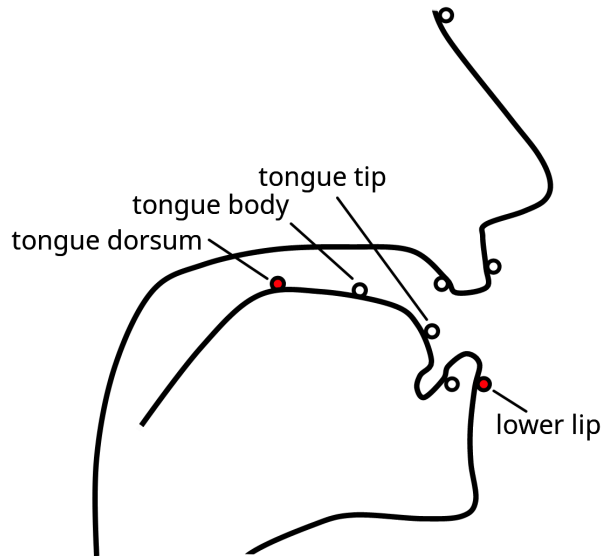


FIG. 1. Midsagittal diagram of EMA sensor positions (excluding right/left mastoid sensors). The two key sensors used for this study are highlighted in red.

170 The EMA data were downsampled to 250 Hz and position calculation was carried out
171 using the Carstens normpos procedure. Head-correction and bite plane rotation were ap-

172 plied, so that the origin of each speaker’s data is the occlusal plane. Reference sensors were
173 filtered with a Kaiser-windowed low-pass filter at 5 Hz, while speech sensors were filtered
174 with a Kaiser-windowed low-pass filter with 40 Hz pass and 50 Hz stopband edges (60 dB
175 damping).

176 The lower lip sensor failed or fell-off during the experiment for two SSBE (SM4, SM5)
177 and one WYE speaker (YF1), so our lip posture analyses only includes data for 6 SSBE and
178 7 WYE speakers. In addition to this, two speakers had some faulty tongue dorsum data
179 (SM2, YF5), so this data was also excluded from analysis.

180 **D. Acoustic and articulatory measurements**

181 The acoustic data were automatically segmented using the Montreal Forced Aligner. The
182 segmental boundaries for every token were manually checked and corrected where necessary.
183 The first three formants were then extracted at 10% intervals between the onset and offset of
184 each vowel. Praat’s LPC Burg algorithm was used, with speaker-specific maximum formant
185 settings, which were verified by overlaying measurements with these settings on wide-band
186 spectrograms.

187 We extracted measurements from the EMA data at 10% intervals between the acoustically-
188 defined onset and offset of each vowel or vowel-lateral interval, which represent the same
189 time-points as for the formant data. In the case of pre-lateral vowels, the lateral was included
190 in the interval for both the articulatory and formant data due to the difficulty of identifying
191 consistent segmental boundaries (Kirkham *et al.*, 2019; Strycharczuk and Scobbie, 2017).
192 This meant that 11 measurements were taken across the vowel and the lateral for pre-lateral

193 vowels, while for pre-coronal vowels, 11 measurements were taken across the vowel only.
194 The EMA variables we consider in this study are tongue dorsum horizontal position for
195 the analysis of lingual advancement, and lower lip horizontal position as a proxy for lip
196 protrusion (Harrington *et al.*, 2011).

197 All acoustic and articulatory measurements were z -scored by speaker in order to express
198 acoustic and articulatory variables on a standardized scale. Note that all z -scoring was
199 performed across the current stimuli plus a full set of hVd and sVd words for each speaker.
200 Vowels used for normalization included vowels in the lexical sets DRESS, LOT, KIT, STRUT,
201 TRAP, FOOT, GOOSE, START, FLEECE, NORTH, NURSE, GOAT, CHOICE, FACE, SQUARE,
202 MOUTH and PRICE, and were produced in the same experimental session within the same
203 carrier phrase used for the main stimuli. Accordingly, the z -scores express all measurements
204 relative to the mean of each speaker’s acoustic or articulatory vowel space.

205 E. Statistics

206 In order to model dynamic acoustic and articulatory trajectories, we use Generalized Ad-
207 ditive Mixed-Models (GAMMs) (Wood, 2017), which allow us to model non-linear acoustic
208 and articulatory time series in a mixed-effects modelling framework (see Carignan *et al.*
209 2020; Kirkham *et al.* 2019; Sóskuthy 2017; Strycharczuk and Scobbie 2017; Wieling 2018 for
210 examples of GAMMs applied to acoustic or articulatory phonetic data).

211 We fitted three separate GAMMs to each dialect in order to observe within-dialect effects
212 of vowel phoneme and following context. Each model targeted one of our three outcome
213 variables: F2 frequency, tongue dorsum horizontal position, or lip protrusion. In all models,

214 predictor variables included parametric terms of vowel phoneme (GOOSE/FOOT), following
215 context (coronal/lateral), and the interaction between vowel phoneme and following context.
216 Smooth terms included normalised time, and smooth terms for time-by-vowel phoneme,
217 time-by-following context, and an interaction between time, vowel phoneme and following
218 context. We also fitted random smooths of time-by-speaker and time-by-token, the latter of
219 which was used to account for token variability and autocorrelation in trajectories.

220 In order to evaluate the significance of each predictor variable, we adopted the following
221 procedure based on [Sóskuthy et al. \(2018\)](#):

- 222 1. We compare a full model to a nested model which excludes the smooth and parametric
223 terms for the predictor being tested. If this difference is significant, it suggests an
224 overall effect of that predictor variable. In order to test main effects, our full model
225 excluded any interactions between vowel phoneme and following context.
- 226 2. If (1) is significant, we then specifically test for differences in the shape of the trajectory
227 by comparing the full model to a nested model that excludes only the smooth term
228 for the predictor of interest. If there is a significant difference between models, we
229 conclude that there is specifically a difference in shape of the trajectories. If there is
230 not a significant difference between models but there is a significant difference in (1),
231 then we conclude that there are only differences in the height of the trajectories.

232 All models were fitted using the `mgcv::bam` function in R ([Wood, 2017](#)) and model com-
233 parisons were performed via likelihood ratio tests using the `itsadug::compareML` function.

234 III. RESULTS

235 Tables I and II show GAMM model comparison outputs for SSBE and West Yorkshire
236 speakers respectively. We find that every effect is significant in both dialects, with the excep-
237 tion of the interaction between vowel phoneme and following context for the lower lip shape
238 term in West Yorkshire English. This suggests that all other predictor variables significantly
239 influence the height and shape of the trajectory for F2, tongue dorsum advancement, and
240 lip protrusion in both dialects. In summary, GOOSE and FOOT differ in all acoustic and
241 articulatory trajectories; pre-lateral and pre-coronal vowels also differ in acoustic and artic-
242 ulatory trajectories; and the effect of following context varies between vowels across time
243 (except for the WYE lower lip shape term). As we find significant effects of almost every
244 predictor variable, the rest of this section focuses on visualization of models in order to
245 better understand the specific nature of these differences.

246 A. F2 frequency

247 Figure 2 shows the time-varying F2 trajectories for FOOT and GOOSE vowels for each
248 dialect. Pre-coronal FOOT and GOOSE are distinct in their F2 trajectories for speakers of both
249 dialects, but the magnitude of this difference between vowels is larger in WYE, suggesting
250 a slightly fronter GOOSE and much backer FOOT in this dialect. Pre-lateral vowels do show
251 significant height and shape effects in the model comparison, but the visual representation
252 of the model shows these differences to be much smaller. These height and shape effects
253 are likely to be caused by the higher F2 onset in GOOSE tokens, which gives the overall

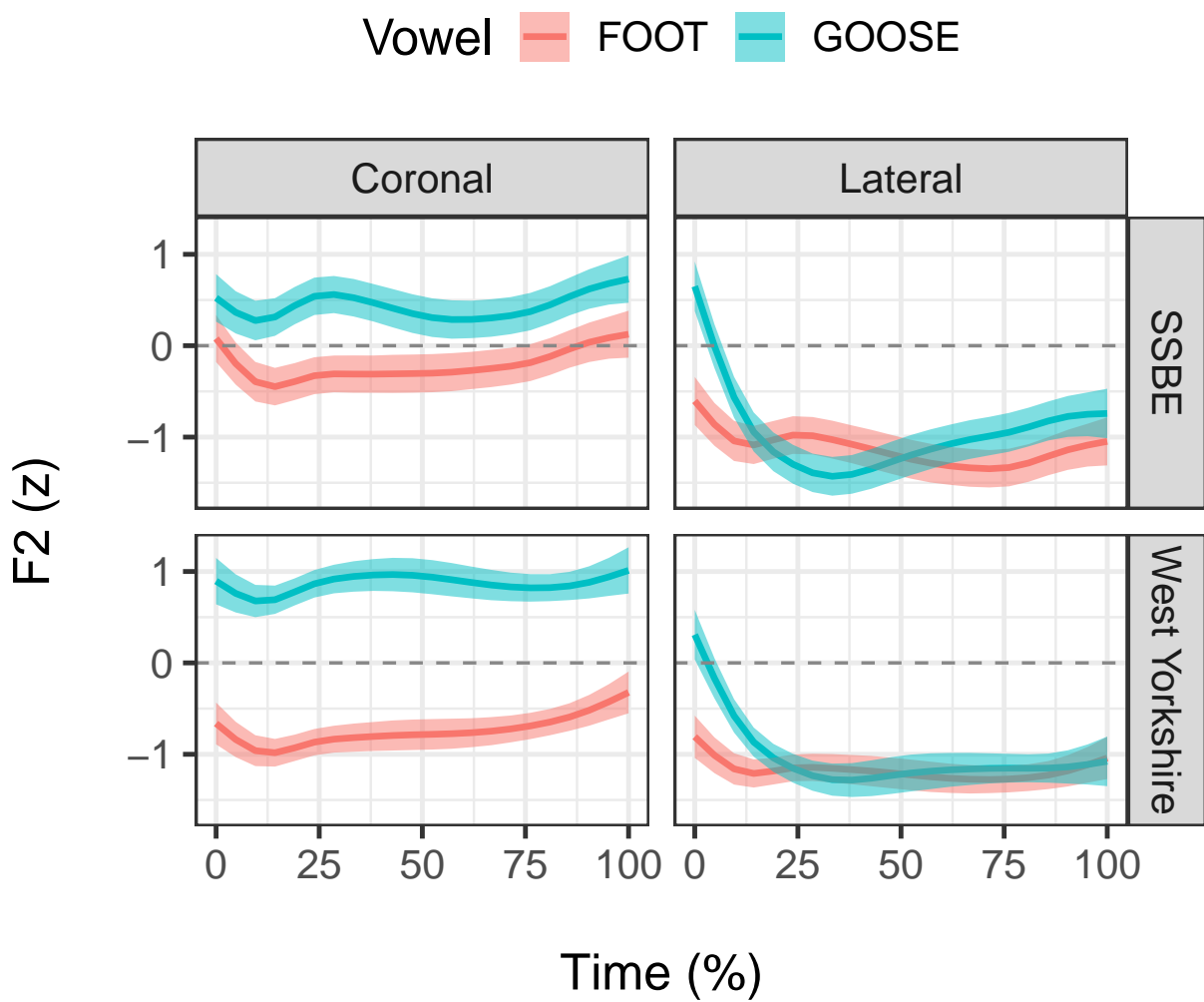


FIG. 2. GAMM plot of time-varying F2 trajectories for FOOT and GOOSE vowels, faceted by following context and dialect. Higher z -scores correspond to higher F2 frequency.

254 trajectories a different shape and different overall height. However, after the first 25%, the
 255 WYE trajectories are near-identical and the SSBE ones are also highly similar. Notably,
 256 the onset of pre-lateral GOOSE is comparable to the onset of its pre-coronal counterpart,
 257 but then F2 dips substantially due to the effect of the coda lateral. In summary, FOOT and
 258 GOOSE are distinct pre-coronally, but remain only minimally distinct pre-laterally in F2.

TABLE I. Results of model comparisons for SSBE data

Comparison	χ^2	df	$p(\chi^2)$
F2			
Overall: vowel phoneme	37.28	5	< .0001
Shape : vowel phoneme	7.87	4	.003
Overall: following	139.91	5	< .0001
Shape: following	37.62	4	< .0001
Overall: vowel phoneme \times following	76.53	11	< .0001
Shape: vowel phoneme \times following	68.9	8	< .0001
Tongue dorsum advancement			
Overall: vowel phoneme	57.21	5	< .0001
Shape : vowel phoneme	50.75	4	< .0001
Overall: following	63.43	5	< .0001
Shape: following	60.97	4	< .0001
Overall: vowel phoneme \times following	50.87	11	< .0001
Shape: vowel phoneme \times following	32.96	8	< .0001
Lower lip protrusion			
Overall: vowel phoneme	19.30	5	< .0001
Shape : vowel phoneme	11.96	4	< .0001
Overall: following	90.76	5	< .0001
Shape: following	63.29	4	< .0001
Overall: vowel phoneme \times following	15.87	11	< .0001
Shape: vowel phoneme \times following	13.91	8	< .0001

TABLE II. Results of model comparisons for West Yorkshire data

Comparison	χ^2	df	$p(\chi^2)$
F2			
Overall: vowel phoneme	60.51	5	< .0001
Shape : vowel phoneme	9.78	4	< .0001
Overall: following	96.74	5	< .0001
Shape: following	25.70	4	< .0001
Overall: vowel phoneme \times following	86.62	11	< .0001
Shape: vowel phoneme \times following	18.26	8	< .0001
Tongue dorsum advancement			
Overall: vowel phoneme	37.44	5	< .0001
Shape : vowel phoneme	23.25	4	< .0001
Overall: following	64.46	5	< .0001
Shape: following	64.41	4	< .0001
Overall: vowel phoneme \times following	56.96	11	< .0001
Shape: vowel phoneme \times following	46.87	8	< .0001
Lower lip protrusion			
Overall: vowel phoneme	91.39	5	< .0001
Shape : vowel phoneme	77.04	4	< .0001
Overall: following	47.08	5	< .0001
Shape: following	43.66	4	< .0001
Overall: vowel phoneme \times following	15.81	11	< .0001
Shape: vowel phoneme \times following	7.46	8	.061

B. Tongue dorsum advancement

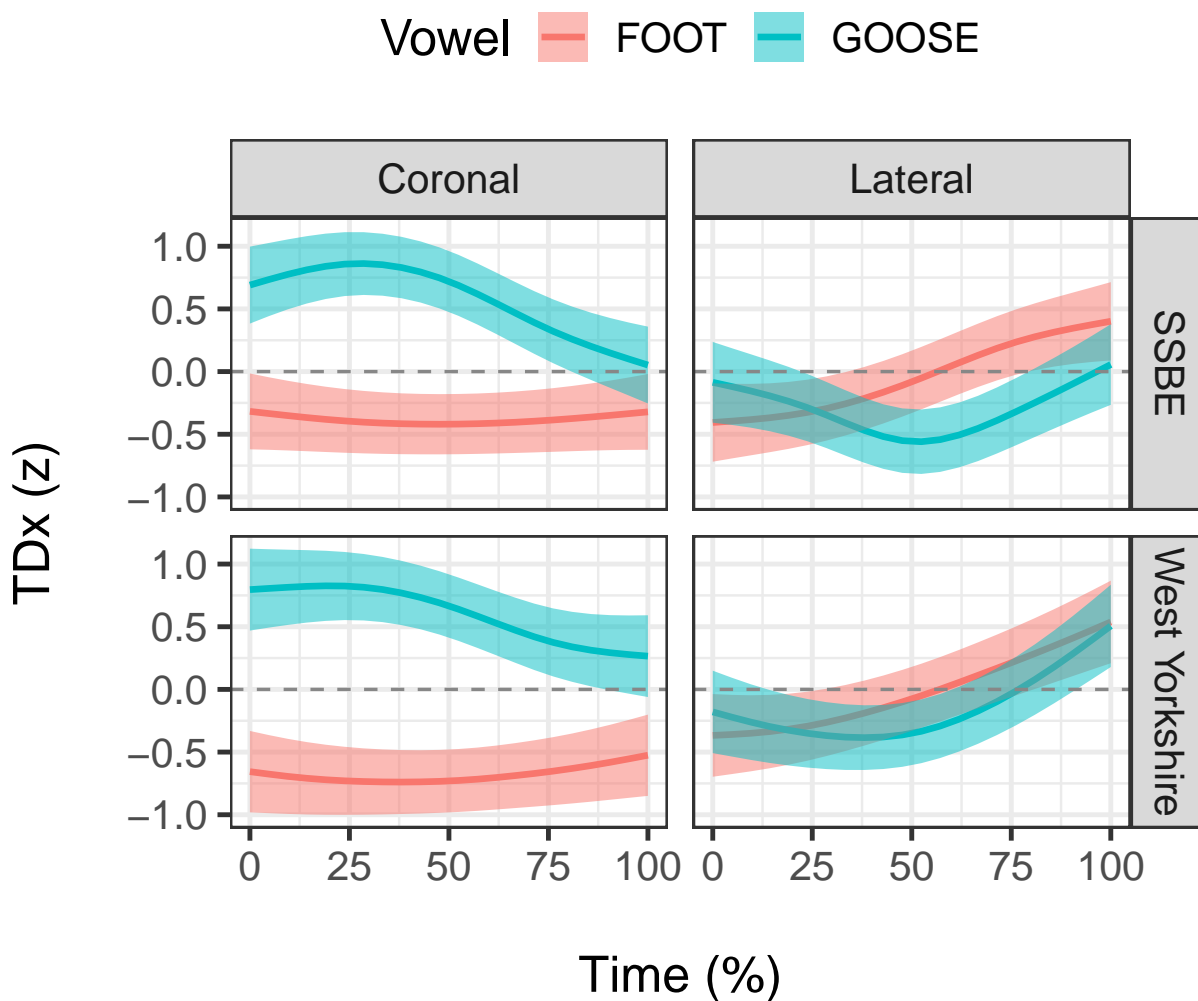


FIG. 3. GAMM plot of time-varying tongue dorsum advancement trajectories for FOOT and GOOSE vowels, faceted by following context and dialect. Higher z -scores correspond to a more advanced TD position.

260 Figure 3 shows the time-varying tongue dorsum trajectories for FOOT and GOOSE vowels
 261 for each dialect. As with F2 trajectories, pre-coronal vowels are highly distinct, with the
 262 difference being slightly larger in WYE than in SSBE. This patterns with the F2 data,
 263 although we do see a different overall trajectory shape between the F2 and tongue dorsum

264 models. Our model comparison also found differences in height and shape for pre-lateral
265 vowels. This is reflected in Figure 3, where SSBE in particular shows a more U-shaped
266 pattern for pre-lateral GOOSE and a positive slope for pre-lateral FOOT. However, these
267 differences are relatively small and remain in general agreement with the F2 model.

268 So far, we find correspondences between F2 frequency and tongue dorsum horizontal
269 advancement. There are some slight differences between measures, particularly in pre-lateral
270 vowels, which appear to be more distinct in lingual fronting than in F2 and also show
271 moderately different trajectory shapes between the two measures. In the following section,
272 we investigate whether examining lower lip advancement (as a proxy for lip protrusion) helps
273 to explain some of these small mismatches in greater detail.

274 C. Lower lip advancement

275 Figure 4 shows the model plot for lower lip horizontal advancement, which we use to
276 model lip protrusion. For pre-coronal FOOT and GOOSE there is almost complete overlap
277 between the trajectories in both dialects. SSBE does, however, show slightly higher overall
278 lower lip advancement relative to the z -scored mean than WYE.

279 The major finding here is the existence of pre-lateral vowel contrast in lower lip trajec-
280 ries. Both dialects show more lip protrusion in GOOSE than FOOT, with this difference being
281 largest in WYE around the 65% timepoint (remember that the interval for pre-lateral vowels
282 includes both the vowel and the lateral portions). SSBE shows a notable difference between
283 the beginning (vowel onset) and end (lateral offset) of the interval, suggesting lip protrusion
284 in the vowel is greatest at vowel onset and smallest in the lateral. Notably, lip protrusion

285 at vowel onset is similar pre-coronally and pre-laterally for SSBE, suggesting that the lat-
 286 eral has a prominent effect on reducing lip protrusion in this dialect. In contrast, WYE
 287 shows relatively constant lip protrusion across the entire interval, which is similar to the
 288 pre-coronal patterns in the same dialect. This suggests a greater degree of /l/ vocalisation
 289 in WYE compared to SSBE.

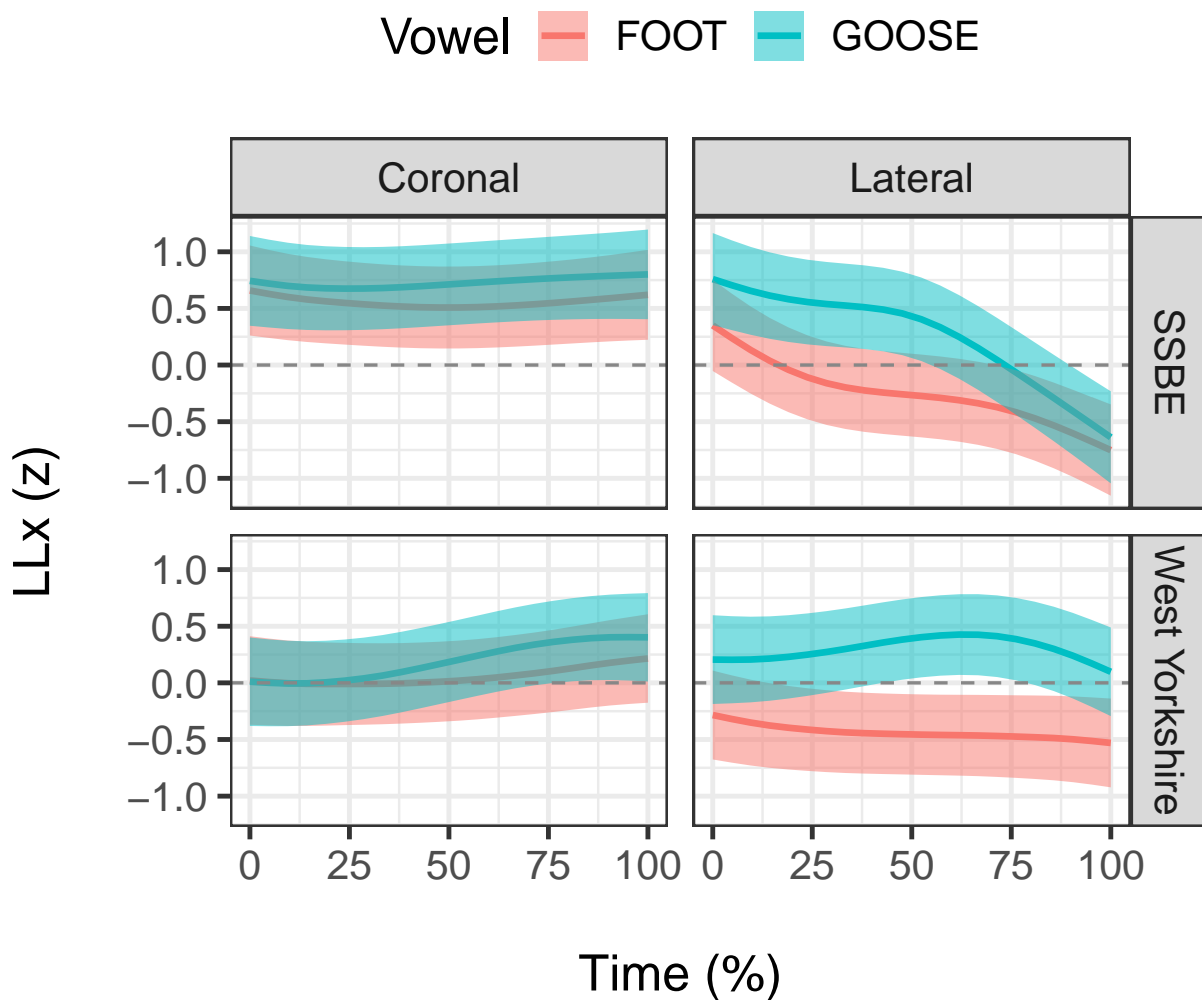


FIG. 4. GAMM plot of time-varying lower lip protrusion trajectories for FOOT and GOOSE vowels, faceted by following context and dialect. Higher z -scores correspond to greater LL protrusion.

290 D. Interim summary

291 For pre-coronal vowels, we find a similar FOOT-GOOSE contrast in F2 and tongue dorsum
292 advancement, such that vowel trajectories are distinct in both domains, with GOOSE being
293 the more advanced in lingual fronting and F2. There remain some differences in trajectory
294 shape between the acoustic and articulatory data, in addition to very small differences in
295 lip protrusion between pre-coronal vowels. In summary, the pre-coronal context appears
296 to follow a relatively straightforward dynamic mapping between F2 and tongue dorsum
297 advancement.

298 In pre-lateral vowels we also find some common patterns between acoustic and articula-
299 tory measures. For instance, we find only small evidence of vowel contrast in F2, alongside
300 relatively small differences in tongue dorsum advancement, albeit larger in magnitude than
301 for F2. However, the overall trajectory shapes are not equivalent across measures. For exam-
302 ple, we see an increase in tongue dorsum advancement across time for FOOT in both dialects,
303 whereas F2 dips slightly and then remains low. If we expected a linear relationship between
304 F2 and tongue dorsum fronting, then we would expect tongue dorsum trajectories to remain
305 relatively flat alongside the F2 trajectories. These mismatches go further when we consider
306 the lower lip data. To re-cap, we would anticipate that tongue dorsum advancement in-
307 creases F2, while greater lip protrusion lowers F2 (Harrington *et al.*, 2011). However, we do
308 not find a straightforward relationship between these articulatory variables. To take SSBE
309 as an example, pre-lateral FOOT is relatively constant in F2 over time, whereas tongue dor-
310 sum advancement increases (which should increase F2), and lip protrusion decreases (which

311 should also increase F2). In order to examine this further, we examine speaker-specific
312 variation in the pre-lateral vowel contrast.

313 **E. Speaker-specific variation in pre-lateral vowels**

314 Figure 5 shows by-speaker average trajectories for the pre-lateral FOOT-GOOSE contrast
315 across the three measures. The F2 data for GOOSE shows that the majority of SSBE speakers
316 have a high onset followed by a steep dip; in some cases F2 then rises after the midpoint
317 into the lateral phase, which is particularly evident for speakers such as SF2 and SM3. Only
318 one SSBE speaker (SM4) shows a completely different pattern, with a linear downwards
319 slope for both vowels. The West Yorkshire speakers are more consistent with one another,
320 generally showing a smaller difference between vowels, except for YF5 who shows a bigger
321 difference in the height of the GOOSE trajectory.

322 The tongue dorsum data show greater variation in lingual fronting, with some speakers
323 clearly showing a fronter GOOSE vowel compared to FOOT (SM4, YF2, YF4), whereas others
324 clearly show a fronter FOOT vowel compared to GOOSE (SF3, SM1, SM5, YF3, YM1, YM2).
325 The remaining speakers show greater similarities between vowels in tongue dorsum advance-
326 ment. On an individual level, there are bigger distinctions between vowel pairs in lingual
327 fronting than in F2, but greater between-speaker variability in lingual fronting. Notably,
328 the above patterns do not appear to be entirely resolved by the lower lip data, with every
329 speaker producing greater lip protrusion during GOOSE than FOOT, albeit with variation in
330 the magnitude of this difference.

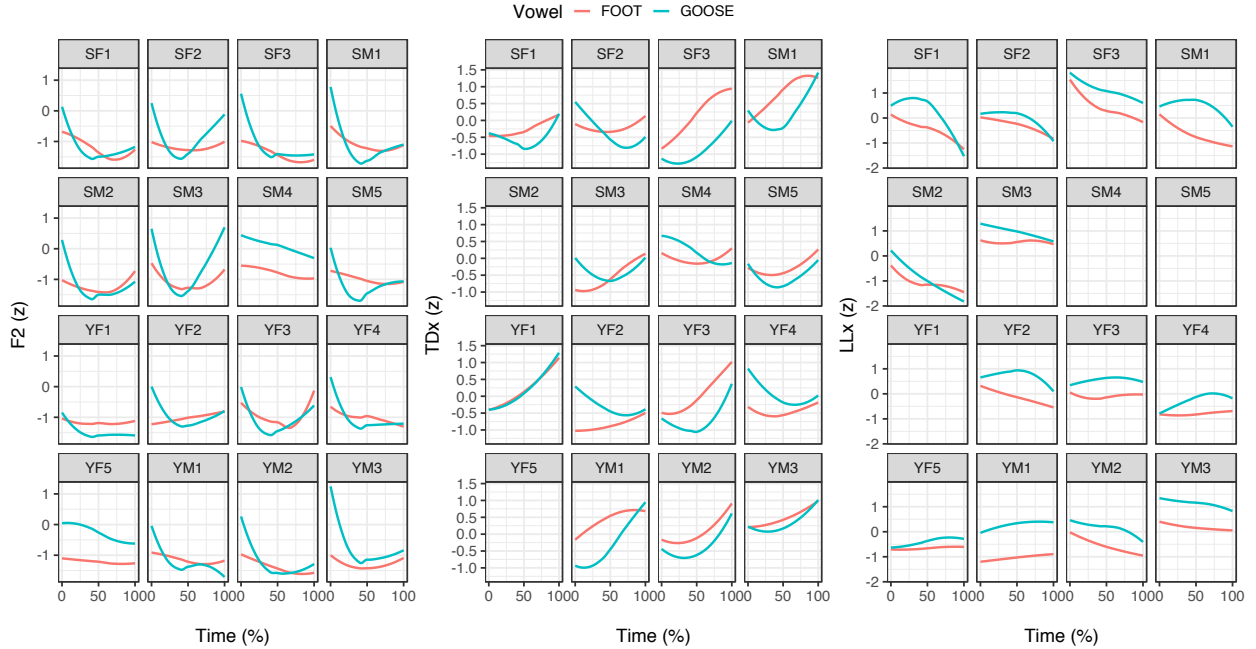


FIG. 5. Smoothed by-speaker average F2 (left), TDx (middle) and LLx (right) trajectories in pre-lateral FOOT and GOOSE vowels. Higher z -scores correspond to higher F2, more advanced TD, and greater LL protrusion. Empty facets represent missing data for that speaker due to unreliable data from that particular sensor.

331 To explore this in greater detail, Figure 6 shows by-speaker F2 and TDx trajectories for
 332 each pre-lateral vowel in the same facet, which facilitates more direct comparison of acoustic-
 333 articulatory trajectories on the individual speaker level. This plot shows speaker variability
 334 in pre-lateral FOOT: F2 and tongue dorsum trajectories are similar to each other for some
 335 speakers (SF2, SM4, YF2, to some extent also SM5, YF4, YM3), but in the majority of
 336 cases lingual fronting increases over time, whereas F2 remains more constant, or dips and
 337 then rises. For pre-lateral GOOSE the majority pattern is a high F2 onset followed by a big
 338 dip and, in some cases, followed by a rise. Only one speaker shows near-identical acoustic
 339 and articulatory trajectories in this context (SM4).

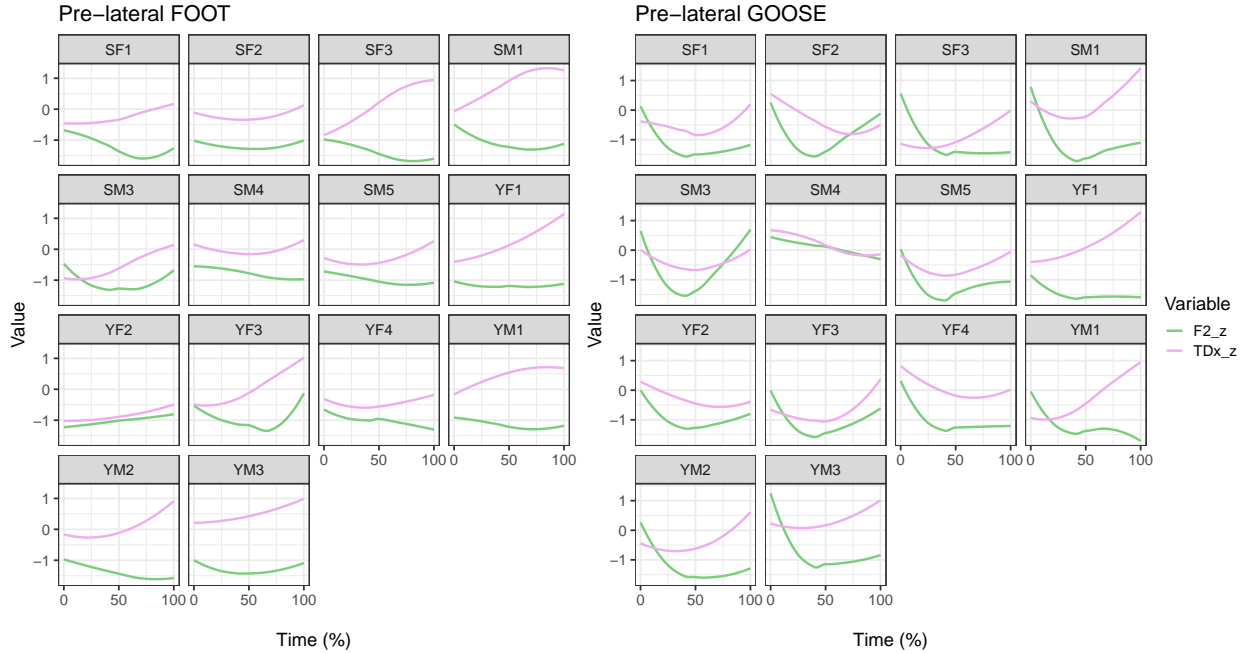


FIG. 6. Smoothed by-speaker average F2 and TDx trajectories in pre-lateral FOOT (left) and GOOSE (right) vowels. Higher z -scores correspond to a greater F2 and TD advancement. Two speakers are excluded from this plot due to an unreliable TD sensor.

340 Overall, there are some common patterns and clear relationships in the individual speaker
 341 data, especially for pre-lateral FOOT, with the prominent patterns being (1) tight patterning
 342 between acoustic-articulatory trajectories; and (2) increase in lingual advancement, with a
 343 steady F2 or a small increase in F2. However, there is also clear evidence of speaker-
 344 specificity in the relationship between F2 and tongue dorsum advancement. Our analysis
 345 shows that this is primarily due to variation in lingual fronting, despite relatively consistent
 346 patterns in F2. This suggests greater between-speaker variability in articulation than in
 347 acoustics. We now unpack these results with respect to previous research on acoustic-
 348 articulatory relations in vowels and gestural configuration in vowel-lateral sequences.

349 IV. DISCUSSION

350 A. Acoustics and articulation of vowel fronting in SSBE

351 Recall from Section IB that [Strycharczuk and Scobbie \(2017\)](#) analysed the same vowel
352 contrast in SSBE using the same stimuli, but using midsagittal ultrasound instead of EMA
353 for quantifying tongue advancement. They found that pre-lateral FOOT and GOOSE were
354 merged in acoustics, but distinct in articulation. We found evidence for pre-lateral vowel
355 contrast in acoustics and articulation, but note that the articulatory contrast was bigger
356 than the acoustic contrast, which points in the same direction as [Strycharczuk and Scobbie](#)
357 [\(2017\)](#). In summary, our results broadly agree with the previous findings in this area.

358 [Strycharczuk and Scobbie \(2017\)](#) explain their results by hypothesising a potential con-
359 tribution of lip movement to F2, which may counteract the differences in tongue position
360 evidenced in the articulatory data. Our lip protrusion data does not help to straightfor-
361 wardly resolve this issue. In fact, we found that the lip data patterns in an opposite way
362 to our predictions. For instance, SSBE pre-lateral FOOT shows an increase in tongue dor-
363 sum advancement over time, whereas lip protrusion decreases over time. Both of these
364 articulatory gestures should result in F2 raising, yet F2 remains relatively constant over its
365 post-onset duration. This complicates the picture further, as there is no clear trading rela-
366 tion between the tongue and lips in modifying F2. We note, however, that these mismatches
367 largely remain restricted to the pre-lateral context.

368 One explanation for this result could be aspects of vocal tract shaping that are not
369 directly captured by EMA sensors. For example, in the production of both laterals and

370 /u/ vowels, there is likely to be a small sublingual cavity, which is often modelled as a side
371 branch that introduces additional poles and zeros into the transfer function (Stevens, 1998,
372 194). While the comparably small sublingual cavity in laterals is not predicted to have
373 significant influences on the lower formants (Charles and Lulich, 2019), in principle it can
374 lower the front cavity resonance and push it closer to F2, particularly for more retroflex-like
375 articulations (Stevens, 1998, 535). Our EMA point tracking technique cannot adequately
376 model such phenomena directly, meaning that there are various unmeasured aspects of vocal
377 tract shaping that could be influencing the acoustic output and, therefore, could account
378 for some of the apparent acoustic-articulatory mismatches that we report.

379 **B. Effects of a coda lateral on vowel fronting**

380 Previous studies show that a coda lateral exerts substantially different phonetic pressures
381 on preceding back vowels compared with coronals, including greater lingual retraction and
382 lower F2 (e.g. Carter and Local, 2007; Kleber and Reubold, 2011; Ladefoged and Maddieson,
383 1996). As a result, pre-lateral fronting of back vowels is considered to be a later stage of the
384 sound change (e.g. see Fridland and Bartlett, 2006). This is supported by previous acoustic
385 studies of British English, showing that pre-lateral GOOSE-fronting can occur, but that its
386 progression through a speech community is likely to be gradual, evidenced in factors such
387 as social class stratification (Baranowski, 2017).

388 Our results show the predictable lack of GOOSE fronting in pre-lateral contexts, evidenced
389 in lower F2, a more retracted tongue dorsum, and a more U-shaped tongue dorsum trajec-
390 tory, compared with the rise-fall trajectory in the pre-coronal context. The FOOT vowel,

391 however, is more complex. Predictably, pre-lateral FOOT shows lower F2 than pre-coronal
392 FOOT in both dialects, with the contrast between pre-coronal and pre-lateral FOOT being
393 much smaller than for GOOSE, particularly in WYE. From an articulatory perspective, how-
394 ever, the pre-lateral context does not condition lesser degrees of tongue dorsum fronting
395 than the pre-coronal context in either dialect. Tongue dorsum trajectories for FOOT show
396 similar values at vowel onset in pre-lateral and pre-coronal contexts. However, we see lingual
397 advancement in both dialects for this vowel over the timecourse of the vowel-lateral interval,
398 despite no obvious effects of this on F2, and no straightforward evidence that this is counter-
399 acted by lip protrusion. In fact, in SSBE, we see that pre-lateral FOOT involves more lingual
400 fronting than GOOSE after the first 25% of the interval. This could be suggestive of FOOT-
401 fronting being at a more advanced stage in SSBE than WYE, which is predictable from the
402 literature (e.g. [Ferragne and Pellegrino, 2010](#); [Watt and Tillotson, 2001](#)). The overall model
403 does not explain, however, why WYE FOOT shows more lingual fronting pre-laterally than
404 pre-coronally.

405 Our speaker-specific analysis sheds some more light on these issues. Different speakers
406 appear to use different patterns of lingual advancement between pre-lateral vowel pairs in
407 order to achieve similar outcomes in F2. We do not find these differences to such an extent in
408 the lip protrusion data. It is possible that the larger speaker differences in articulation may
409 represent motor equivalent strategies for achieving similar acoustic outcomes ([Carignan,](#)
410 [2014](#); [Hogden *et al.*, 1996](#); [Perrier and Fuchs, 2015](#)). However, it is clear that a more
411 thorough account of multi-dimensional articulatory-acoustic vowel relations is required in
412 order to understand acoustic-articulatory relations in more detail, especially as our analysis

413 has only focused on a very minimal set of parameters, rather than a dynamic area function
414 (see [Carignan *et al.* 2020](#) for a very promising approach to analysing dynamic change in area
415 functions from MRI data).

416 C. Acoustic-articulatory relations and vowel-lateral dynamics

417 Before unpacking the nature of acoustic-articulatory relations in more theoretical terms,
418 we note one obvious methodological reason why pre-lateral vowels behave differently from
419 pre-coronal vowels in our study. That is, the pre-coronal analysis examines only the vowel
420 interval, whereas the pre-lateral analysis includes both the vowel and following lateral. This
421 difference is inevitable, given the difficulties of reliable segmentation between vowels and
422 laterals, which is particularly evident in the case of coda laterals. Indeed, much previous
423 research has taken a similar approach, analysing the dynamics of the vowel-lateral interval
424 as an entire syllable unit ([Carter and Local, 2007](#); [Kirkham, 2017](#); [Kirkham *et al.*, 2019](#);
425 [Nance, 2014](#)).

426 That said, we believe that this alone does not account for the patterns that we see
427 here. There are a number of potential explanations why pre-lateral vowels may show less
428 straightforward acoustic-articulatory relations. Previous research shows that the lateral
429 context is the last stage to show fronting ([Baranowski, 2017](#)). Notably, this mismatch and
430 variability is more pronounced for FOOT, which we also expect to be at a later stage of
431 sound change ([Jansen, 2019](#)). It could be the case that pre-lateral fronting of both vowels is
432 in-progress in the communities under study in this paper, with FOOT being a much newer

433 change. This may explain the higher degree of between-speaker variability in this context,
434 as speakers could be at different stages of the sound change for this vowel.

435 An explanation that is also compatible with the above comes from quantal theories of
436 speech production (Stevens, 1989, 1997). The specific dynamics of the lingual transition
437 between FOOT and the following lateral may operate in a part of the vocal tract that exhibits
438 a higher degree of acoustic-articulatory instability, such that articulatory change is not
439 proportional to acoustic change in the way it might be in other areas of the vocal tract.
440 While it would seem unusual for this to be the case for one vowel, a combination of the
441 quantal nature of speech along with the high inter-speaker variability associated with early
442 stages of sound change, could account for the nature of our data. For instance, it is likely that
443 sound changes-in-progress involve speakers subtly modifying vocal tract articulations, which
444 may take time to stabilise into a quantal part of the vocal tract that yields a high degree of
445 acoustic-articulatory stability. Previous work supports this, with evidence that articulatory
446 change may sometimes precede acoustic change (Lawson *et al.*, 2011). At present, however,
447 this explanation is purely speculative and would need to be investigated with a much larger
448 set of sounds that are at different stages of change.

449 Another important factor in explaining these results is the complex gestural configuration
450 of laterals and how they interact with vowels. Proctor *et al.* (2019) compare laterals with
451 rhotics and show that laterals may exhibit greater gestural independence from an adjacent
452 vowel than rhotics. This is not to say, however, that the lateral does not exert significant
453 influence on the vowel. Previous research shows surprisingly long-range coarticulation from
454 liquids, sometimes multiple syllables prior to the vowel (Heid and Hawkins, 2000). This

455 makes it highly likely that entire vowel-lateral trajectories will substantially differ from
456 vowels followed by a non-liquid consonant. This does not explain, however, why we see
457 markedly different patterns between pre-lateral FOOT and GOOSE. It is likely, then, that
458 there is a complex dynamic involved in the acoustic-articulatory relations of pre-lateral
459 vowels undergoing sound change.

460 Finally, we must stress that our focus on single points on the tongue and lower lip does not
461 adequately capture the complex vocal tract shaping involved in vowel or lateral production.
462 Vocal tract resonances arise from a three-dimensional airspace, which is of course modulated
463 by the tongue, but a point on the tongue does not adequately capture the oral tract area
464 function in its rich detail. It is, therefore, very likely that there are many unmeasured
465 articulatory dimensions that are contributing to the F2 of pre-lateral vowels in these data.
466 Future research should seek to better handle such issues by developing interpretable ways
467 of tracking the relationship between multi-dimensional acoustic and articulatory variables
468 over time.

469 V. CONCLUSION

470 This study has taken a dynamic approach to investigating the effect of a coda consonant
471 on acoustic-articulatory relations in British English back vowel fronting. While both SSBE
472 and WYE dialects display similar trajectories across F2 and tongue advancement for pre-
473 coronal vowels, we observe significant mismatches between F2 and tongue advancement in
474 the pre-lateral context, which lip protrusion is also unable to explain. We find a substantial
475 amount of speaker-specific variation in lingual fronting for pre-lateral vowels, which points

476 towards relatively consistent acoustic targets despite a high degree of articulatory variability
477 (at least in pre-lateral vowels).

478 Overall, we hypothesise that the acoustic-articulatory patterns observed in pre-lateral
479 vowels may be due to the complex gestural configuration that accompanies laterals and
480 how this interacts with vowel gestures in such contexts. Future research will aim to more
481 comprehensively understand coarticulatory dynamics and acoustic-articulatory relations in
482 vowel-lateral sequences. This will necessarily involve developing ways of better quantifying
483 time-varying acoustic-articulatory relations and being able to compare how these vary be-
484 tween speakers. We also believe that an apparent-time comparison of younger and older
485 speakers would help to explain whether the acoustic-articulatory relations reported here are
486 due to the pre-lateral vowels being at different stages of sound change for different speakers.

487 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

488 We would like to thank Susanne Fuchs and two anonymous reviewers for their helpful
489 and constructive comments on previous versions of this article. This research was supported
490 by an Economic and Social Research Council 1+3 Doctoral Award (grant number 2035868)
491 awarded to Emily Gorman.

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