ALPARC: Artificial Languages with Phonological and Acoustic Rhythmicity Controls

Lorenzo Titone [1], Nikola Milosevic [2], Lars Meyer [1, 3, 4]

[1] Max Planck Research Group Language Cycles, Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, 04103 Leipzig, Germany.

[2] Methods and Development Group Neural Data Science and Statistical Computing, Max Planck Institute for Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences, 04103 Leipzig, Germany.

[3] Department of English and Linguistics, Johannes Gutenberg University Mainz, 55128 Mainz, Germany.

[4] Clinic for Phoniatrics and Pediatric Audiology, University Hospital Münster, 48149 Münster, Germany.

Abstract

Infants and adults show the remarkable ability to learn from statistical regularities in the environment. Seminal studies on statistical learning in language acquisition suggested that transitional probabilities between syllables are decisive for word learning. Yet, recent work cautioned that acoustic and phonological regularities confound transitional probabilities, compromising interpretability. Furthermore, prior linguistic background can impact the learning of a new (artificial) language. To control for such confounds, we developed an open-source Python toolbox that generates Artificial Languages with Phonological and Acoustic Rhythmicity Controls (ALPARC). First, we explain all functionalities of ALPARC and provide a step-by-step guide. Then, we demonstrate how ALPARC generates syllable streams encompassing pseudowords that are tailored to critical statistics of real languages. Our results show that ALPARC streams attain stationary transitional probability distributions and reduce acoustic and phonological confounds relative to stimuli used in prior studies. We conclude that ALPARC is a useful tool to overcome current uncertainties in future SL studies.

Keywords

Speech, Prosody, Phonology, Transitional Probabilities, Statistical Learning, Frequency-Tagging, Artificial Grammar Learning,

1.   Introduction

Statistical learning (SL) is the ability to extract regularities from the environment. Among its role for several cognitive functions, SL is pivotal for speech segmentation and language acquisition (Bogaerts et al., 2020; Frost et al., 2019). For instance, statistical regularities can be used to infer lexical boundaries that are rarely marked acoustically, since transitional probabilities (TPs) between syllables are typically higher within than across words. Seminal research on SL in language acquisition used artificial language learning paradigms to show that infants and adults can acquire a lexicon of nonsense "pseudowords" marked by low-TP boundaries (e.g., Saffran et al., 1996). After exposure to syllable streams with statistical regularities, SL can be assessed by reflection-based measures, such as two-alternative forced-choice tasks, where pseudowords are endorsed as more familiar than chunks that violate the TPs (see Batterink et al., 2015; Christiansen, 2019, for discussion).

Several electrophysiological studies used frequency-tagging paradigms to investigate neural tracking of periodic TP patterns as an index of linguistic SL (Assaneo et al., 2019; Batterink & Paller, 2017; Buiatti et al., 2009; Cunillera et al., 2006, 2009; Getz et al., 2018; Henin et al., 2021; McNealy et al., 2006; Ordin et al., 2020). In this paradigm, syllables are presented at a fixed rate (e.g., 3.3 Hz), while pseudowords emerge at a different rate (e.g., 1.1 Hz) in TP-structured streams, but not in shuffled streams. Most of these studies found decreased neural tracking at the syllable rate (physically present in the stimulus) and increased tracking at the pseudoword rate (putatively absent from the stimulus) in TP-structured relative to TP-uniform streams (see also Sjuls et al., 2024 for a review). While these findings suggest sensitivity to TPs, or perceptual chunking of pseudowords (see Batterink & Paller, 2017; Perruchet & Pacton, 2006; Saffran & Kirkham, 2018; Siegelman et al., 2019; Thiessen, 2017 for discussion), recent work raised concerns about the interpretability of this work since acoustic regularities and phonotactics confound the TP rate (Pinto et al., 2022; van der Wulp, 2021).

Pinto et al. (2022) pointed out that syllables occurring at fixed positions in TP-structured streams impose an acoustic peak at the pseudoword rate in the envelope spectra of TP-structured streams, which is absent in TP-uniform streams with randomly shuffled syllables (Luo & Ding, 2020; Pinto et al., 2022). In order to match this acoustic peak at baseline, Pinto et al. (2022) designed a TP-uniform position-controlled stream, forcing syllables to occupy the same ordinal position. Moreover, they found stronger tracking at the pseudoword rate in the TP-structured condition than in the baseline. While this acoustic control strengthens neural inference, several other factors may still play a role in pseudoword learning, beyond TPs. In fact, one caveat of linguistic SL is that learners may infer lexical boundaries also based on acoustic, phonological, and phonotactic cues (Luo & Ding, 2020; Onnis et al., 2005; Pinto et al., 2022; Seidenberg et al., 2002; van der Wulp, 2021; Varela et al., 2024). Indeed, neurons in the human superior temporal gyrus display selective tuning to phonemes and phonological features (Mesgarani et al., 2014). Accordingly, studies have suggested that cortical tracking of speech might reflect phoneme-level processing in addition to statistical regularities or acoustic cues (Chen et al., 2020; Daube et al., 2019; Di Liberto et al., 2015).

Phonotactic rules in a given language can bias word segmentation. For instance, neighboring syllables with the same place of articulation are more likely to occur across word boundaries than within words. The adherence to this phonotactic rule—also known as the obligatory contour principle (OCP)—was shown to influence word segmentation (Boll-Avetisyan & Kager, 2014) and to partially account for neural tracking at the pseudoword rate in a recent reanalysis of an artificial language learning study (Batterink & Paller, 2017; van der Wulp, 2021). Moreover, previous studies using coarticulation or stress in combination with statistical linguistic information showed that infants rely on prosodic and phonotactic cues (Johnson & Jusczyk, 2001; Jusczyk et al., 1999; Thiessen & Saffran, 2003). Building on this work, studies have shown the role of familiar prosodic cues for language learning (Kuuluvainen et al., 2025; Shukla et al., 2007), as well as evidence for neural tracking of both prosody and TPs with frequency-tagging (Cunillera et al., 2006; Elmer et al., 2021). In addition to acoustic, phonological, prosodic, and statistical regularities, linguistic entrenchment with a known language biases the learning of a new (artificial) language (Elazar et al., 2022; Siegelman et al., 2018; Varela et al., 2024). To address this issue, prior work relied on experts' knowledge and linguistic corpora to control the similarity between artificial and real languages by excluding syllables with high frequency of use (Kiai & Melloni, 2021) or eluding high positional similarity to real words (Fernandes et al., 2009; Varela et al., 2024).

We introduce here an open-source tool to improve stimulus control in (linguistic) SL studies. The tool generates *Artificial Languages with Phonological and Acoustic Rhythmicity Controls* (ALPARC). ALPARC is optimized to make frequency-tagged syllable streams with regular TP distributions. In ALPARC, artificial languages are defined as sets of pseudowords. ALPARC builds these sets strategically to prevent phonological and linguistic cues from biasing the TPs between pseudowords. These sets are then rendered in TP-structured and TP-uniform streams, which can be (externally) synthesized or recorded, and further edited using ad-hoc duration and pitch manipulations for frequency-tagging paradigms. In addition, ALPARC introduces a new Phonological Rhythmicity Index (PRI) diagnosing the presence of phonological regularities at the TP rate in such TP-uniform streams of syllables.

We first highlight the current scope of ALPARC with three independent and interdependent modules. ALPARC—1 builds artificial languages (of arbitrary size) from a list of pseudoword candidates (with a fixed syllable structure). ALPARC—2 renders these artificial languages as TP-structured and TP-uniform streams, contrasting surprisal at word boundaries. ALPARC—3 diagnoses a PRI that reflects phonological rhythmicity confounds at the pseudoword rate in frequency-tagged speech streams. Afterwards, we provide a step-by-step guide to simulate artificial lexicons of variable size, which are rendered in TP-uniform syllable streams of arbitrary length with calibrated statistical, phonological, and acoustic rhythmicity at a fixed rate. We evaluate ALPARC showing that it reduces acoustic and phonological rhythmicity confounds at the rate of interest and enhances TP stationarity relative to benchmarking artificial languages and naïve randomness methods. Finally, we discuss the current limitations and potential future directions of every ALPARC module.

2. Materials and Equipment

ALPARC is an open-source tool with a modular architecture. It can be used as a dataset to download our pre-computed artificial languages, or as a library to (1) generate new artificial languages, (2) render them as TP-structured and TP-uniform streams, and (3) evaluate phonological rhythmicity confounds therein. ALPARC achieves these goals in five steps, optimized for linguistic SL studies with frequency-tagging. In parallel to assuming a linear workflow, the architecture of ALPARC can be divided into three modules, according to their functional domains (Figure 1). Within this scope, ALPARC has a wide array of parameter settings (Table 1). Beyond the present scope, the three modules of ALPARC might serve as independent base tools for future SL research across domains. All materials, data, and code are available at: https://github.com/milosen/alparc.

Figure 1. ALPARC workflow and modules. The pipeline highlights all the steps for the generation of artificial language streams. Phonemes annotated with binary vectors of phonological features constitute the atomic linguistic unit of ALPARC. Language-specific corpora can be used to filter the syllable and pseudoword register based on syllable frequency of use and phoneme n-gram probabilities in real languages. Pseudowords can be generated either internally (using our linguistic constraints) or externally. Then, ALPARC constrains the assembly of a Lexicon Register to minimize phonological feature regularities among pseudoword pairs that would confound TPs. Finally, lexicons are converted into TP-controlled streams of syllables. Beyond this linear workflow, ALPARC can be clustered in three modules ALPARC—1 covers the first three steps—from Phonemes to Lexicons. ALPARC—2 covers the step of stream generation with audio editing extensions. ALPARC—3 diagnoses the output of the previous modules in terms of phonological rhythmicity.

114   **Table 1. ALPARC parameter settings.**

Stage	Parameter	Default	Options	Rationale
syllable	lang	deu	eng	Default uses an open German syllable corpus. For an alternative, we used English (eng).
syllable	phoneme_pattern	cV	cv, cvc	The phoneme pattern of building syllables. The default is a phoneme combination in German.
syllable	syllable_control	True	False	Base the syllable register on the corpus.
syllable	syllable_alpha	0.05	0, 0.1, etc.	Quantile for filtering out unlikely syllables (based on the uniformity test on corpus).
syllable	syllable_corpus	None	path-to-syllables.csv	None means use the default corpus.
word	n_syllables_per_word	3	2, 5, etc.	The default is used in the experiments.
word	n_words	10000	4000, 5000, etc.	Pseudoword register size (large enough).
word	max_word_tries	100000	10000, 20000, etc.	Tries for word generation (large enough).
word	phonotactic_control	True	False	Used in the demonstration (OCP).
word	n_look_back	2	3, 4, etc.	The default allows candidate word with no repeating phonological class in the last two syllables. Larger values provide stricter controls but are computationally expensive.
word	bigram_control	True	False	Restrict register to bigrams in the corpus.
word	bigram_alpha	None	0.05, etc.	Additionally, filter out unlikely bigrams based on this quantile (no filter if None).
word	trigram_control	True	False	See bigrams.
word	trigram_alpha	None	0.05, etc.	See bigrams.
word	positional_control	True	False	Same as bi-/trigrams, but check for likelihood of phoneme placement within a word.
word	positional_position	None	1, 2, etc.	None means check all positions.
word	position_alpha	None	0.05, etc.	See bigrams and trigrams.

Stage	Parameter	Default	Options	Rationale
lexicon	n_lexicons	2	5, 10, etc.	Size of the lexicon register (how many to generate from the word register). Arbitrary.
lexicon	n_words_per_lexicon	4	3, 5, etc.	Arbitrary. We choose 4 for the demonstration to obtain tractable lexicon lengths for printing.
lexicon	binary_feature_control	True	False	Can be turned off for comparison, but it's one of ALPARC's main features.
lexicon	max_overlap	1	2, 3, etc.	Reject lexicons with too much feature overlap between words. By default, we don't allow any overlap, so PRI stays small.
lexicon	lag	None	1, 2, 3, etc.	Feature similarity score is based on this syllable frequency. Number of syllables per word by default.
lexicon	max_word_matrix	200	100, 150, etc.	Samples this many words and computes feature overlap matrix between them. Should be large enough. Too large and the computation can get expensive.
lexicon	unique_words	False	True	Reject lexicons that share words with already-generated ones. Only applicable if multiple lexicons are generated at the same time.
stream	n_repetitions	15	10, 20, etc.	The number of syllables in the stream will be: n_repetitions × n_syllables_per_word × n_words_per_lexicon
stream	n_streams_per_lexicon	2	5, 10, etc.	Generate these many streams with the same lexicon. Used for the demonstration.
stream	tp_modes	random, word_structured, position_controlled	Select one	Used in the experiments to demonstrate the different TP modes.
stream	max_rhythmicity	None	0.1, 0.5, etc.	Reject streams that have too high PRI. Not done by default to show the full unaltered distribution of ALPARC generated streams.
stream	max_tries_randomize	10	5, 20, etc.	Only relevant if streams are rejected because of max_rhythmicity. Try again this many times.
stream	require_all_tp_modes	True	False	Only relevant if streams are rejected because of max_rhythmicity. Reject all streams from those lexicons that fail to generate all tp_modes. Used only for the demonstration to compare streams from all tp_modes on the same lexicon.

ALPARC provides a framework to model nested (linguistic) units for stimuli design in SL. Phonemes
are the atomic linguistic units of ALPARC. These units are combined to form so-called registers of syllables,
pseudowords and lexicons. We use the term register in its computational connotation referring to a constrained
pool of candidates. ALPARC enables a fast search over large combinatorial spaces within the registers. The
phonological domain of ALPARC is limited to 5935 phonemes with 21 phonological features each (Chomsky
& Halle, 1968). These phonemes are identified in International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) notation and further
annotated with class features (syllabic [syl], sonorant [son], consonantal [cons]); manner features (continuant
[cont], delayed release [delrel], lateral [lat], nasal [nas], strident [strid]); laryngeal features (voice [voi], spread
glottis [sg], constricted glottis [cg]); and place features (i.e., anterior [ant], coronal [cor], distributed [distr],
labial [lab], high [hi], low [lo], back [back], round [rnd], tense [tense], long [long]). Based on this matrix of
binary phonological features linked to each phoneme, ALPARC generates pseudoword and lexicon registers
of arbitrary size with one fixed syllable structure (e.g., [open] consonant-vowel syllables).

ALPARC can tailor an artificial lexicon to language-specific corpora distributions of syllable/phoneme
(co-)occurrences. To that end, ALPARC requires a linguistic corpus that must be provided by the user. The
tokenized entries in the corpus (e.g., phonemes or syllables) must be found in the phoneme list (Chomsky &
Halle, 1968) and associated with their natural frequency of use, or phoneme statistics (e.g., bigram, trigram,
or positional probabilities)., In the current application, ALPARC filters its lexical registers to approximate a
more uniform distribution of the probability of (co-)occurrence of syllables and phonemes in spoken German
(Arnold & Tomaschek, 2016; Schiel, 2010) and English (Baayen et al., 1996) corpora.

To summarize, ALPARC presents three modules that can be used independently and interdependently.
ALPARC—1 generates ad-hoc artificial languages with linguistic and phonological controls. First, linguistic
controls rest on syllabic and phonemic corpora, and special phonotactic principles (e.g., OCP). These features
are employed to milden linguistic biases in artificial registers (Figure 2A-B). Second, phonological rhythmicity
controls rest on the binary vectors of phonological features and return selected sets of pseudowords with a low
feature overlap to reduce phonological confounds at the rate of TP boundaries (Figure 2C). ALPARC—2
makes three types of TP-uniform streams contrasting the information of each syllable at regular locations
throughout the stream. To attain uniform TP distributions in a more precise and consistent way than with naïve
shuffling implements acoustic and statistical rhythmicity controls solutions, ALPARC "walks" a Eulerian
Circuit (EC). An EC is a closed walk on a graph that uses every directed edge exactly once. In our application,
edges express local contingencies that correspond to TPs between syllables or pseudowords (i.e., nodes) in the
artificial language (Figure 2D). To render such streams auditorily, we provide audio editing tools that
concatenate syllables with a uniform duration, integrated with suprasegmental pitch samples (Figure 2E).
ALPARC—3 expresses each stream of syllables as a binary matrix of phonological features across syllables.
This representation allows to return a Phonological Rhythmicity Index (PRI). This index expresses the density
of a (TP) pattern in each of the phonological feature vectors of a syllable stream (Figure 2C, right).

Figure 2. ALPARC registers. (A) Syllable register. Syllable tokens whose frequency deviate from uniformity in Schiel (2010) are excluded (red) from the register (left). The survival syllables are coded based on place of articulation (right). (B) Pseudoword register. One ad-hoc phonotactic constraint (i.e., OCP-place) shapes how syllables are allowed to form pseudowords (left). The resulting register is filtered (red) based on deviations from uniformity of phoneme bi-/tri-gram probabilities in Arnold & Tomaschek (2016). (C). Lexicon register. Binary matrices of phonological feature overlap across pseudowords pairs in one example lexicon generated with ALPARC (left), and one reference lexicon (right). Pseudowords are color-coded on the abscissae; vertical dashed lines cut the matrices at their boundaries. The horizontal line separates features associated with the consonant (top) or the vowel (below) phoneme of each syllable. Grey squares represent a minus (or a zero) in the feature vector of a given syllable (i.e., the feature is absent); whereas white squares represent a plus (or a one) for that feature (i.e., the feature is present). Red boxes flag repetitive patterns of phonological features across

minimal pseudowords pairs that would confound the TP patterns at the pseudoword rate (e.g., [1 0 0, 1 0 0]). Phonological rhythms at the rate of TP boundaries (blue arrows) are to-be-avoided in the binary feature vector (right). To avoid the confound, ALPARC expands this feature matrix for all pseudoword pairs in the register to form lexicons with the least cumulative feature overlap. (D) Stream register. Eulerian circuit describing the TP uniformity (left) across four states (circles). Three uniform stream conditions can be formed with different patterns of TPs (right). TPs are displayed above neighboring syllable pairs. Pseudowords and syllable positions are color-coded in hue and shade, respectively. (E) Audio register. Sounds can be edited to have a fixed duration (top). In addition, the original pitch tier of the sound (mid-top) can be replaced, for instance, with a regular prosodic contour (e.g., bottom: adapted from Lamekina & Meyer (2023)).

3.   Method

The prime use-case of ALPARC is to build artificial languages of pseudowords step-by-step. First, ALPARC connects phonemes into syllables (Step 1) and pseudowords (Step 2), while constraining legal compositions linguistically through ad-hoc phonotactic rules and speech corpora. Next, ALPARC builds lexicons as sets of pseudoword candidates with minimal phonological regularities (Step 3). Lexicons are rendered as sequences of tokens with uniform TP distributions across all syllables or across regular pseudoword boundaries (Step 4). Audio editing tools optimized for frequency-tagged streams are available (Step 5).

3.1.   Step 1—from phonemes to syllables: lexical control

In Step 1, ALPARC builds a phoneme register, annotated with binary phonological feature vectors. By default, ALPARC selects a subset of phonemes from a universal corpus (Chomsky & Halle, 1968). ALPARC can thus build a phoneme register that is limited to the phonemes in the list, and may not cover all of the speech sounds of all of the world's languages. In our implementation, we restrict the phoneme register to retain only single IPA characters with no coarticulation. This design choice was meant to ease downstream computations, albeit more complex (e.g., coarticulated) phonemes are present in the matrix and can be selected.

To compose the syllable register, ALPARC uses one fixed syllable structure. The default (cV syllables, with long vowels) is set to render vowel duration uniform across syllables, for isochronous manipulations (e.g., frequency-tagging). While selecting the syllable type, users may also specify a subset of phonological features for each phoneme (default = sonorant [son], continuant [cont], lateral [lat], nasal [nas], voice [voi], coronal [cor], labial [lab], high [hi], back [back] for consonants [C]; and labial [lab], high [hi], low [low], back [back], tense [tense], long [long] for vowels [V]). These features will be carried over as annotations for further steps.

ALPARC can filter a syllable register to approximate a uniform distribution from linguistic corpus data. In particular, syllables whose frequency of use significantly deviate from the uniform distribution are removed (Figure 2A). Corpora-based filters can be useful for two reasons. First, using real syllables from the native

language of the learners is essential to ensure intelligibility, since non-distinctive phonemes are ambiguous.
Second, eliminating highly (in)frequent syllables would reduce the potential tendency to endorse an artificial
pseudoword due to the presence of a particularly (un)familiar syllable. Users can also skip this step and import
an externally-generated pseudoword list to have their target pseudowords returned as an annotated register.

3.2. Step 2—from syllable to pseudowords: phonotactic control

In Step 2, ALPARC generates a pseudoword register from a syllable register with a fixed number of syllables
(default = 3). In line with the previous step, the pseudoword register may be filtered based on whether phoneme
n-grams are present in the corpus (default = True), and the threshold to approximate uniformity can be adjusted
(default α threshold = none [i.e., without excluding the tokens that deviate from uniformity]). This filter is set
to ensure that the resulting register contains tokens that belong to a target language. Moreover, the pseudoword
register may be filtered based on positional statistics (positional_control = True), removing pseudowords that
present a phoneme that rarely occupies a certain word-position (positional_position = None [i.e., all]).

In addition to these filters, ALPARC can apply phonotactic constraints within and across pseudowords.
To that end, ALPARC combines simple phonological features into phono-articulatory classes (Ramers, 1998),
that are divided into balanced categories according to their place of articulation (labial, apical, other), manner
of articulation (sonorant, plosive, fricative), and vowel identity. In particular, users may set the degree of
phonotactic control to OCP-place (Boll-Avetisyan & Kager, 2014), -manner, and vowel identity constraints.
OCP constraints on these articulatory features are then used to restrict the syllable combinations that are
allowed to form pseudowords (Figure 2B). By default, ALPARC generates trisyllabic pseudowords according
to all three of these rules, meaning that, the resulting pseudowords will comprise three syllables with a different
place and manner of articulation of the consonants and different vowels. This feature has been designed for
German, but it can be disabled or adjusted (n_look_back) if the input register is too small. Alternatively, users
can add custom code blocks to control for different phonotactic rules based on their target language.

ALPARC interprets user input to return annotated lexicons and streams. For instance, users may input
pseudowords generated with external tools, such as Wuggy (Keuleers & Brysbaert, 2010), which might be
suitable for language-specific phonotactic controls. To enter our pipeline, externally-generated registers must
be akin to those that ALPARC would generate by itself. Thus, all pseudowords should have a fixed syllable
structure and a fixed number of syllables/phonemes. An interpretable input may comprise a set of pseudowords
as split ("|") strings of syllables, in IPA, with special phoneme separators ("_"). As long as all input phonemes
are present in our list, (a subset of) their phonological features can be retrieved for further rhythmicity controls.

3.3.   Step 3—from pseudowords to lexicons: phonological controls

In Step 3, ALPARC generates lexicon registers preventing phonological rhythmicity. Users may specify the number of pseudowords per lexicon (default = 4), the number of lexicons to be generated (default = 5), and if such lexicons should be comprised of all unique words (default = False). In addition, ALPARC uses a subset of pseudowords (default = 200) in order to speed up further computations. The output lexicon registers contain sets of pseudowords with minimal feature overlap to reduce phonological regularities at the pseudoword rate.

Repetitions of the same phonological features at regular positions within a syllable stream may randomly accompany TPs and confound SL. In other words, if neighboring pseudowords share a phonological feature at the same phonemic position, but not at all other positions, that feature will be rhythmic and confound the TP rate. To tackle this issue, we reasoned that limiting the opportunity for a feature to occur at regular intervals will reduce its periodicity in structured streams. Since pseudowords occur at a fixed fraction of the syllable rate (e.g., 1/3 for trisyllabic tokens), ALPARC builds a matrix of position-wise phonological of feature overlap across pseudoword pairs. For each pseudoword pair and each phonological feature, shared binary sequences that mimic the regular TP pattern are flagged (Figure 2C). ALPARC avoids rhythmic patterns among syllables that occupy the same relative position between neighboring pseudowords.

ALPARC uses a lazy evaluation strategy to prevent phonological rhythmicity at the lexicon level. At that level, lazy evaluation means that pseudoword combinations with the least feature overlap are generated first, so that lexicons are only created when they are referenced in subsequent steps. Next, ALPARC derives a square matrix of feature overlap as the sum of flags across features for each pseudoword pair. Based on this matrix, ALPARC ensures minimal cumulative feature overlap. This strategy minimizes computation time relative to generating all combinations of pseudowords.

It is here important to mention once again that ALPARC can read phonemic transcripts. At this stage, users may input a phonemic transcript (strictly in X-SAMPA or IPA format) based on their own artificial or natural speech recordings and retrieve a subset of phonological features for each phoneme. ALPARC controls phonological rhythmicity at a fixed rate by having full control over the matrix of phonemic features, such that they can be combined arbitrarily. For instance, if coarticulated phonemes are included, users might code ad-hoc rules for how phonemes are allowed to combine, similarly to how we did with the OCP. As a caveat, nominal consistency of the phonological feature set for each syllabic must be kept for phonological rhythmicity controls. For instance, users may add a nominal amount of extra binary feature vectors (e.g., expressing a given phonological class, such as fricative, or a type of coarticulation, hesitation, or stress. These additional arbitrary features would need to be added manually to the binary feature matrix as row vectors (by adding a [1] when present, in a vector of [0]s).

3.4. Step 4—from tokens to chains: TP control

In Step 4, ALPARC creates sequences of tokens with uniform TP distributions. To that end, we considered a random shuffling of a fixed number of tokens to be exposed to some transitions being more likely than others due to randomness. As a result, TPs would be biased because tokens present different cue diagnosticity on the microscale of all individual pairs. Furthermore, under loose constraints, TPs may vary throughout the stream, leading to irregularities at the macroscale of the stream, with different TPs for the same pair at different stream locations. Statistical irregularities at the micro and macroscales are not exempt from having an impact on neural responses (Hasson, 2017). If TPs are variable or time-varying, certain boundaries can be perceived as more or less salient than others, with behavioral and neural consequences in terms of learning and tracking. To minimize this statistical confound, ALPARC uses a different method that guarantees TP stationarity.

ALPARC generates a finite sequence $V = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_T)$ from an alphabet of size N such that: (i) every syllable appears equally often, (ii) no syllable immediately repeats, and (iii) every ordered pair of distinct syllables (i $\rightarrow$ j) occurs at the uniform target count:

$$\mu = \frac{T-1}{N(N-1)},$$

meaning that the empirical transition probability from any syllable i to any syllable j $\neq$ i is as close to 1/(N−1) as a finite sequence allows. Any sequence satisfying Conditions (i) – (iii) is equivalent to a Eulerian Circuit (EC) that uses every directed edge exactly once. We construct the graph in a particular way where vertices are syllables, and edges (i $\rightarrow$ j) are added with multiplicity μ, distributed so that every vertex has equal in-degree and out-degree (Figure 2D, left). This is technically a directed multi-graph with balanced edge counts. Reading off the vertices of the EC enables ALPARC to produce the syllable stream with transition counts equal to the edge multiplicities by construction. Using Hierholzer's algorithm (Corberán & Laporte, 2015; Hierholzer & Wiener, 1873), ALPARC follows edges until stuck, then splices in detours at vertices with unused edges, until all edges are consumed. A greedy minimum-count rule improves the speed of convergence to the desired TPs: Always pick the outgoing edge (i $\rightarrow$ j) whose current count is smallest, breaking ties at random. This problem is similar to drawing all solutions of the "Haus vom Nikolaus" (Hoch & Küveler, 2023) consecutively without repeating any solution twice before all others.

With this logic, ALPARC makes TP uniform streams of symbolic tokens, reflecting pseudowords. (Figure 2D). Tokens repeat a number of times (default = 15). To ensure TPs remain constant throughout the stream, ALPARC samples new tokens iteratively based on a memory matrix of TPs. More specifically, the sampling of new tokens is limited among those that have the lowest TP to the previous token based on the memory matrix. As a result, syllable-tokens in position-fixed streams are constrained to always "walk" the

viable path they have walked the least, based on the memory matrix. Moreover, every token must be used once
before any could be repeated more than all others and consecutive repetitions of the same token are not allowed.
Thus, ALPARC produces streams with stable TPs across boundaries. When ALPARC expands pseudowords
into plain sequences of syllables, TPs between syllables within any pseudoword are always 1 (Figure 2D, top).

ALPARC adopts a similar approach to attain uniform TPs across all adjacent syllables. In fact, ALPARC
has two different functions for the TP-uniform position-random and the TP-uniform position-fixed streams. In
these conditions, each token maps directly to a syllable. In position-fixed baseline streams syllable-tokens are
constrained to occupy only one fixed position within a pseudoword-token, and to follow one another respecting
this positional rule, where all syllable TPs tend to exactly $1/N$ throughout the stream (Figure 2D, center). In
TP-uniform position-random streams, syllable TPs are equal across positions within a pseudoword-size chunk
with no consecutive repetitions allowed, leading to TPs of $1/N - 1$ (Figure 2D, bottom).

Surprisal, entropy, and non-uniformity metrics quantify information in the three stream modes. At time
t, the empirical distribution over next syllables $v_{t+1} = j$ given the current one $v_t = i$ is the empirical average
of transition counts observed before t:

$$\hat{P}_{ij}(t) = 1/t \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} 1[v_k = i, v_{k+1} = j]$$

300   The surprisal of observing the actual next syllable v_{t+1} is:

$$S(t) = -log_2 \hat{P}_{v_t, v_{t+1}}(t)$$

302   So, the conditional entropy of the transition distribution from source I (with convention log 0 = 0) is:

$$H_i(t) = -\sum_{j \neq i} \hat{P}_{ij}(t) log_2 \hat{P}_{ij}(t)$$

304   Averaging over sources yields $H(t)$, whose maximum is $log_2(N-1)$ (uniform transitions). Similar to entropy,
305   the KL-Divergence measures the distance to the uniform distribution:

$$D(t) = D_{KL}(\hat{P}_{ij}(t)||\mathcal{U}_N) = log_2(N - 1) - H(t) \geq 0$$

This non-uniformity metric collapses to zero exactly when empirical TPs are perfectly uniform.

ALPARC makes three types of stream variants with different local TP distributions. Across variants,
ALPARC ensures that each token follows every other token equally often to precisely manipulate TPs between
pseudowords in TP-structured streams and TPs between syllables in TP-uniform streams. The three types of
streams that ALPARC generates contrast the information at word boundaries. First, the TP-structured variant
is built at the word level, where each word is a single vertex and later substituted as syllable strings. Here, TPs
across word boundaries are uniform ($1/(W-1)$), whereas TPs are 1 within words, providing the segmentation
cue. Second, the TP-uniform position-random variant is constructed as a complete directed graph on all N
syllables; where each edge ($I \rightarrow j$), $I \neq j$, gets multiplicity $\lfloor \mu \rfloor$ or $\lceil \mu \rceil$. Here, any syllable can follow any other
with equal probability $1/(N-1)$. Third, the TP-uniform position-controlled variant is built such that syllables
are partitioned into position groups, where edges only point from and to adjacent groups, and each cross-group
pair gets exactly R edges. Here, TPs are uniform within each position transition, and all W targets are equally
likely ($1/W$), while syllables only appear at their designated within-word position.

3.5.   Step 5—from languages to sounds: rhythmicity control

In Step 5, ALPARC uses ad-hoc audio editing tools to produce frequency-tagged auditory streams. We first
synthesized individual syllables into separate audio files using Wavenet (Oord et al., 2016), and the Speech-
Synthesis-Markup-Language (Taylor & Isard, 1997). Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2007) was used to edit the
audio files of individual syllables. Here, we equalize syllable duration to 300 ms and their amplitude to 65 dB.
Furthermore, ALPARC affords pitch contour manipulations for frequency-tagging stimuli. Naturalistic pitch
contours can be separately recorded or synthesized (see also Lamekina & Meyer, 2023) and edited to an
arbitrary duration that matches the size of syllables or pseudowords. Thence, suprasegmental cues can be added
to the original syllable stream by replacing its pitch tier with a new prosodic contour (Figure 2E).

ALPARC assesses confounding patterns at the TP rate, using a Phonological Rhythmicity Index (PRI).
To demonstrate how the PRI is calculated, let us assume a stream of four trisyllabic pseudowords. In this
stream, TP patterns repeat periodically every three syllables, with TPs of 1 within pseudowords and .33 at
pseudoword boundaries. Such a sequence can be recoded into a binary vector of "TP decays" marking low-TP
events as 1 and high-TP events as 0 (i.e., [0 0 1 0 0 1, …]). Based on this TP pattern, we define kernels as
vectors that represent two instances of TP decays at all possible lags (i.e., [1 0 0 1 0 0], [0 1 0 0 1 0], [0 0 1 0
0 1]). This definition rests on the assumption that a sequence must repeat consecutively at least twice, for it to
be classified as a pattern. Now, let us assume one vector k = [1 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 0], representing the
presence (1) or absence (0) of one feature throughout a stream. ALPARC convolves the three kernels through
the feature vector k, assessing whether any of the kernels matches the current portion of the feature vector. For
instance, at the first iteration—$k_{(1,6)}$ = [1 0 0 1 0 1]—there is no exact match with any of the kernels; hence,
ALPARC notes a non-match as a zero. One step ahead, $k_{(2,7)}$ = [0 0 1 0 1 0], there is again no match. The fifth
iteration, $k_{(5,10)}$ = [0 1 0 0 1 0], presents an exact match to one of the kernels; so, ALPARC notes a one. By the

end of the stream—until $k_{(10,15)}$—ALPARC reports a total of 3 matches over 10 iterations. The PRI is the ratio

between the sum of all such matches and the total number of comparisons. In this example, the value of .33,

indicates that 33% of the pseudoword tracking effect that might be attributed to TP patterns may be due to

phonological regularities of the feature under examination. A lower PRI denotes a lower density of rhythmic

phonological patterns at the TP rate.

In sum, the PRI measures the average periodicity of all phonological features at the TP rate of interest

in the syllable streams. The PRI is computed on each feature vector by convolving the binary TP kernels.

Effectively, the kernels were designed to represent two instances of a TP pattern (e.g., [1 0 0 1 0 0]) at the rate

of interest. ALPARC uses the PRI as a descriptive metric of confounding phonological regularities at the rate

of rhythmic (TP) kernels. The maximum PRI across features assesses the worst-case scenario of phonological

regularities in a stream. In contrast, autocorrelations cannot resolve the presence of exact binary patterns.

4.   Results

354   Our results suggest that ALPARC lexicons reduce linguistic, statistical, acoustic, and phonological confounds.

355   Before showing these results, the next section covers how we evaluated the output of ALPARC at each stage.

356   All our findings resulting from the evaluation of each step are detailed in separate sections.

4.1.   Evaluation

First, we demonstrate how ALPARC filters a register based on syllable frequency of use and phoneme n-gram

probabilities extracted from linguistic corpora. The frequency or probability distribution associated with the

tokens in the corpus is log-transformed, normalized (z-score), and tested against the uniform distribution. The

p-value distributions stemming from the uniformity test are used to filter the syllable or the pseudoword

register. This filter allows for normalizing the frequency distributions of syllables and phoneme n-grams in

our syllable and pseudoword registers, meaning that the survival pseudowords do not contain too (in)frequent

phoneme bigrams or trigrams.

To assess TP precision at the stream level, we used non-uniformity, surprisal, and entropy metrics. We

plot these information metrics as a function of stream location for conditions. We compare our approach to a

naive pseudo-randomization that entails shuffling of the tokens with the only constraint that consecutive

repetitions of the same token are not allowed. We used Levene's tests comparing the two strategies in terms

of TP variance at pseudoword or syllable boundaries in TP-structured and TP-uniform streams, respectively.

In addition, we synthesized the three types of streams and computed their amplitude modulation spectra using

MATLAB (The MathWorks, Inc.).

To evaluate phonological controls, we compared different types of artificial languages of pseudowords. We generated 21 lexicons of pseudowords based on German corpora (—DEU), 21 lexicons based on English corpora (—ENG), and 21 random lexicons with no controls (—RND). We compared the PRI of these lexicons against 21 artificial lexicons (BENCHMARK) from the prior literature (Assaneo et al., 2019; Batterink & Paller, 2017; Cunillera et al., 2006; Kiai & Melloni, 2021; McNealy et al., 2006; Saffran et al., 1996). All these lexicons are made of four tri-syllabic pseudowords (Table S1). These criteria ensure a fair comparison with the lexicons that ALPARC produces by default.

379   To evaluate whether ALPARC reduces phonological rhythmicity, we compared different the PRI across lexicon types. For each lexicon (n = 21 per type), we simulated 10 streams per TP mode. We compared the PRIs across conditions using two-sided Welch's independent sample t-tests. We used this non-parametric test since data arise from mixture distributions with non-Gaussian components. Here, the components are the distributions of stream-level PRIs generated from a single lexicon. While the resulting mixture is again non-Gaussian, Welch's t-test remains valid for comparing means. This test does not assume normality of the data, but only that the sampling distribution of the mean is approximately normal, which is guaranteed by the Central Limit Theorem for our sample size of 21 lexicons with 10 streams each = 210 data points (Lumley et al., 2002). This asymptotic justification holds regardless of whether the population distribution is a mixture. We applied a Bonferroni correction of the p-values for the tests (Table 3).

389   For validation, we performed control analyses with different parameter settings. More specifically, we built streams in all TP modes with different number of syllables (2, 3, or 4) or pseudowords (3, 4, or 5) to show their PRI distributions (Table S2). To evaluate whether ALPARC feature controls prevent a high PRI, we computed the Pearson's correlations between the feature overlap of ALPARC lexicons and the maximum PRI in the streams.

4.2.   ALPARC registers adapt to linguistic corpora

Linguistic confounds that emerge from prior linguistic background are mitigated by approximating a uniform distribution from Zipf-distributed (Zipf, 1932) corpora statistics. The original range of frequency of use of the syllables is reduced from 1–19303 to 9–642 in German syllables in Schiel (2010) and from 1–72971 to 3–94 in English syllables in Baayen et al., (1996)'s corpus (Figure 3). Likewise, we show how ALPARC could filter a pseudoword register using bigram, trigram, and positional phoneme statistics based on a German corpus (Arnold & Tomaschek, 2016). By applying these filters, we produced two syllable and pseudoword registers— ALPARC—DEU and ALPARC—ENG—from which we sampled pseudowords with phonological controls.

Figure 3. Register filters. Corpora-based distribution of syllable frequency of use or phoneme n-gram probabilities are plotted as a function of frequency-ranked tokens (top), above the distribution of p-values derived from a uniformity test based on the z-transformed frequency distribution above as a function of token frequency (bottom). The horizontal line represents an arbitrary alpha threshold (.05). German syllable distributions are based on Schiel (2010), while phoneme n-gram distributions are based on Arnold & Tomaschek (2016). English syllables are based on (Baayen et al., 1996).

4.3. ALPARC generates uniform TP sequences with acoustic controls

ALPARC generates syllable streams with uniform TP distributions. ALPARC attains TP uniformity relative to a random shuffling method (Figure 4). Levene's tests show that ALPARC reduces the overall TP variance for both the TP-structured ($W_{(1, 476)} = 31.72, p < .001$), and the TP-uniform position-random streams ($W_{(1, 1436)} = 142.76, p < .001$). These results suggest that all types of streams generated with ALPARC reduce TP variance compared to randomly shuffled streams within each stream.

The three stream modalities impose fundamentally different surprisal values at word boundaries (Table 2). Early in the stream, surprisal is volatile, but our greedy minimum-count algorithm converges quickly around the target value $\log_2(N-1)$, in TP-uniform position-random streams. In TP-structured streams, within-word transitions have true probability 1. Therefore, surprisal under a structure-aware model is 0 mid-word and jumps to $\log_2(W-1)$ at every word boundary. To corroborate this result, we calculated the empirical surprisal values across stream locations (Figure S1).

Figure 4. TP variance. Scatter plots of the observed TP values (colored dots) at each stream location, based on different strategies (red: Shuffling; blue: ALPARC). Dotted lines represent the theoretical value of TPs for a trisyllabic lexicon of four pseudowords.

Table 2. TP stream modalities and associated information metrics.

TP mode	Within-word surprisal	At word boundary	TP boundary?
TP-structured	0 (true TP = 1)	$\log_2(W-1)$	Yes. Maximum Contrast
TP-uniform position-random	$\log_2(N-1)$	$\log_2(N-1)$	No
TP-uniform position-fixed	$\log_2(W)$	$\log_2(W)$	Position identity only

In parallel, ALPARC factors out acoustic rhythmic confounds in two stream TP modes. To show which types of TP streams exhibit different spectral peaks at the pseudoword rate, we synthesized frequency-tagged auditory streams of syllables in each TP mode based on one example ALPARC lexicon (Figure 5). The amplitude modulation spectrum of the TP-uniform position-random stream displays no peak at the pseudoword rate (1.11 Hz); while the TP-structured and TP-uniform position-fixed spectra show the same peak at that rate.

Figure 5. Speech modulation spectra. Power spectra from one example ALPARC lexicon in different stream TP modes. Each syllable had a fixed duration of 300 ms, leading to a peak at the syllable rate (3.33 Hz) in all modes. Syllables in the position-random stream occupy any possible location in the stream, leading to no peak at the rate of pseudowords (1.11 Hz). Syllables in the position-fixed and TP-structured streams are enforced to occur at fixed locations that are multiples of three, leading to a peak at the pseudoword rate (1.11 Hz), and its harmonic (2.22 Hz).

4.4. ALPARC lexicons reduce the PRI at the TP rate

ALPARC yields a low and robust PRI across streams, relative to a benchmark (Figure 6). In particular, ALPARC—DEU and—ENG produced a lower PRI than the baseline lexicons and the benchmark for both TP-uniform position-fixed and TP-structured streams. Still, the benchmark outperformed the baseline across TP modes (Table 3). To show that the PRI reduction is consistent across features, we also depict the distributions of PRI for all individual phonological features (Figure S2). For validation, we simulated streams based on ALPARC—DEU lexicons with 2 or 4 syllables per pseudoword and with 3 or 5 pseudowords per lexicon (Figure S3). These results confirm that feature controls consistently reduce PRI across features.

ALPARC—DEU and —ENG were created as lexicon registers with minimal feature overlap at the rate of pseudowords. This overlap is quantified at the stream level by the PRI. To illustrate that the phonological controls of ALPARC lexicons influence the maximum PRI across features at the stream level, we correlated the feature overlap from 84 lexicons with the maximum PRI. Our results show that controlled lexicons pre-emptively reduce the PRI the stream level, as we found high Pearson's correlations in TP-uniform position-fixed ($r = .82$) and TP-structured ($r = .88$), between these metrics (Figure S4).

Figure 6. PRI distributions. Boxplots of the distributions of maximum PRI across features for each stream TP mode (n = 10 streams per mode per lexicon) and lexicon type (n = 21 per type). Circles represent outliers.

Table 3. Independent Pairwise Welch's t-test results of maximum PRIs for all stream TP modes.

Stream TP mode	Controls	T	df	p-val	p-val corr.	CI95	cohen_d	power	BF10
TP-uniform position-random	ALPARC-DEU vs. ALPARC-ENG	1.14	418	.25	4.56	[-0. 0.]	0.11	0.21	2.04E+02
TP-uniform position-random	ALPARC-DEU vs. ALPARC-RND	0.98	418	.33	5.86	[-0. 0.]	0.10	0.17	1.73E+02
TP-uniform position-random	ALPARC-DEU vs. BENCHMARK	4.53	418	< .001	< .001	[0. 0.01]	0.44	0.99	1.83E+03
TP-uniform position-random	ALPARC-ENG vs. ALPARC-RND	-0.20	418	.84	15.16	[-0. 0.]	0.02	0.05	1.10E-01
TP-uniform position-random	ALPARC-ENG vs. BENCHMARK	3.46	418	< .001	0.01	[0. 0.01]	0.34	0.93	3.33E+04
TP-uniform position-random	ALPARC-RND vs. BENCHMARK	3.77	418	< .001	< .001	[0. 0.01]	0.37	0.96	9.40E+04
TP-uniform position-fixed	ALPARC-DEU vs. ALPARC-ENG	-1.16	418	.25	4.47	[-0.01 0.]	0.11	0.21	2.06E+02

Stream TP mode	Controls	T	df	p-val	p-val corr.	CI95	cohen_d	power	BF10
TP-uniform position-fixed	ALPARC-DEU vs. ALPARC-RND	-17.95	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.32 -0.26]	1.75	1.00	1.55E+53
TP-uniform position-fixed	ALPARC-DEU vs. BENCHMARK	-16.79	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.13 -0.11]	1.64	1.00	1.34E+48
TP-uniform position-fixed	ALPARC-ENG vs. ALPARC-RND	-17.74	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.32 -0.25]	1.73	1.00	1.77E+52
TP-uniform position-fixed	ALPARC-ENG vs. BENCHMARK	-16.28	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.13 -0.1]	1.59	1.00	8.41E+45
TP-uniform position-fixed	ALPARC-RND vs. BENCHMARK	9.69	418	< .001	< .001	[0.13 0.2]	0.95	1.00	1.10E+20
TP-structured	ALPARC-DEU vs. ALPARC-ENG	-2.79	418	.01	0.10	[-0. -0.]	0.27	0.80	4.60E+03
TP-structured	ALPARC-DEU vs. ALPARC-RND	-20.66	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.34 -0.28]	2.02	1.00	1.34E+65
TP-structured	ALPARC-DEU vs. BENCHMARK	-10.39	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.12 -0.08]	1.01	1.00	2.84E+22
TP-structured	ALPARC-ENG vs. ALPARC-RND	-20.53	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.34 -0.28]	2.00	1.00	3.37E+64
TP-structured	ALPARC-ENG vs. BENCHMARK	-10.16	418	< .001	< .001	[-0.11 -0.08]	0.99	1.00	4.67E+21
TP-structured	ALPARC-RND vs. BENCHMARK	12.16	418	< .001	< .001	[0.18 0.25]	1.19	1.00	1.09E+26

5. Discussion

We presented ALPARC as an open-source toolbox to improve stimulus control in linguistic SL studies. We
show how ALPARC creates Artificial Languages with Phonological and Acoustic Rhythmicity Controls,
which are rendered as TP-uniform streams. ALPARC fulfils three of our aims. First, it crafts artificial lexicons
controlling for background statistics based on speech corpora. Second, it generates sequences of tokens with
controlled TP distributions in three modalities that contrast empirical surprisal at TP boundaries, factoring out
low-level acoustic regularities at the rate of fixed TP patterns, marking pseudowords. Third, it combines these
two outputs and computes an index of phonological regularities at the rate of TP boundaries. Our results show
that ALPARC improves stimulus controls in artificial languages in terms of lexical, phonological, acoustic,
prosodic, and statistical regularities that support SL. Beyond this scope, the three modules of ALPARC may
be used independently, and expanded on, to overcome current uncertainties in SL research.

5.1. ALPARC—1: The Artificial Language builder

ALPARC—1 provides an interface to moderate the interference of prior linguistic background on the learning of artificial lexicons (Elazar et al., 2022; Siegelman et al., 2018; Varela et al., 2024). To that end, ALPARC—1 normalizes the frequency distributions of syllables and phoneme co-occurrences in the artificial register, with respect to language-specific corpora statistics. Beyond their relevance for behavioral SL, our linguistic controls might further support neural inference in frequency-tagging studies. While (lexical) frequency and transitional constraints are computationally dissociable (Erickson & Thiessen, 2015), both of these sources of information are tracked by the brain (Tobia et al., 2012). Therefore, both behavioral and neural tracking studies may benefit from language-specific frequency controls oriented to mitigate this confound. Yet, compromises on the extent to which these linguistic controls can be implemented ought to be made on a case-by-case basis to obtain a pseudoword register of adequate size that would allow for further controls (Table S2).

Beyond using corpus data, ALPARC—1 implements phonotactic controls based on OCP constraints. ALPARC—1 considers three phonotactic "rules" as positional repetitions of phonological classes. ALPARC is designed to handle a wide array of features (21) times a very large number of phonemes (5935). From these features, it extracts the manner and place of articulation, avoiding repetitions by lowering their autocorrelation in a sequence at progressively larger lags. OCP-place was previously shown to partially account for neural tracking at the rate of pseudowords (Batterink & Paller, 2017; van der Wulp, 2021). Moreover, phonotactic cues were found to bias speech segmentation behaviorally (Onnis et al., 2005; Onnis & Thiessen, 2013). Building on this evidence, ALPARC offers a systematic way to control the OCP-place, -manner, and -vowel during pseudoword generation, affording phonotactic controls that might be relevant for future SL studies.

ALPARC—1 does not generate lexicon registers made of differently sized units and structures. This design choice was made because an unaware combination of those units is prone to errors that would likely interfere with rhythmicity controls in this implementation. Different phonemic or syllabic structures are not currently supported as they go beyond our scope of producing rhythmic stimuli. Rhythmicity optimization eases further computations in the current execution, in line with the goal of producing rhythmic TP-uniform streams. This way, ALPARC reduces the confounding rhythmicity of phonological features at the rate of TP patterns, making it suitable for study designs that require strict rhythmicity controls (e.g., frequency-tagging). Beyond the current scope, users may also import own data to enter our standard pipeline at any step.

5.2. ALPARC—2: The TP chain controller

ALPARC—2 was developed to precisely manipulate TPs in a series of tokens. In doing that, ALPARC replaces a naive randomness approach with a greedy minimum-count rule for increased TP uniformity and precision especially in short sequences. This outcome is most desirable when there are experimental time constraints.

Contrary to classical random-walks, ALPARC—2 sets a uniformity constraint on next-token selection to always explore all possible paths evenly based on a memory matrix. Based on the Fundamental Theorem of Markov Chains, TPs from classical random-walks approach stationarity slowly, as the number of elements in the sequence grows. For instance, naive randomness approaches would pre-shuffle the edge lists randomizing the result. Moreover, a greedy edge selection as a plain Hierholzer sampler satisfies the uniformity condition globally, but may be highly non-uniform early in the stream with a slow convergence to uniform TPs. Naive solutions, such as montecarlo and rejection sampling are suboptimal to the goal of generating short sequences of tokens (< 500 units) with stable TPs. In other words, one is ineffective for short sequences and the other is inefficient for long ones. In fact, the former requires an unknown mixing time to converge to the desired TPs, whereas the latter has an acceptance rate that quickly decays as a function of sequence length. In contrast, ALPARC—2 creates with a stable contrast of surprisal and entropy, after a few samples.

A high TP contrast at pseudoword boundaries is regarded as one key driver of SL. It was proposed that learners detect word boundaries as the locations of high surprisal. This surprisal difference links directly to the computational basis of statistical word learning (Aslin et al., 1998). We defined surprisal as a *stream-level* information metric, in the sense that it is estimated from all transitions in the stream with no knowledge of word structure, and it converges to $\log_2(N-1)$ everywhere. It does not give zero within-word surprisal even in the word-structured condition, because the empirical TP only asymptotically learns that e.g. "ba" is always followed by "go", after many exposures, never seeing any other continuation. In contrast, a *structure-aware surprisal* is computed under a model that has already inferred word boundaries, whereby TPs are estimated separately within and across words. This gives the theoretically expected values (i.e., 0 within words, and $\log_2(W-1)$ at boundaries). Reporting both information quantities as a function of stream position is informative as the gap between them quantifies how much a listener *gains* by inferring word structure, which is a direct measure of the utility of segmentation and maps onto ideal-observer models of SL.

ALPARC—2 is limited to generating TP-uniform streams of syllables. Therefore, more complex aspects of SL, such as non-adjacent dependency learning, learning of higher hierarchical structures, or entropy-based manipulations, are not within the current scope. However, ALPARC might be considered as a base tool to these ends and its functions might be adapted to specific research purposes in SL. For instance, future work might build on the greedy selection count strategy for sampling from non-uniform distributions, similarly to how we adopted a greedy minimum-count solution to the EC walk. This type of stream generation procedure might produce variable surprisal and entropy at decision chokepoints. While the present implementation was designed to impose TP uniformity through a linearly increasing common cap on the memory transition matrix, ALPARC—2 was designed ad-hoc to have full control on the limits of a memory transition matrix token-by-token. As such, it might serve as a base tool to construct more dynamic TP distributions, by biasing the decision possibilities at the transition points and interfering with the internal constraints of the transition memory matrix between adjacent tokens. Beyond local TPs, filler syllables afford studying non-adjacent dependency learning.

ALPARC—2 improves construct validity at the stimulus level to strengthen neural inference. Yet, it is
important to note that neural peaks at the pseudoword rate do not uniquely index TP computation. In fact, such
peaks may also reflect other segmentation mechanisms, such as repetition-based learning, positional regularity
learning, or surprisal dynamics based on learned multi-syllabic groupings. While ALPARC controls surprisal
dynamics of short-term local TPs, the neural peaks at the pseudoword rate may also result from other long-
term memory-based grouping mechanisms (Jessop et al., 2025).

ALPARC—2 includes audio editing tools to obtain frequency-tagged streams of syllables. Individually
synthesized (or naturally recorded) syllables can be concatenated according to the sequences of ALPARC
lexicon and streams. In the current implementation, our audio editing scripts allow for equalization of syllable
duration and, amplitude, and manipulations of pitch tiers to imitate periodic intonational prosodic boundaries
(see also Lamekina & Meyer, 2023 for details). While this feature is optimal for frequency-tagging factorial
designs to disentangle statistical and prosodic influences on linguistic SL in rhythmic, these stimuli have a low
acoustic realism, which might be raised by natural voice recordings (Alexandrou et al., 2020).

To gain acoustic realism, users may adopt their own audio synthesis or recording strategies. While all
of ALPARC features can in principle generalize to human recorded speech, ALPARC disregards coarticulation
during lexicon generation to facilitate downstream rhythmicity controls and to avoid the manual cutting of the
audio files at coarticulated syllabic boundaries. With the same limitation, ALPARC affords changing the pitch
of a (synthesized) audio to a natural strong-weak-weak contour or a synthesis of hundreds of German prosodic
contours (see Lamekina & Meyer, 2023 for details). Beyond audio editing for frequency-tagging, ALPARC
handles sequences of syllables that do not necessarily need to be presented periodically. For instance, a parsed
phonemic transcript is compatible with other ALPARC functionalities.

Beyond providing additional support tools for audio editing, it is important to note that ALPARC—2
generates uniform TP chains as sequences of symbolic digits. As such, this module is not linguistic per se and
offers low-level positional controls that guarantee stable surprisal values in any sort of statistical stream. Thus,
the strategy that ALPARC—2 uses for making TP chains may be useful for SL research across domains.

ALPARC—2 supports the use of a TP-uniform baseline, matching TP-structured positional constraints.
ALPARC applies an artificial language to a TP-uniform stream, thereby mapping each token to a pseudoword
(in TP-structured streams) or to a syllable (in TP-uniform streams), while expanding TP-structured streams of
pseudowords into connected streams of syllables. In the linguistic domain, syllable positional constraints have
been shown to induce systematic acoustic differences that are reflected in the amplitude modulation spectra
(Pinto et al., 2022). ALPARC streams are in line with this finding, showing that spectral profiles of the TP-
uniform position-random baseline does not reflect the same peak at the repetition rate that are present in TP-
structured streams, whereas a TP-uniform position-fixed does equalize acoustic regularities (Pinto et al., 2022).

5.3. ALPARC—3: The rhythmicity checker

ALPARC—3 diagnoses artificial language stimuli to visualize their PRI distributions. Our results show that ALPARC lexicons reduce the maximum PRI relative to random lexicons of pseudowords that disregard feature controls, but also to benchmarking lexicons used in prior studies on linguistic SL. While the latter certainly attained a better phonological rhythmicity control than our baseline, which must be due to the expert conduct of the prior studies, ALPARC outperformed this benchmark. Lower PRIs denote a lower impact that the periodicity of phonological features may impose on the syllable streams. This confound is further eased if corresponding TP-structured and TP-uniform streams have the same PRI. Lexicons and streams generated with ALPARC may thus allow for assessing SL of rhythmic TP patterns matching out phonological regularities in TP-structured and position-controlled baseline streams. Future work might expand on this module by mapping the exact stream location of an impulse along the vector, rather than returning only an average of impulses across all stream locations. This output might be more informative to study dynamic phonological patterns.

The PRI might be useful in future SL studies to assess neural tracking of phonological features. For instance, minimal edits to the function that generates the artificial lexicons could lead to the creation of speech streams—that maximize the PRI of one, or more, features, in order to study the neural tracking of specific phonological features systematically. In this broader scope, ALPARC might support the study of phonemic mapping through pattern repetitions, given the arbitrary size and shape of the binary matrix and kernels.

ALPARC—3 can be useful for meta-analyses purposes. The PRI is a metric that diagnoses instances of phonological regularities at the TP rate in a syllable stream. ALPARC considers syllables as basic acoustic, phonological, and statistical units. Lexicons with different numbers of syllables per word are not supported by ALPARC—1 during generation. Yet, ALPARC—3 can diagnose these lexicons, as it returns a PRI from such streams after mapping the locations of any desired kernel (even non-uniformly periodic, e.g., [1 1 0 1 0 1]) in feature space. The convolution of the TP kernels spans the whole matrix made of syllables unfolding at a fixed rate (columns) and the corresponding feature vectors of the phonemes of the syllables (rows). The patterning of the TP kernels and the feature matrix can be set by the user to depends on particular syllable's phonemes (e.g., our default settings consider different features for consonants [C] and vowels [V]). In our pipeline, we limit the syllable structure to CV syllables to yield a size-compatible matrix of phonological features across syllables. Still, if CVC-CV words (even with coarticulation) are to be used, and their exact IPA transcription is found in the list, it should be possible to build a custom phonological vector of the syllable by stacking the phonological features that are considered as relevant for each phoneme and padding the shortest stack with zeros (e.g., for syllables that do not present that features). This nominal consistency will result in interpretable PRIs in CVC-CV, but not in a CVC-VCV word, as in our incorporation of the benchmark lexicons.

5.4. Conclusion

We presented ALPARC to generate and diagnose artificial languages with ad-hoc rhythmicity controls. We summarize three main functionalities. First, ALPARC crafts highly controlled lexicon registers through filtering linguistic corpora statistics. Second, ALPARC crafts uniform TP sequences in three critical contrasts, with one baseline that equalizes low-level (acoustic) confounds and another that maximizes the information difference at the salient boundaries. These modules combine to make streams that contrast TPs at syllable or pseudowords boundaries. Third, ALPARC computes a PRI on the phonological feature matrix that reflects the stream of syllables, quantifying the density of (rhythmic) binary kernels. Our results show that ALPARC succeeds in the intended purpose of generating frequency-tagged audios that contrast prosodic and statistical regularities while factoring out some of the most noticeable linguistic, acoustic, and phonological confounds. Our results show that not controlling for these factors might result in differences at baseline. To date, ALPARC produces stimuli for this purpose in less than a minute. While ALPARC is currently optimized for frequency-tagging designs, we specify how its three modules may not be fully limited to this specific paradigm and might independently serve as base tools to meet specific research purposes in SL research across domains.

Acknowledgments

The study was supported by the Max Planck Society through the award of the Independent Max Planck Research Group Language Cycles to LM. NM was supported by BMBF (Federal Ministry of Education and Research) through ACONITE (01IS22065), and the Center for Scalable Data Analytics and Artificial Intelligence (ScaDS.AI.) Leipzig, and the Max Planck IMPRS CoNI Doctoral Program. The authors would like to thank Dimitra Kiakou and Shashank Shetty Kalavara for early insights into the implementation of TP controls in the early stages of development, Yulia Lamekina for insights on prosody manipulations, and Jule Nabrotzky for comments on the manuscript. We would also like to thank the Bogaerts Lab for early insightful comments into potential future developments. LT and LM conceptualized the research. LT, NM, and LM conducted the formal analyses. LT and NM developed the software. LT and NM created the visualizations. LM supervised the research. LM acquired funding. LT wrote the manuscript. LT, NM, and LM edited the manuscript. The authors declare no competing interests.

References

Alexandrou, A. M., Saarinen, T., Kujala, J., & Salmelin, R. (2020). Cortical entrainment: What we can learn from studying naturalistic speech perception. *Language, Cognition and Neuroscience*, *35*(6), 681–693. https://doi.org/10.1080/23273798.2018.1518534

Arnold, D., & Tomaschek, F. (2016). *The Karl Eberhards Corpus of spontaneously spoken Southern German in dialogues-audio and articulatory recordings*.

Aslin, R. N., Saffran, J. R., & Newport, E. L. (1998). Computation of conditional probability statistics by 8-month-old infants.
Psychological Science, *9*(4), 321–324.

Assaneo, M. F., Ripollés, P., Orpella, J., Lin, W. M., de Diego-Balaguer, R., & Poeppel, D. (2019). Spontaneous synchronization to
speech reveals neural mechanisms facilitating language learning. *Nature Neuroscience*, *22*, 627–632.
https://doi.org/10.1038/s41593-019-0353-z

Baayen, R. H., Piepenbrock, R., & Gulikers, L. (1996). *The CELEX lexical database (cd-rom)*.

Batterink, L. J., & Paller, K. A. (2017). Online neural monitoring of statistical learning. *Cortex*, *90*, 31–45.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cortex.2017.02.004

Batterink, L. J., Reber, P. J., Neville, H. J., & Paller, K. A. (2015). Implicit and explicit contributions to statistical learning. *Journal*
of Memory and Language, *83*, 62–78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2015.04.004

Boersma, P., & Weenink, D. (2007). *PRAAT: Doing phonetics by computer (Version 5.3.51)*.

Bogaerts, L., Richter, C. G., Landau, A. N., & Frost, R. (2020). Beta-Band Activity Is a Signature of Statistical Learning. *The*
Journal of Neuroscience, *40*(39), 7523–7530. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0771-20.2020

Boll-Avetisyan, N., & Kager, R. (2014). OCP-PLACE in Speech Segmentation. *Language and Speech*, *57*(3), 394–421.
https://doi.org/10.1177/0023830913508074

Buiatti, M., Peña, M., & Dehaene-Lambertz, G. (2009). Investigating the neural correlates of continuous speech computation with
frequency-tagged neuroelectric responses. *NeuroImage*, *44*(2), 509–519. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2008.09.015

Chen, Y., Jin, P., & Ding, N. (2020). The influence of linguistic information on cortical tracking of words. *Neuropsychologia*, *148*,
107640. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2020.107640

Chomsky, N., & Halle, M. (1968). *The Sound Pattern of English*. Harper & Row.
https://books.google.de/books?id=PbtZAAAAMAAJ

Christiansen, M. H. (2019). Implicit Statistical Learning: A Tale of Two Literatures. *Topics in Cognitive Science*, *11*(3), 468–481.
https://doi.org/10.1111/tops.12332

Corberán, Á., & Laporte, G. (2015). *Arc routing: Problems, methods, and applications*. SIAM.

Cunillera, T., Càmara, E., Toro, J. M., Marco-Pallares, J., Sebastián-Galles, N., Ortiz, H., Pujol, J., & Rodríguez-Fornells, A. (2009).
Time course and functional neuroanatomy of speech segmentation in adults. *NeuroImage*, *48*(3), 541–553.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2009.06.069

Cunillera, T., Toro, J. M., Sebastián-Galles, N., & Rodríguez-Fornells, A. (2006). The effects of stress and statistical cues on
continuous speech segmentation: An event-related brain potential study. *Brain Research*, *1123*(1), 168–178.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2006.09.046

Daube, C., Ince, R. A. A., & Gross, J. (2019). Simple Acoustic Features Can Explain Phoneme-Based Predictions of Cortical
Responses to Speech. *Current Biology*, *29*(12), 1924-1937.e9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2019.04.067

Di Liberto, G. M., O'Sullivan, J. A., & Lalor, E. C. (2015). Low-Frequency Cortical Entrainment to Speech Reflects Phoneme-Level
Processing. *Current Biology*, *25*(19), 2457–2465. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2015.08.030

Elazar, A., Alhama, R. G., Bogaerts, L., Siegelman, N., Baus, C., & Frost, R. (2022). When the "Tabula" is Anything but "Rasa:"
What Determines Performance in the Auditory Statistical Learning Task? *Cognitive Science*, *46*(2), e13102.
https://doi.org/10.1111/cogs.13102

Elmer, S., Valizadeh, S. A., Cunillera, T., & Rodríguez-Fornells, A. (2021). Statistical learning and prosodic bootstrapping
differentially affect neural synchronization during speech segmentation. *NeuroImage*, *235*, 118051.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2021.118051

Erickson, L. C., & Thiessen, E. D. (2015). Statistical learning of language: Theory, validity, and predictions of a statistical learning
account of language acquisition. *Developmental Review*, *37*, 66–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2015.05.002

Fernandes, T., Kolinsky, R., & Ventura, P. (2009). The metamorphosis of the statistical segmentation output: Lexicalization during
artificial language learning. *Cognition*, *112*(3), 349–366. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2009.05.002

Frost, R., Armstrong, B. C., & Christiansen, M. H. (2019). Statistical learning research: A critical review and possible new
directions. *Psychological Bulletin*, *145*(12), 1128–1153. https://doi.org/10.1037/bul0000210

Getz, H., Ding, N., Newport, E. L., & Poeppel, D. (2018). Cortical tracking of constituent structure in language acquisition.
677   *Cognition*, *181*, 135–140. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2018.08.019

678   Hasson, U. (2017). The neurobiology of uncertainty: Implications for statistical learning. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal*
679   *Society B: Biological Sciences*, *372*(1711), 20160048. https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2016.0048

680   Henin, S., Turk-Browne, N. B., Friedman, D., Liu, A., Dugan, P., Flinker, A., Doyle, W., Devinsky, O., & Melloni, L. (2021).
681   Learning hierarchical sequence representations across human cortex and hippocampus. *Science Advances*, *7*(8), eabc4530.
682   https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.abc4530

683   Hierholzer, C., & Wiener, C. (1873). Ueber die Möglichkeit, einen Linienzug ohne Wiederholung und ohne Unterbrechung zu
684   umfahren. *Mathematische Annalen*, *6*(1), 30–32. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01442866

685   Hoch, T., & Küveler, G. (2023). Haus-vom-Nikolaus. In *C/C++ anwenden: Technisch-wissenschaftliche Übungsaufgaben mit*
686   *Lösungen* (pp. 51–57). Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-38093-9_7

687   Jessop, A., Pine, J., & Gobet, F. (2025). Chunk-based incremental processing and learning: An integrated theory of word discovery,
688   implicit statistical learning, and speed of lexical processing. *Psychological Review*, *132*(6), 1340–1374.
689   https://doi.org/10.1037/rev0000564

690   Johnson, E. K., & Jusczyk, P. W. (2001). Word Segmentation by 8-Month-Olds: When Speech Cues Count More Than Statistics.
691   *Journal of Memory and Language*, *44*(4), 548–567. https://doi.org/10.1006/jmla.2000.2755

692   Jusczyk, P. W., Hohne, E. A., & Bauman, A. (1999). Infants' sensitivity to allophonic cues for word segmentation. *Perception &*
693   *Psychophysics*, *61*(8), 1465–1476. https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03213111

694   Keuleers, E., & Brysbaert, M. (2010). Wuggy: A multilingual pseudoword generator. *Behavior Research Methods*, *42*(3), 627–633.
695   https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.42.3.627

696   Kiai, A., & Melloni, L. (2021). What canonical online and offline measures of statistical learning can and cannot tell us. *bioRxiv*.
697   https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.04.19.440449

698   Kuuluvainen, S., Kaskivuo, S., Vainio, M., Smalle, E., & Möttönen, R. (2025). Prosody enhances learning of statistical dependencies
699   from continuous speech streams in adults. *Cognition*, *262*, 106169. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2025.106169

700   Lamekina, Y., & Meyer, L. (2023). Entrainment to speech prosody influences subsequent sentence comprehension. *Language,*
701   *Cognition and Neuroscience*, *38*(3), 263–276. https://doi.org/10.1080/23273798.2022.2107689

702   Lumley, T., Diehr, P., Emerson, S., & Chen, L. (2002). The importance of the normality assumption in large public health data sets.
703   *Annual Review of Public Health*, *23*, 151–169. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.publhealth.23.100901.140546

704   Luo, C., & Ding, N. (2020). Cortical encoding of acoustic and linguistic rhythms in spoken narratives. *eLife*, *9*.
705   https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.60433

706   MATLAB. (2024). *Version R20240a*. The MathWorks Inc.

707   McNealy, K., Mazziotta, J. C., & Dapretto, M. (2006). Cracking the Language Code: Neural Mechanisms Underlying Speech
708   Parsing. *The Journal of Neuroscience*, *26*(29), 7629–7639. https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5501-05.2006

709   Mesgarani, N., Cheung, C., Johnson, K., & Chang, E. F. (2014). Phonetic feature encoding in human superior temporal gyrus.
710   *Science (New York, N.Y.)*, *343*(6174), 1006–1010. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1245994

711   Onnis, L., Monaghan, P., Richmond, K., & Chater, N. (2005). Phonology impacts segmentation in online speech processing. *Journal*
712   *of Memory and Language*, *53*(2), 225–237. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2005.02.011

713   Onnis, L., & Thiessen, E. (2013). Language experience changes subsequent learning. *Cognition*, *126*(2), 268–284.
714   https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2012.10.008

715   Oord, A. van den, Dieleman, S., Zen, H., Simonyan, K., Vinyals, O., Graves, A., Kalchbrenner, N., Senior, A., & Kavukcuoglu, K.
716   (2016). WaveNet: A Generative Model for Raw Audio. *Arxiv*. https://arxiv.org/abs/1609.03499

717   Ordin, M., Polyanskaya, L., Soto, D., & Molinaro, N. (2020). Electrophysiology of statistical learning: Exploring the online learning
718   process and offline learning product. *European Journal of Neuroscience*, *51*(9), 2008–2022.
719   https://doi.org/10.1111/ejn.14657

720   Perruchet, P., & Pacton, S. (2006). Implicit learning and statistical learning: One phenomenon, two approaches. *Trends in Cognitive*
721   *Sciences*, *10*(5), 233–238. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tics.2006.03.006

722 Pinto, D., Prior, A., & Zion Golumbic, E. (2022). Assessing the Sensitivity of EEG-Based Frequency-Tagging as a Metric for
723    Statistical Learning. *Neurobiology of Language*, *3*(2), 214–234. https://doi.org/10.1162/nol_a_00061

724 Ramers, K. H. (1998). *Einführung in die Phonologie*. Fink. https://books.google.de/books?id=fpLewAEACAAJ

725 Saffran, J. R., & Kirkham, N. Z. (2018). Infant Statistical Learning. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *69*, 181–203.
726    https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-122216-011805

727 Saffran, J. R., Newport, E. L., & Aslin, R. N. (1996). Word Segmentation: The Role of Distributional Cues. *Journal of Memory and*
728    *Language*, *35*(4), 606–621. https://doi.org/10.1006/jmla.1996.0032

729 Schiel, F. (2010, May). BAStat: New Statistical Resources at the Bavarian Archive for Speech Signals. *Proceedings of the Seventh*
730    *International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'10)*.

731 Seidenberg, M. S., MacDonald, M. C., & Saffran, J. R. (2002). Does grammar start where statistics stop? *Science*, *298*(5593), 553–
732    554.

733 Shukla, M., Nespor, M., & Mehler, J. (2007). An interaction between prosody and statistics in the segmentation of fluent speech.
734    *Cognitive Psychology*, *54*(1), 1–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogpsych.2006.04.002

735 Siegelman, N., Bogaerts, L., Armstrong, B. C., & Frost, R. (2019). What exactly is learned in visual statistical learning? Insights
736    from Bayesian modeling. *Cognition*, *192*, 104002. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2019.06.014

737 Siegelman, N., Bogaerts, L., Elazar, A., Arciuli, J., & Frost, R. (2018). Linguistic entrenchment: Prior knowledge impacts statistical
738    learning performance. *Cognition*, *177*, 198–213. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2018.04.011

739 Sjuls, G. S., Harvei, N. N., & Vulchanova, M. D. (2024). The relationship between neural phase entrainment and statistical word-
740    learning: A scoping review. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *31*(4), 1399–1419. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-023-02425-9

741 Taylor, P., & Isard, A. (1997). SSML: A speech synthesis markup language. *Speech Communication*, *21*(1), 123–133.
742    https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-6393(96)00068-4

743 Thiessen, E. D. (2017). What's statistical about learning? Insights from modelling statistical learning as a set of memory processes.
744    *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Series B, Biological Sciences*, *372*(1711).
745    https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2016.0056

746 Thiessen, E. D., & Saffran, J. R. (2003). When cues collide: Use of stress and statistical cues to word boundaries by 7-to 9-month-old
747    infants. *Developmental Psychology*, *39*(4), 706.

748 Tobia, M. J., Iacovella, V., Davis, B., & Hasson, U. (2012). Neural systems mediating recognition of changes in statistical
749    regularities. *NeuroImage*, *63*(3), 1730–1742. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2012.08.017

750 van der Wulp, I. (2021). *Word segmentation: TP or OCP? A re-analysis of Batterink & Paller (2017)* [Master's Thesis].

751 Varela, I. G., Orpella, J., Poeppel, D., Ripolles, P., & Assaneo, M. F. (2024). Syllabic rhythm and prior linguistic knowledge interact
752    with individual differences to modulate phonological statistical learning. *Cognition*, *245*, 105737.
753    https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cognition.2024.105737

754 Zipf, G. K. (1932). *Selected Studies of the Principle of Relative Frequency in Language.(1932)*. Harvard University Press.

755