



speech

CSC401/2511 – Natural Language Computing – Spring 2021

Lecture 8

University of Toronto

# This lecture

- Acoustics.
  - Speech production.
  - Speech perception.
- 
- Some images from Gray's Anatomy, Jim Glass' course 6.345 (MIT), the Jurafsky & Martin textbook, Encyclopedia Britannica, the Rolling Stones, the Pink Floyds.



acoustics

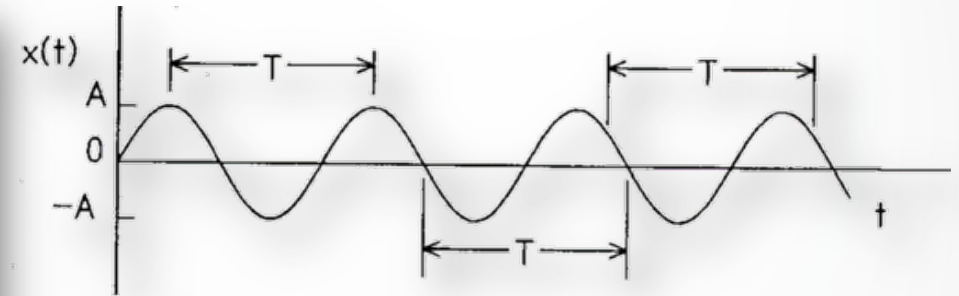
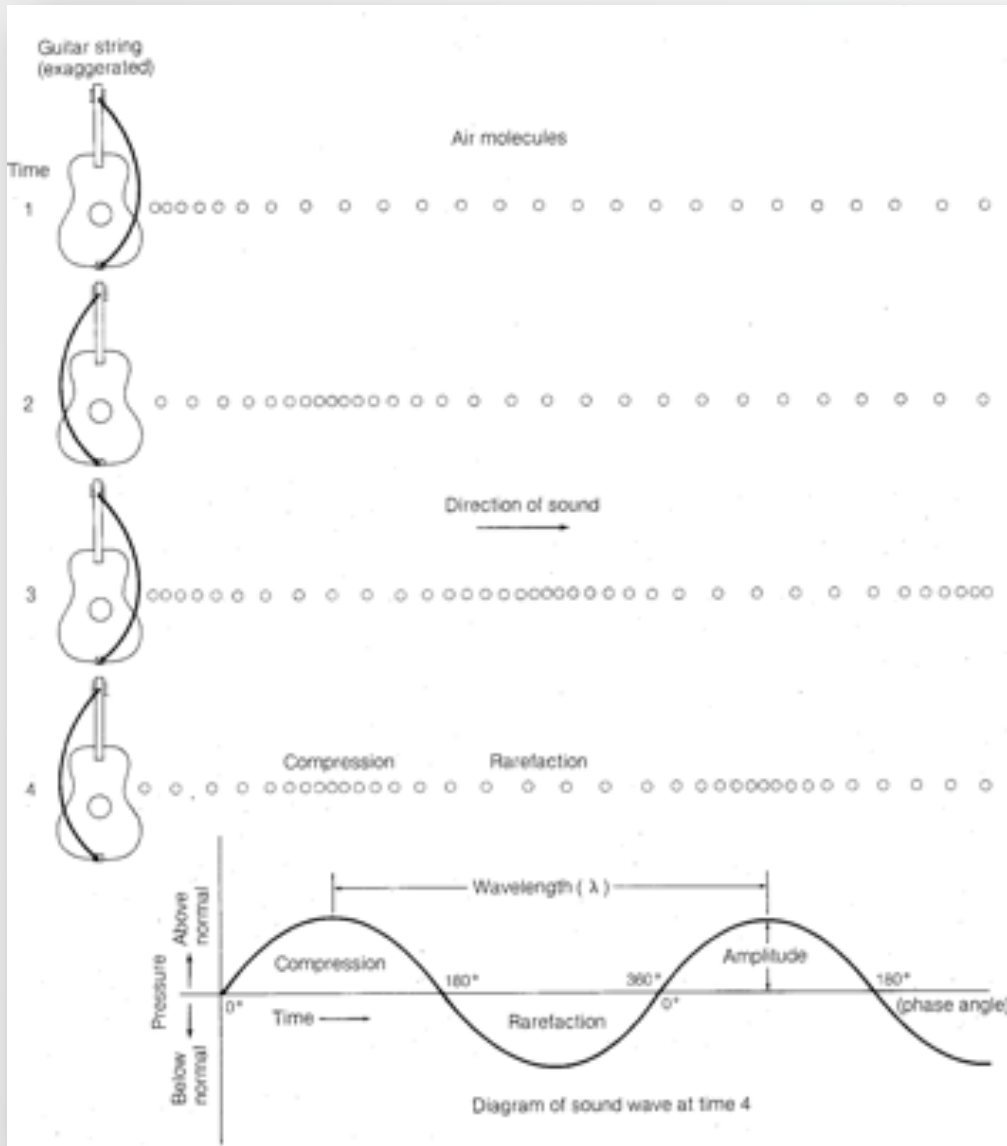
# What is sound?

- **Sound** is a time-variant pressure wave created by a vibration.
  - Air particles **hit** each other, setting others in motion.
    - High pressure  $\equiv$  **compressions** in the air (C).
    - Low pressure  $\equiv$  **rarefactions** within the air (R).

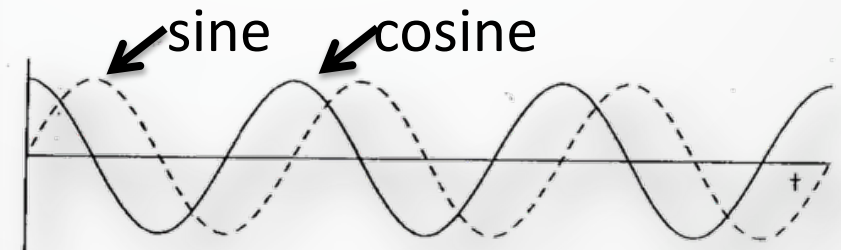




# What is sound?



**Frequency**  $F = 1/T$

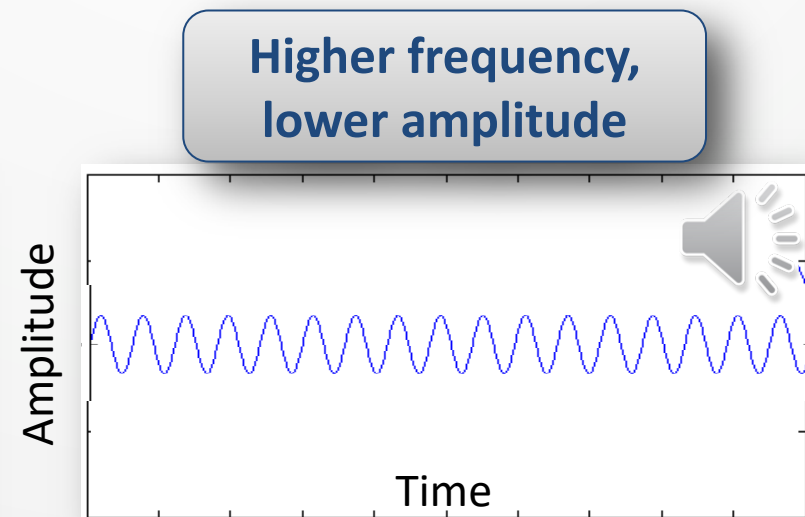
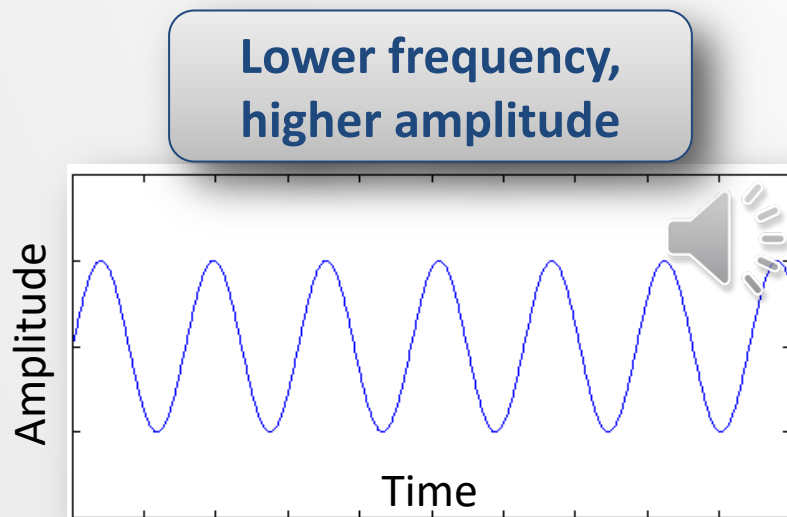


**phase**  $\phi$  is displacement of a signal in time. E.g., with  $\phi = \pi/2$ ,

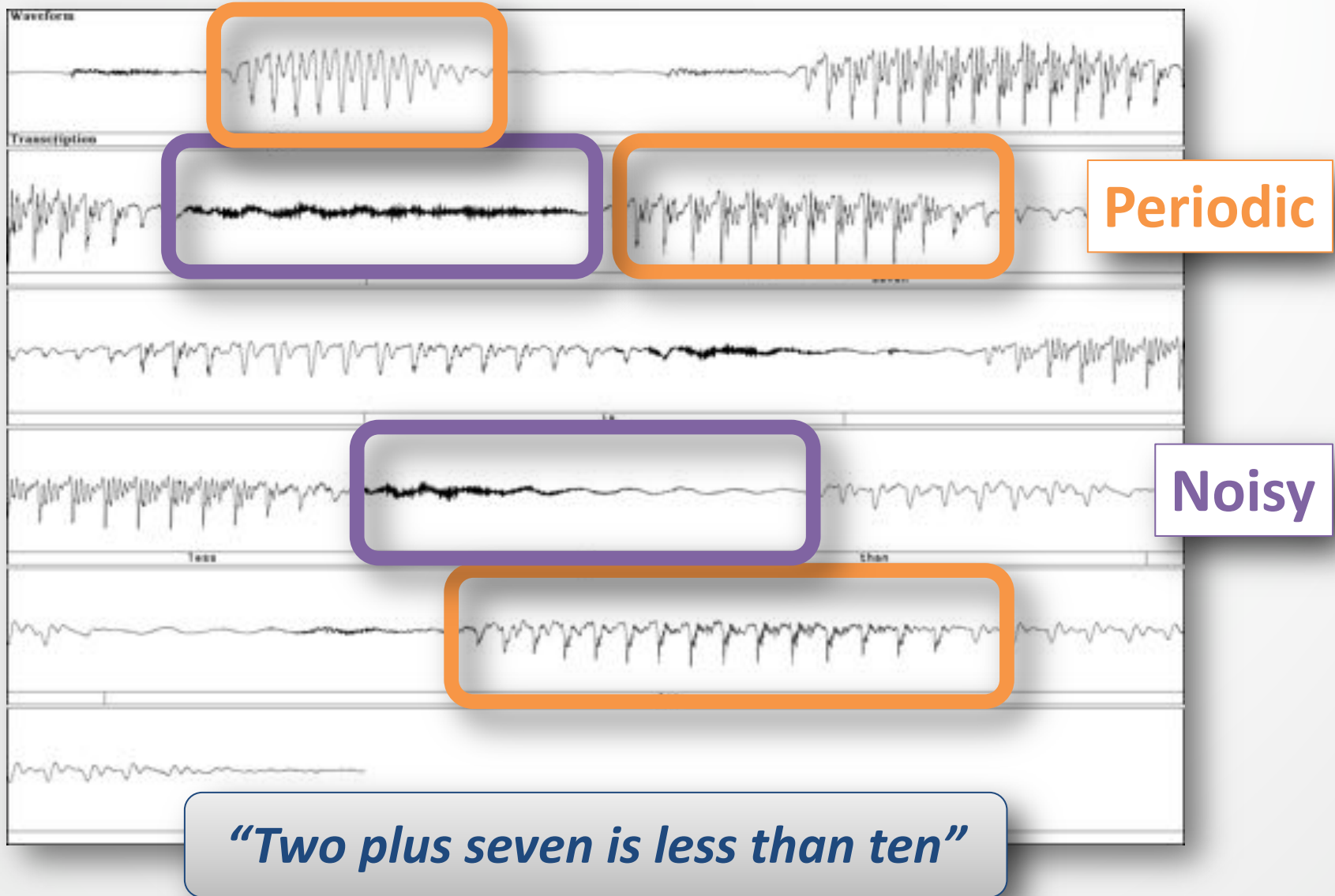
$$\sin(x + \phi) = \cos(x)$$

# What is sound?

- A single **tone** is a sinusoidal function of pressure and time.
  - **Amplitude:**  $n$ . The degree of the displacement in the air. This is similar to 'loudness'. Often measured in **Decibels (dB)**.
  - **Frequency:**  $n$ . The number of cycles within a unit of time. e.g., **1 Hertz (Hz) = 1 oscillation/second**

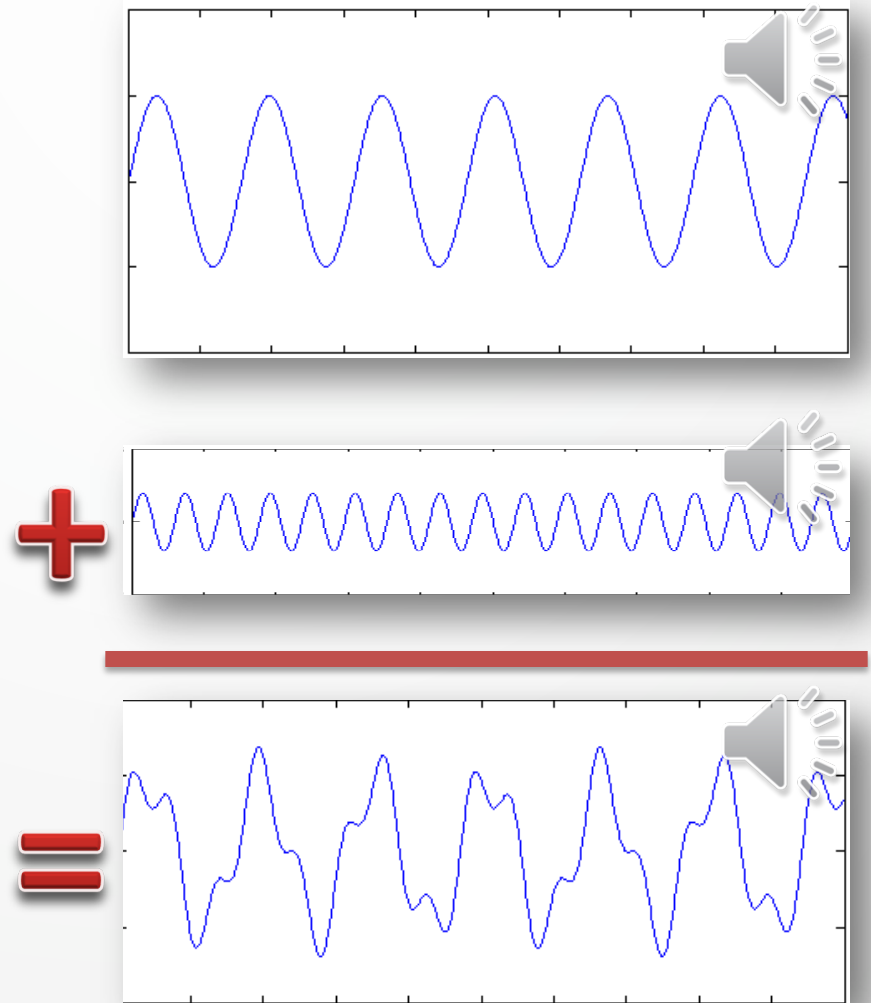
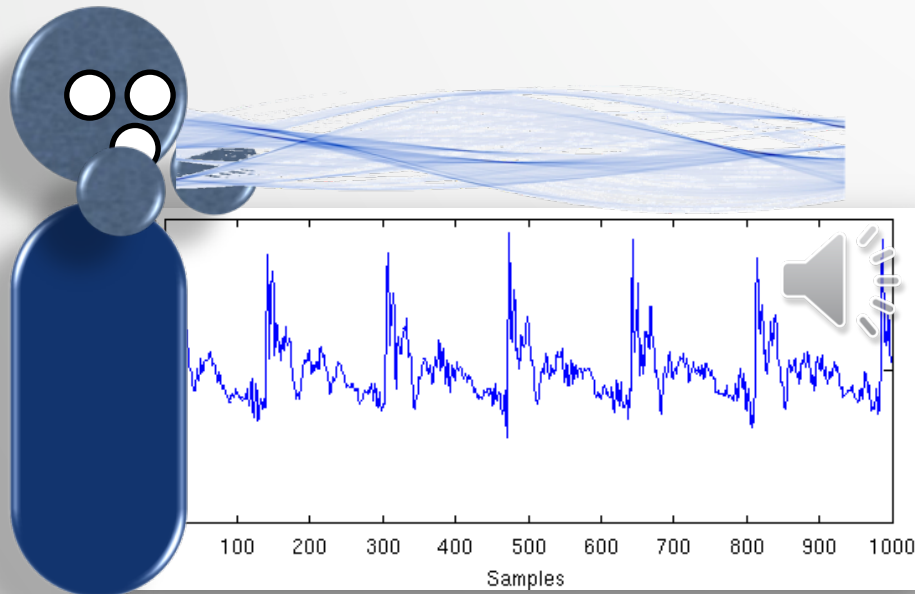


# Speech waveforms



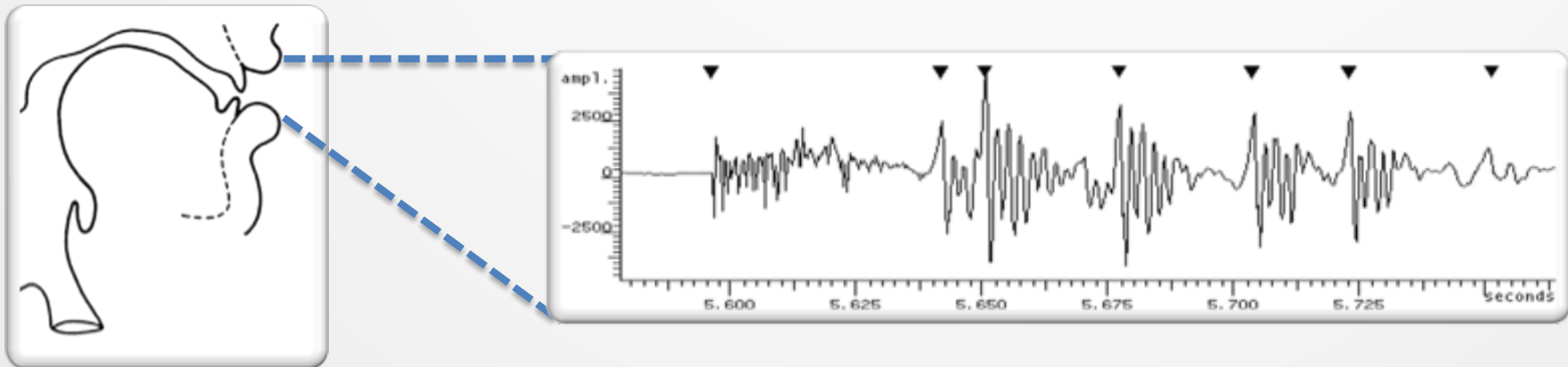
# Superposition of sinusoids

- **Superposition:** *n.* the adding of sinusoids together.
- **Phase:** *n.* The horizontal offset of a sinusoid ( $\phi$ ).

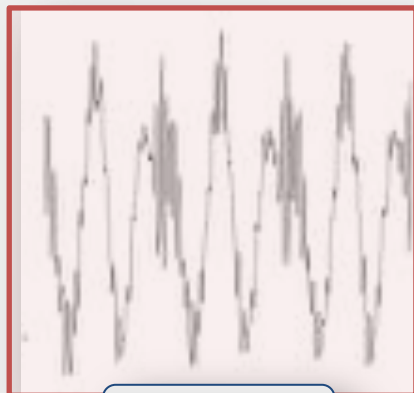
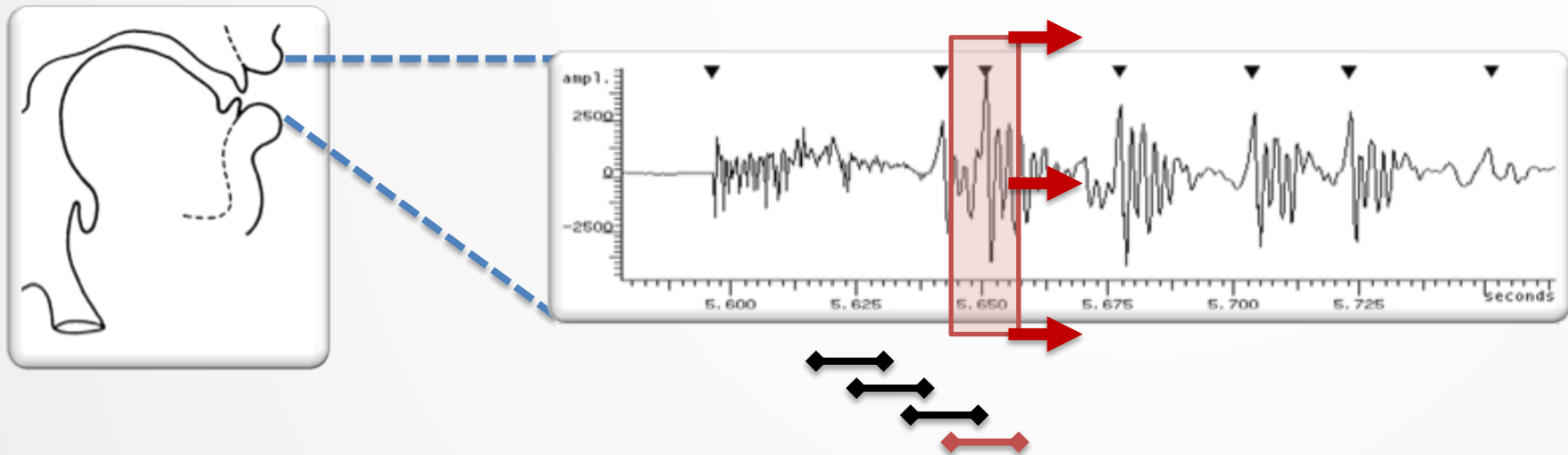


# Extracting sinusoids from waveforms

- As we will soon see, the relative **amplitudes** and **frequencies** of the sinusoids that combine in speech are often **extremely indicative** of the **speech units** being uttered.
  - ∴ If we could **separate** the waveform into its component sinusoids, it would help us **classify** the speech being uttered.
  - *But the shape of the signal changes over time*  
*(it's not a single repeating pattern)...*



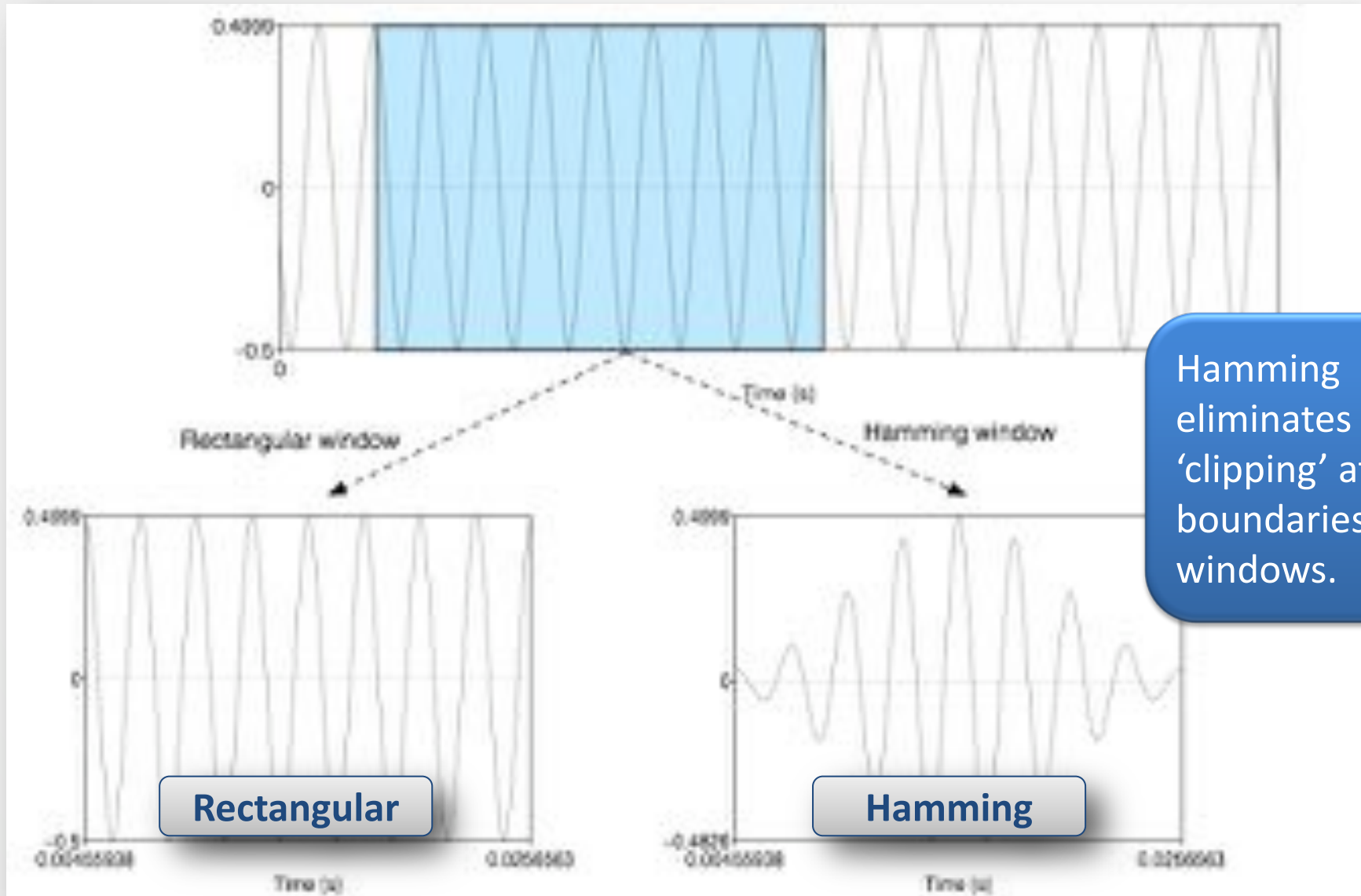
# Short-time windowing



Frame

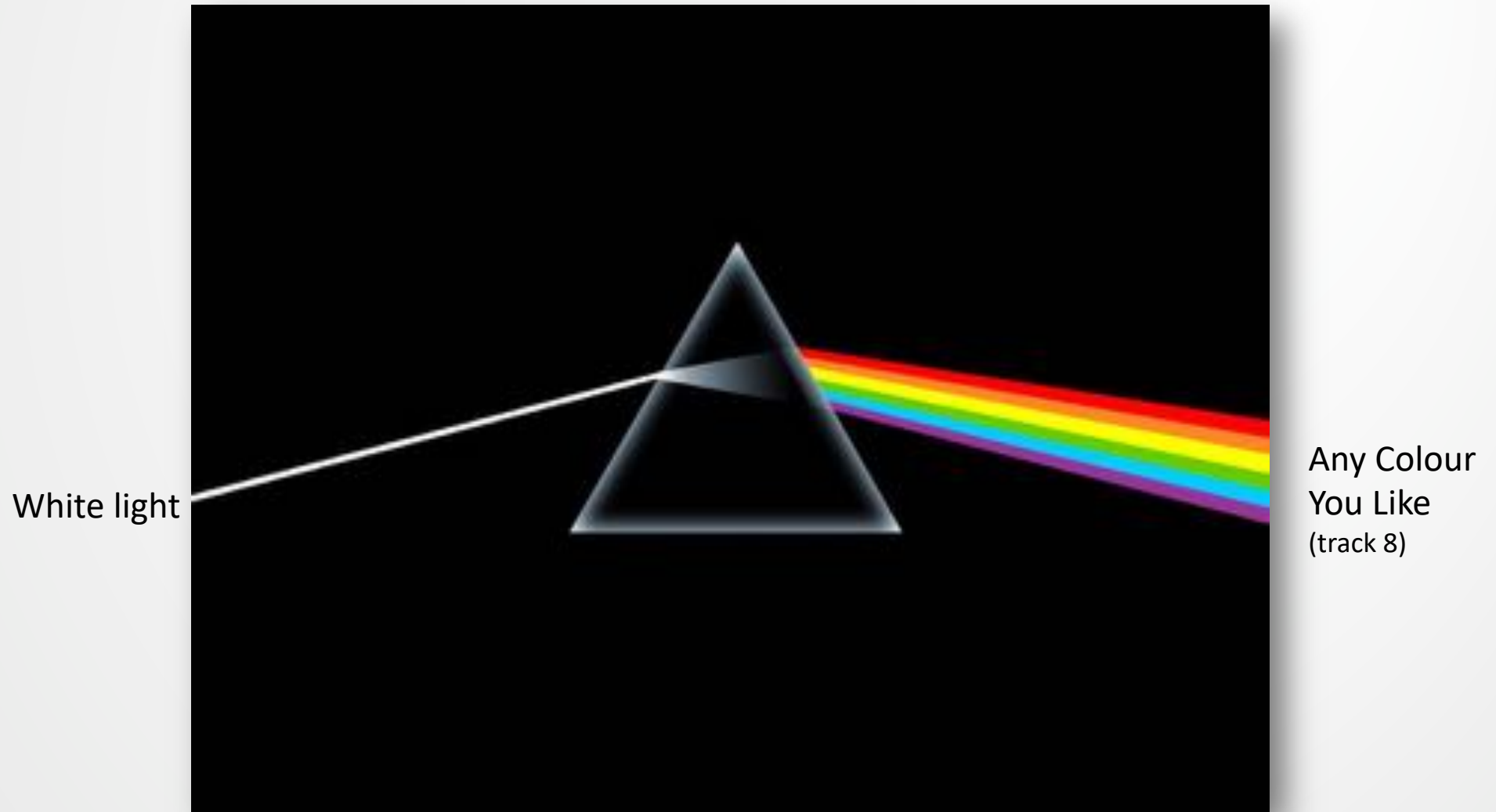
- Speech waveforms change drastically over time.
- We *move* a short analysis window (assumed to be time-invariant) across the waveform in time.
  - E.g. frame shift: 5—10 ms
  - E.g. frame length: 10—25 ms

# Window types

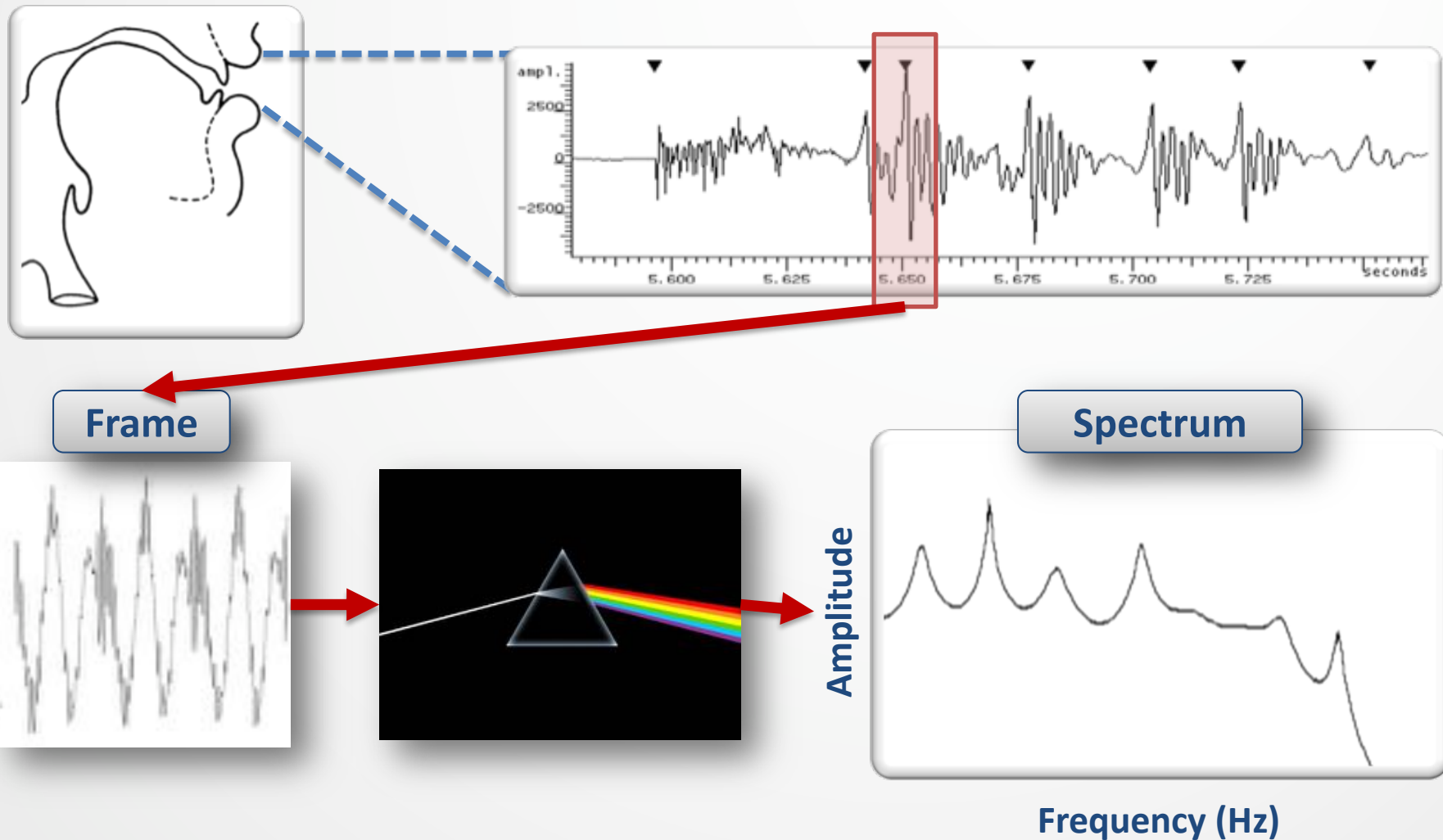




# Extracting a spectrum



# Extracting a spectrum in a window

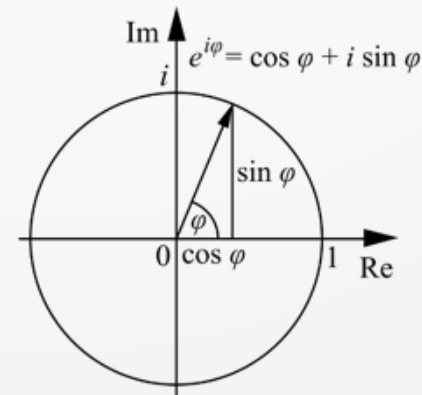
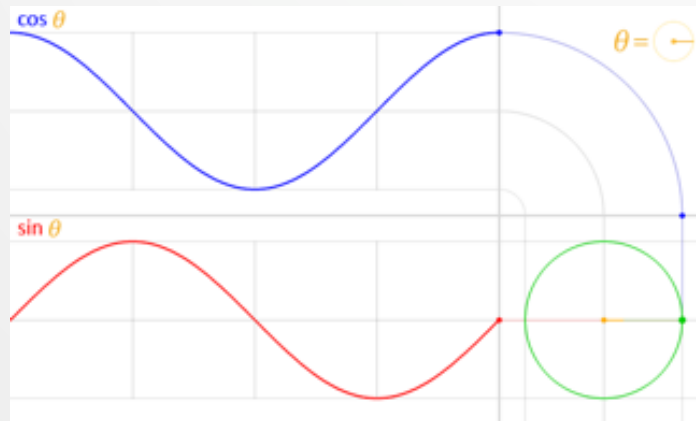


# Aside – Euler's formula

- Extracting sinusoids uses a relationship between natural exponent  $e$  and sinusoids expressed in **Euler's formula**:

$$e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i \sin(x)$$

$$e^{i\pi} = -1$$



# The continuous Fourier transform



- **Input:** Continuous signal  $x(t)$ .
- **Output:** Spectrum  $X(F)$

$$X(F) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x(t) e^{-i2\pi Ft} dt$$

(No need to  
memorize these )



Fun fact: Fourier instructed  
Champollion.

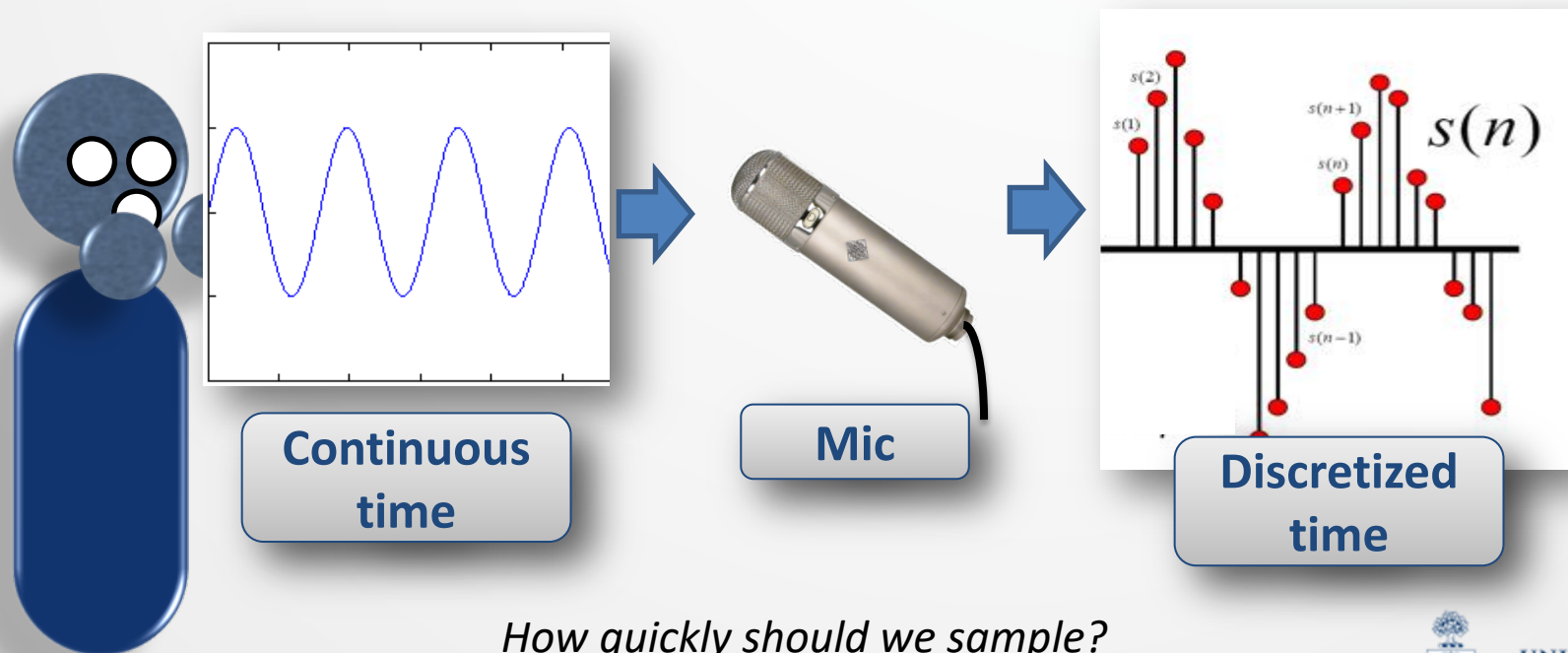
- It's **invertible**, i.e.,  $x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(F) e^{i2\pi Ft} dF$ .
- It's **linear**, i.e., for  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  
if  $h(t) = ax(t) + by(t)$ ,  
then  $H(F) = aX(F) + bY(F)$

...

It needs **continuous** input  $x(t)$ ... *uh oh?*

# Discrete signal representation

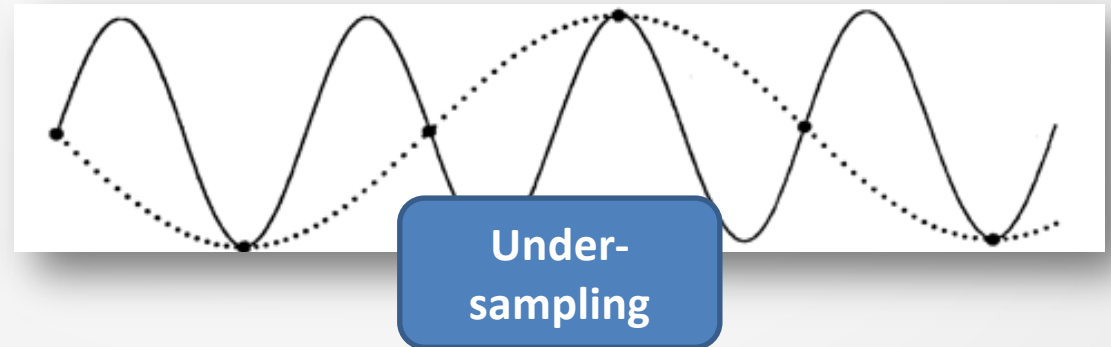
- **Sampling:** *vbg.* measuring the amplitude of a signal at regular intervals.
  - e.g., 44.1 kHz (*CD*), 8 kHz (*telephone*).
  - These amplitudes are initially measured as **continuous** values at **discrete** time steps.



*How quickly should we sample?*

# Discrete signal representation

- **Nyquist rate:** *n.* the **minimum** sampling rate necessary to preserve a signal's **maximum** frequency.
  - i.e., **twice** the maximum frequency, since we need  $\geq 2$  samples/cycle.
  - Human speech is very informative  $\leq 4$  kHz,  $\therefore$  8 kHz sampling.



# Discrete Fourier transform (DFT)



- **Input:** Windowed signal  $x[0] \dots x[N - 1]$ .
- **Output:**  $N$  complex numbers  $X[k]$  ( $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ )

(No need to memorize these)

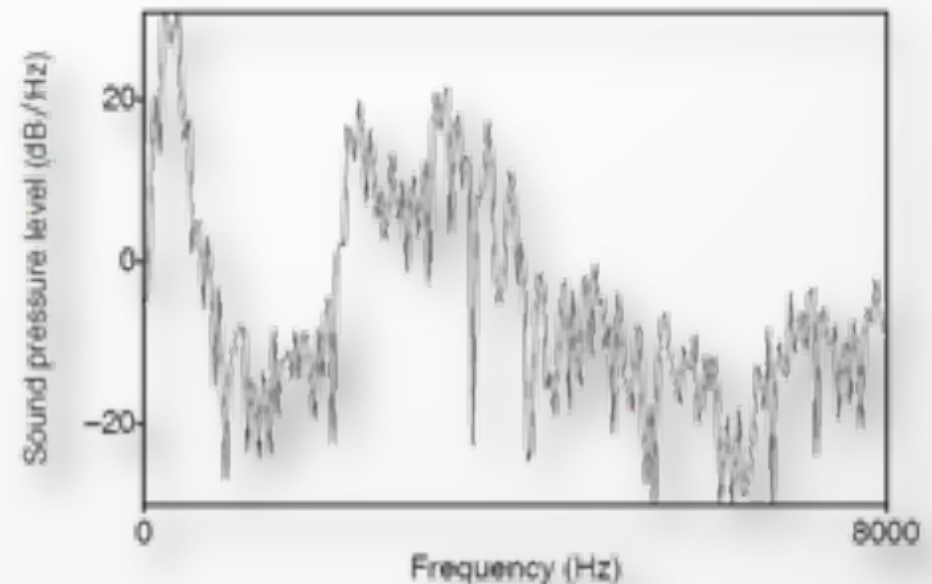
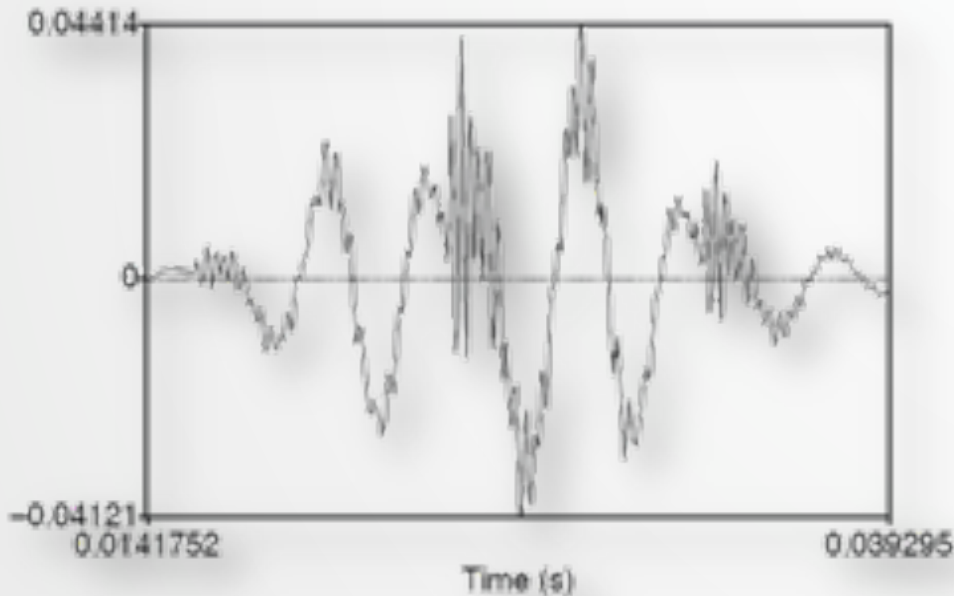
$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-i2\pi k \frac{n}{N}}$$

- **Algorithm(s):** the **Fast Fourier Transform** (FFT) with complexity  $O(N \log N)$ .
  - (Aside) The **Cooley-Tukey algorithm** *divides-and-conquers* by breaking the DFT into smaller ones  $N = N_1 N_2$ .



# Discrete Fourier transform (DFT)

- Below is a 25 ms Hamming-windowed signal from /iy/ as in 'bull sheep', and its spectrum as computed by the DFT.

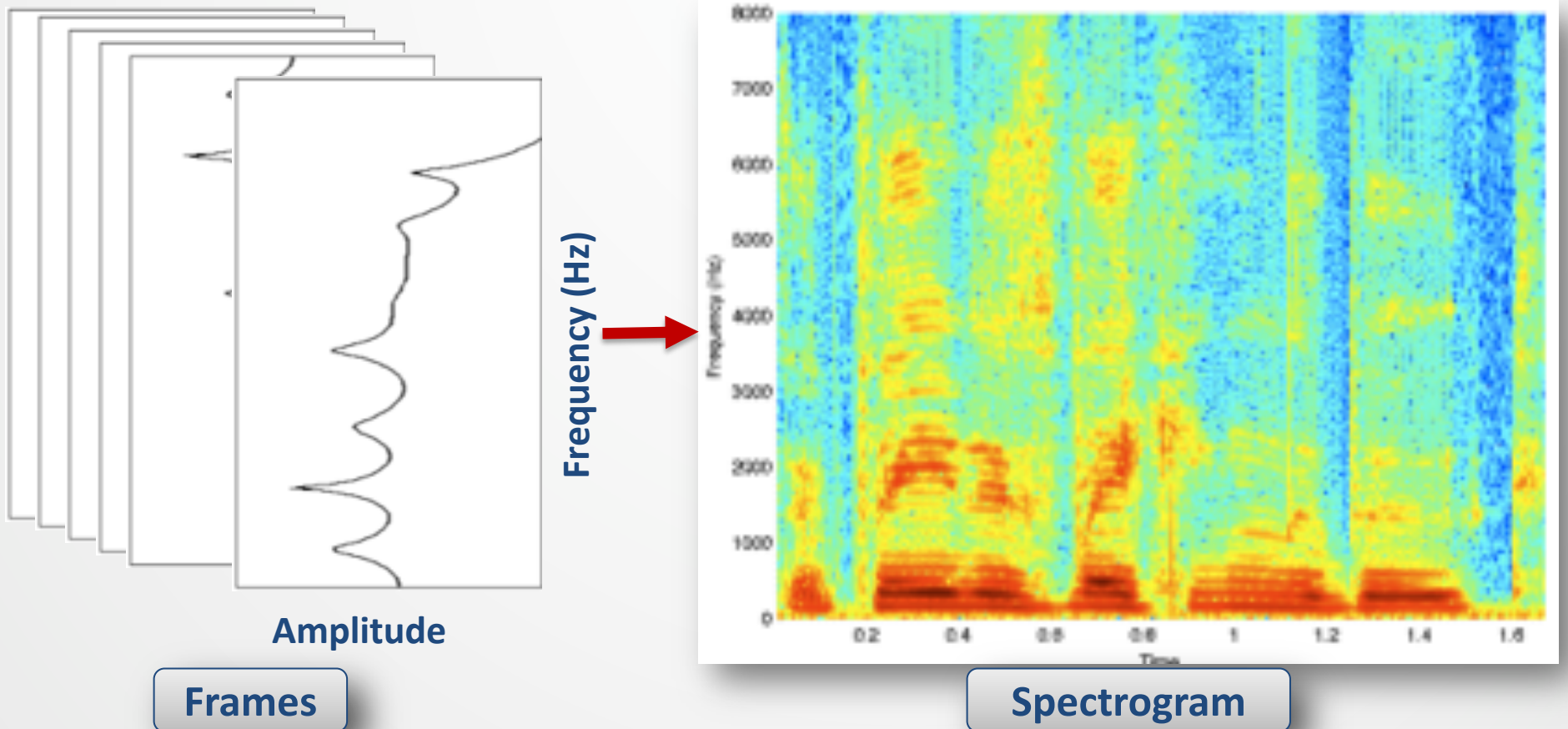


Recall: the Fourier transform is invertible

*But this is all just for a small window...*

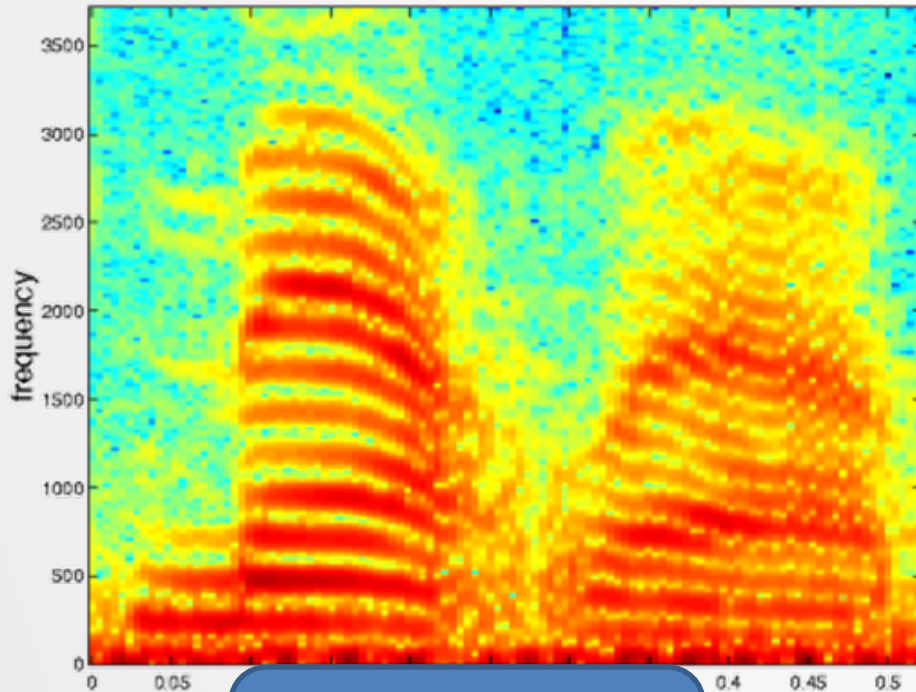
# Spectrograms

- **Spectrogram:** *n.* a 3D plot of **amplitude** and **frequency** over **time** (higher 'redness' → higher amplitude).



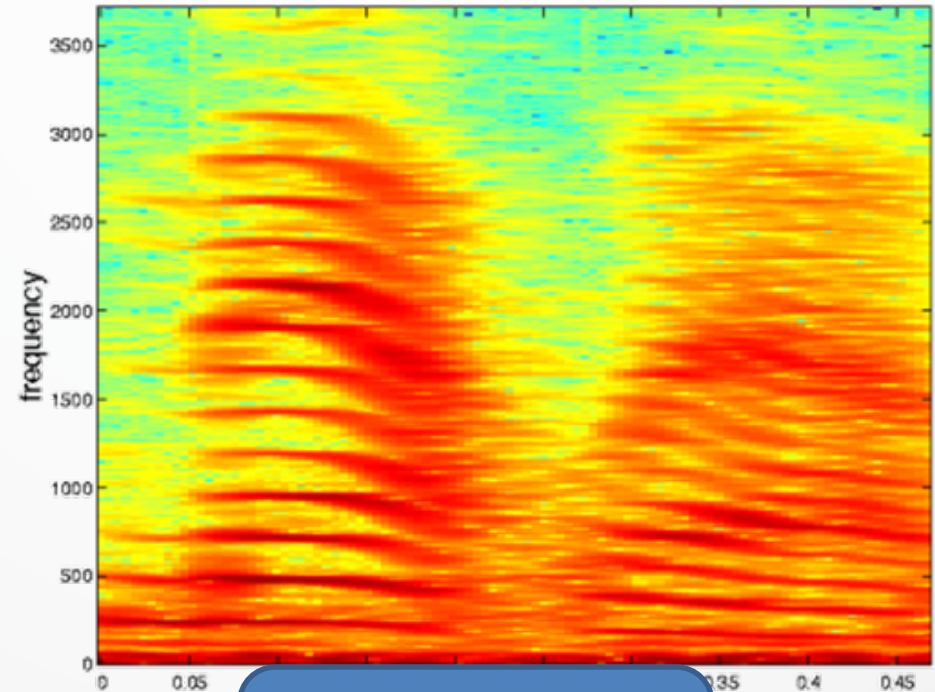
# Effect of window length

SPECTROGRAM, R = 128



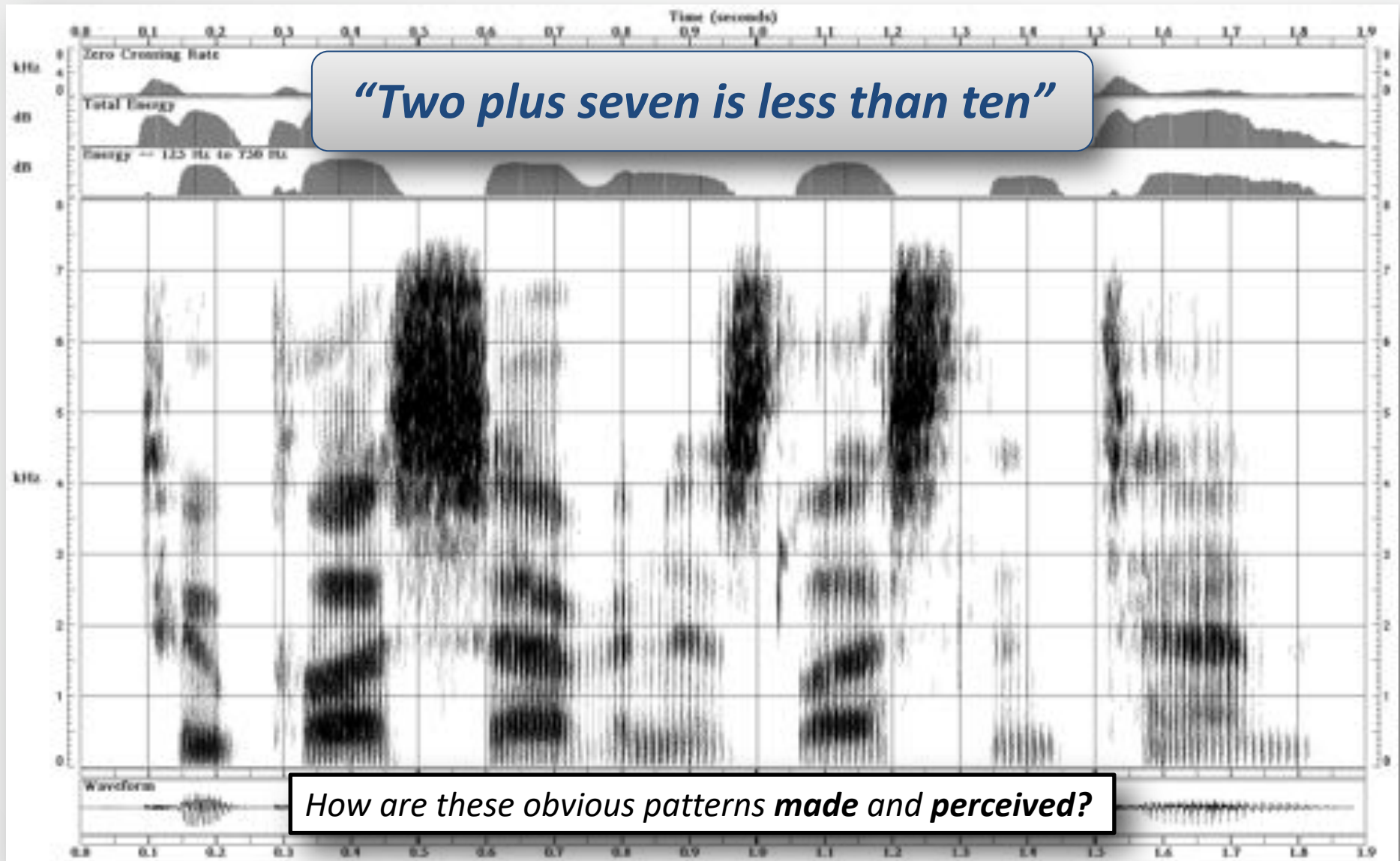
Wide-band  
(better time  
resolution)

SPECTROGRAM, R = 512



Narrow-band  
(better frequency  
resolution)

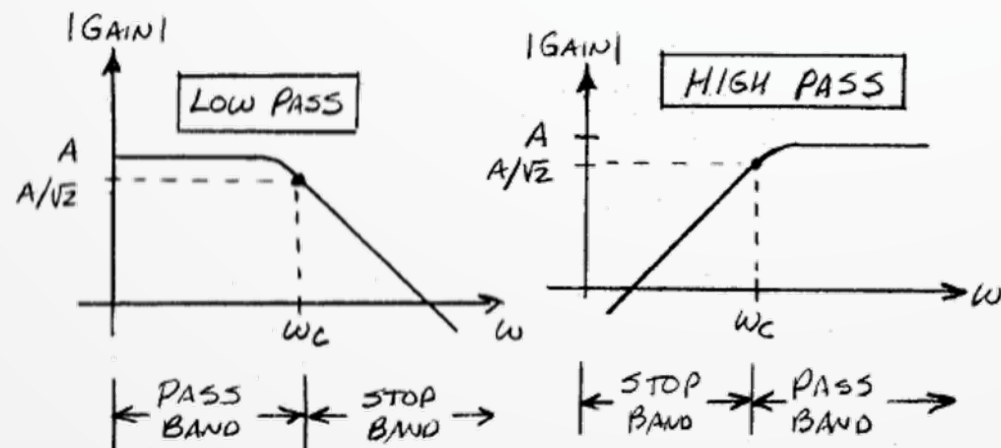
# Spectrograms





# Aside – Filtering

- Sometimes you only want **part** of a signal.
  - E.g., you have measurements of lip aperture over time – you know that they can't move  $> 5$ - $10$  Hz.
  - E.g., you know there's some low-frequency Gaussian noise in either the environment or transmission medium.



- Low- and high-pass filters can be combined in series, yielding a **band-pass** filter.

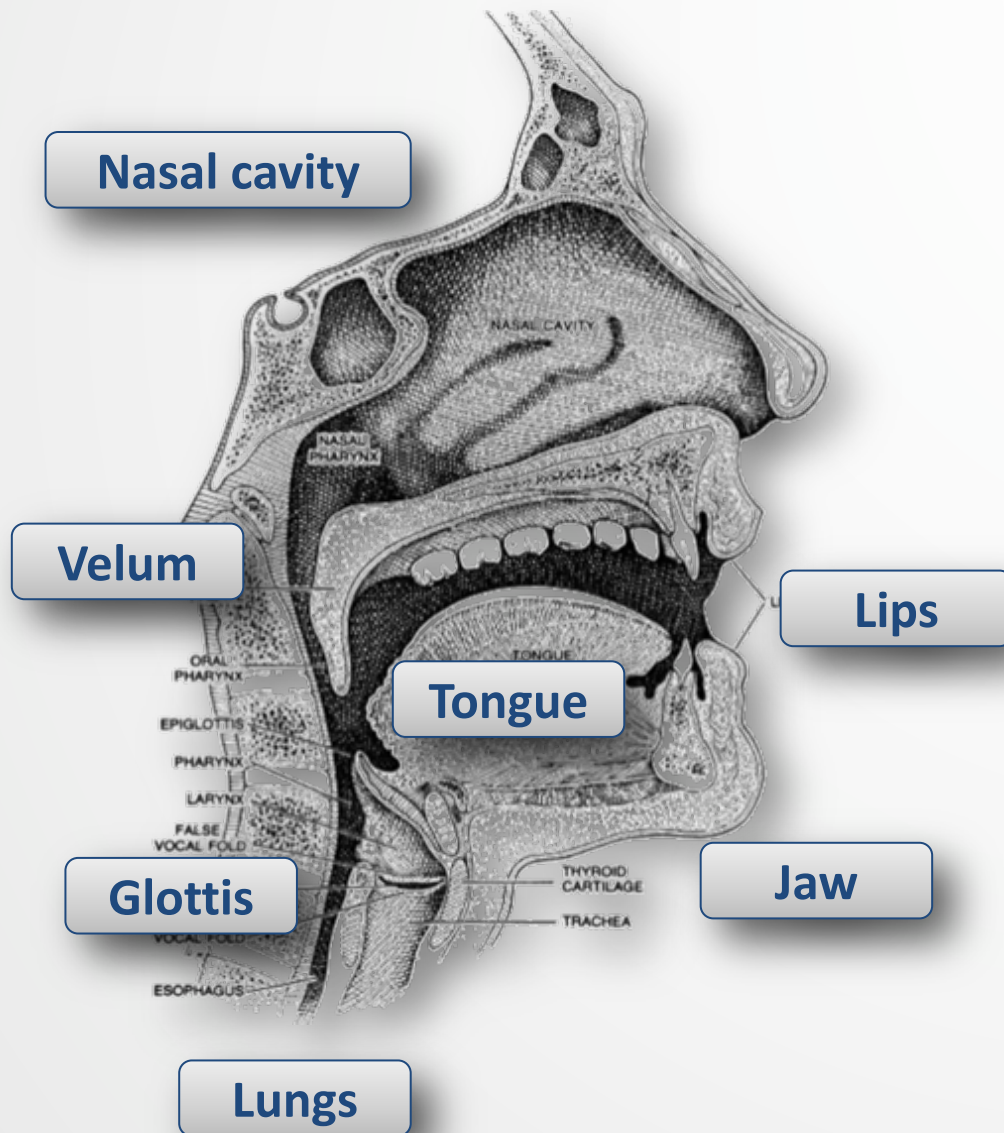


speech production



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# The vocal tract

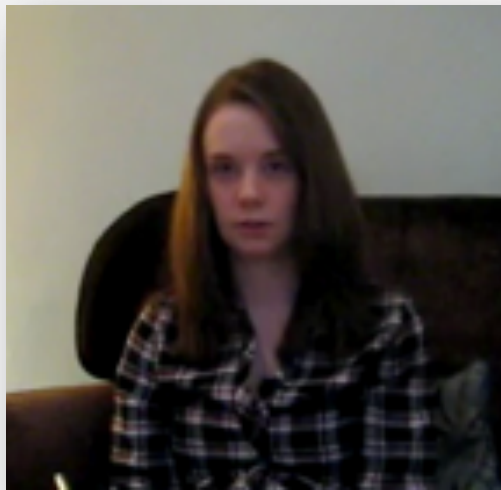


- Many physical structures are co-ordinated in the production of speech.
- Generally, sound is **generated** by passing air through the vocal tract.
- Sound is **modified** by constricting airflow in particular ways.

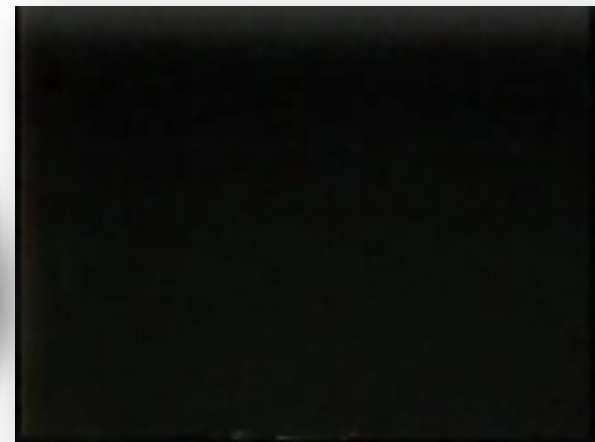
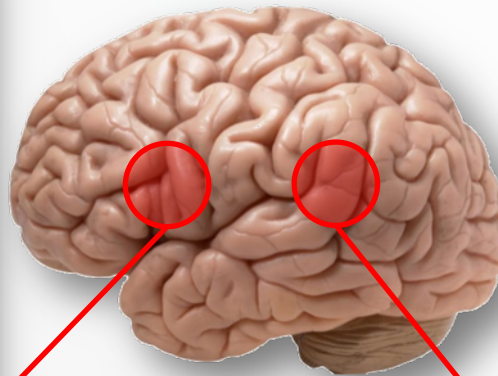


# The neurological origins of speech

- Studying how systems break down can indicate how they work.



**Broca's aphasia**



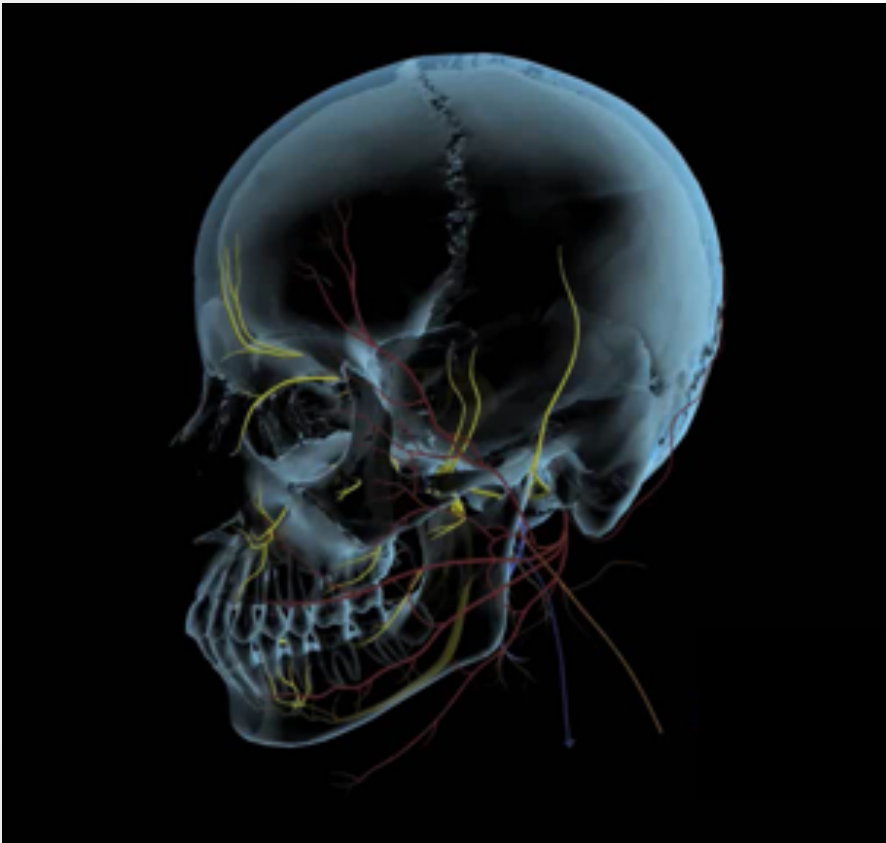
**Wernicke's aphasia**

- **Reduced** hierarchical **syntax**.
- **Anomia**.
- **Reduced** “mirroring” between **observation** and **execution**.

- **Normal** intonation/rhythm.
- **Meaningless** words.
- **‘Jumbled’** syntax.
- **Reduced** comprehension.

# The neurological origins of speech

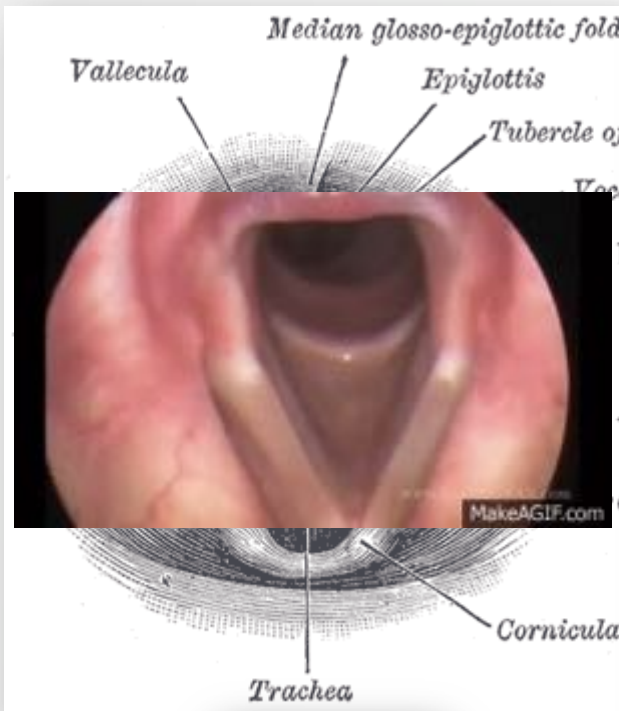
- Cranial nerves carry messages from the brain to the various **articulators**.



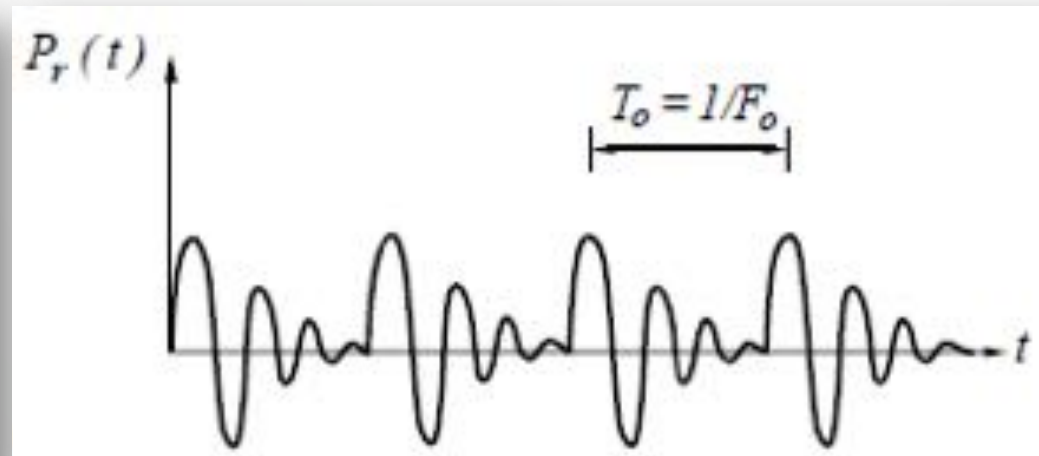
- **Cranial nerves** carry messages from the brain to the various **articulators**.
  - **Damage** to these nerves can result in **neuro-motor** disorders such as cerebral palsy.
  - These may be another example of the noisy channel.

# Fundamental frequency

- $F_0$ :  $n$ . (**fundamental frequency**), the rate of vibration of the **glottis** – often very **indicative** of the speaker.



**Glottis**

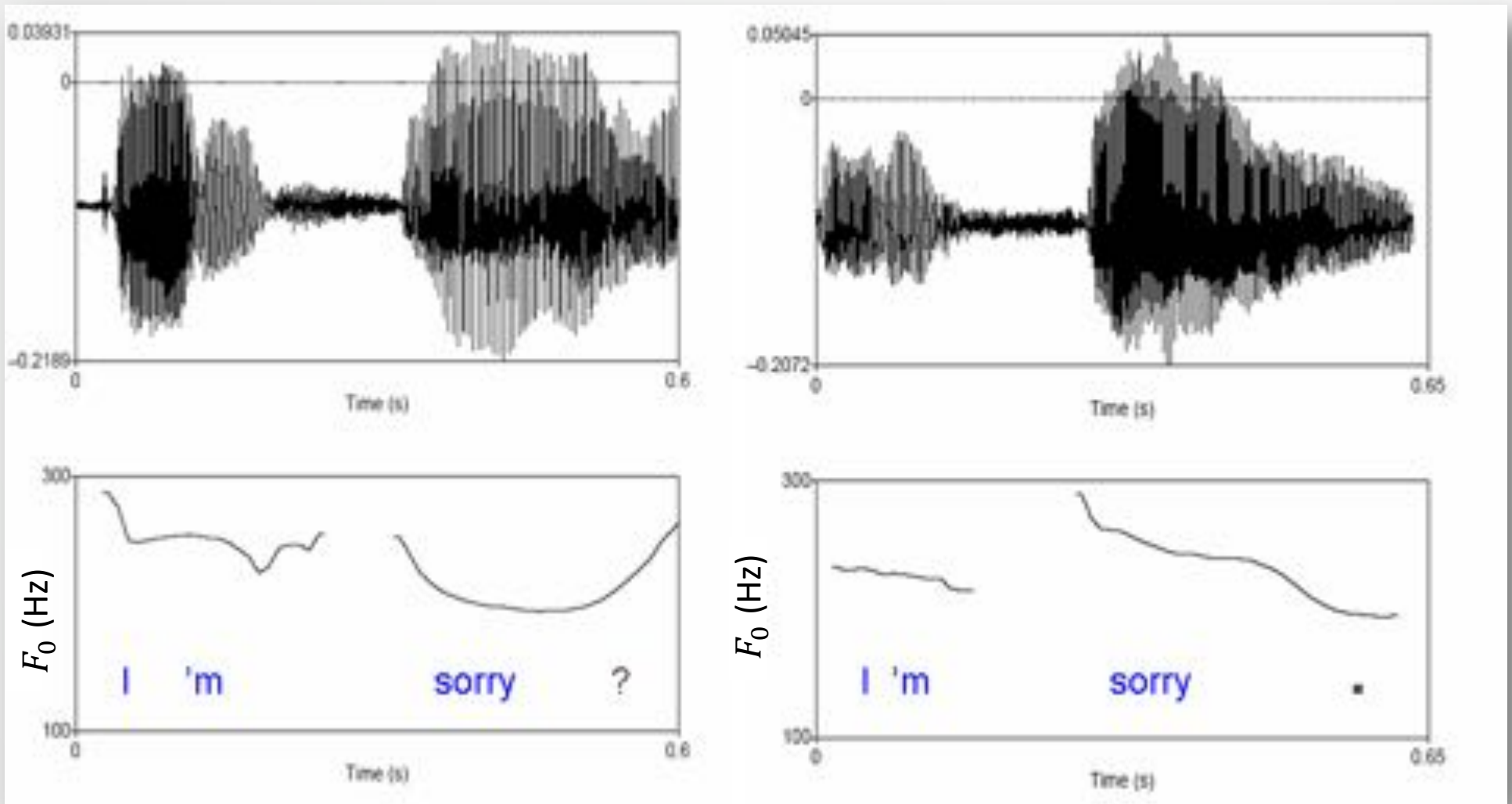


	Avg $F_0$ (Hz)	Min $F_0$ (Hz)	Max $F_0$ (Hz)
<b>Men</b>	125	80	200
<b>Women</b>	225	150	350
<b>Children</b>	300	200	500

# Prosody

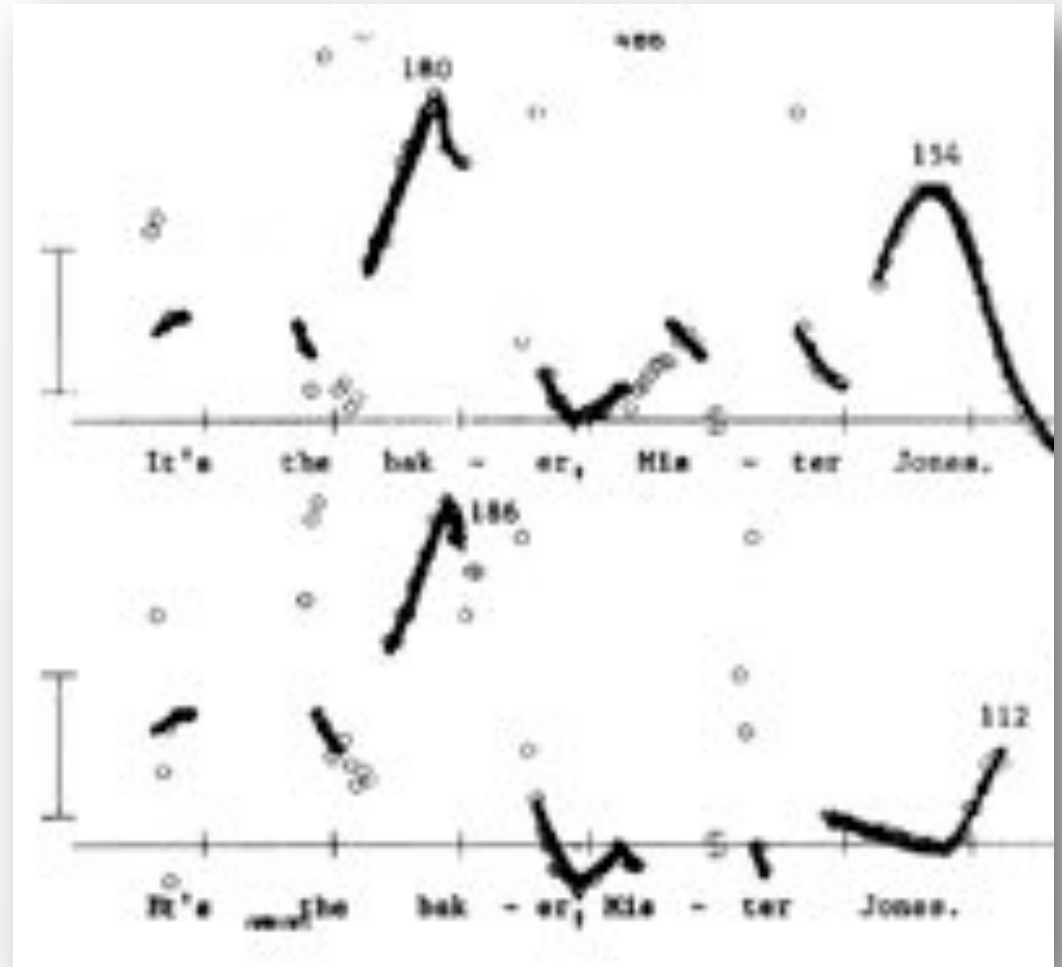
- **Sonorant**: *n.* Any **sustained** sound in which the **glottis** is vibrating (i.e., the sound is '**voiced**').
  - Includes some consonants (e.g., /w/, /m/).
- **Prosody**: *n.* the **modification** of speech acoustics in order to convey some **extra-lexical** meaning:
  - **Pitch**: Changing of  $F_0$  over time.
  - **Duration**: The length in time of sonorants.
  - **Loudness**: The amount of **energy** produced by the **lungs**.

# Pitch prosody example



# Pitch can modify meaning

- e.g., I ask you  
“who is that?”
- e.g., I ask you  
“what is his job?”



Pitch tends to rise when uttering novel or important information.

# Pitch can modify meaning

- I never said she stole my money. (Someone else said it)
- I never said she stole my money. (It never happened)
- I never said she stole my money. (I just hinted at it)
- I never said she stole my money. (Someone else stole it)
- I never said she stole my money. (She just borrowed it)
- I never said she stole my money. (She stole someone else's)
- I never said she stole my money. (She stole my heart).

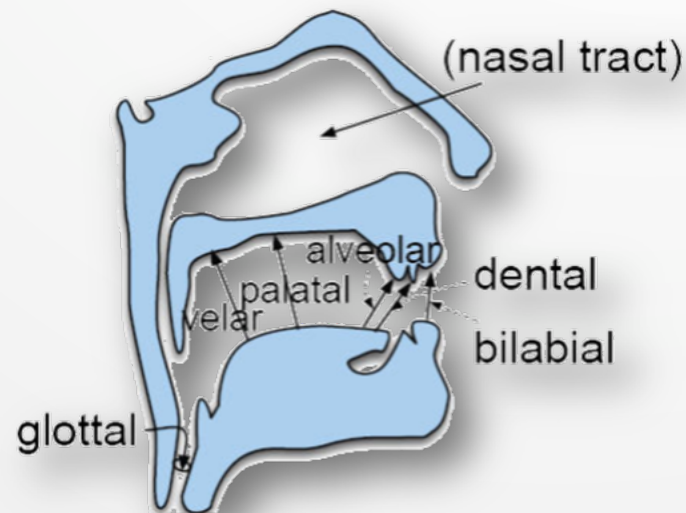


# Phonemes

- **Phoneme:** *n.* a distinctive unit of speech sound.
- Phonemes can be partitioned into **manners of articulation:**
  - **Vowels:** **open** vocal tract, no nasal air.
  - **Fricatives:** **noisy**, with air passing through a tight constriction (e.g., 'shift').
  - **Stops/plosives:** **complete** vocal tract constriction and burst of energy (e.g., 'papa').
  - **Nasals:** air passes through the **nasal** cavity (e.g., 'mama').
  - **Semivowels:** similar to vowels, but typically with more constriction (e.g., 'wall').
  - **Affricates:** Alveolar stop followed by fricative.

# Place of articulation

- The **location** of the *primary constriction* can be:
  - **Alveolar:** constriction near the alveolar ridge (e.g., /t/)
  - **Bilabial:** touching of the lips together (e.g., /m/, /p/)
  - **Dental:** constriction of/at the teeth (e.g., /th/)
  - **Labiodental:** constriction between lip and teeth (e.g., /f/)
  - **Velar:** constriction at or near the velum (e.g., /k/).



# Phonemic alphabets

- There are several alphabets that categorize the sounds of speech.
  - The **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** is popular, but it uses non-ASCII symbols.
  - The **TIMIT** phonemic alphabet will be used by **default** in this course.
- Other popular alphabets include **ARPAbet**, **Worldbet**, and **OGIbet**, usually adding special cases.
  - E.g., /pcl/ is the period of silence immediately before a /p/.

TIMIT	IPA	e.g.
/iy/	/i <sup>y</sup> /	<i>b<u>e</u>at</i>
/ih/	/ɪ/	<i>b<u>i</u>t</i>
/eh/	/ɛ/	<i>b<u>e</u>t</i>
/ae/	/æ/	<i>b<u>a</u>t</i>
/aa/	/ɑ/	<i>B<u>o</u>b</i>
/ah/	/ʌ/	<i>b<u>u</u>t</i>
/ao/	/ɔ/	<i>b<u>o</u>ught</i>
/uh/	/ʊ/	<i>b<u>oo</u>k</i>
/uw/	/u/	<i>b<u>oo</u>t</i>
/ux/	/ʊ/	<i>s<u>ui</u>t</i>
/ax/	/ə/	<i><u>a</u>bout</i>

# TIMIT Phonemic alphabet (incomplete)

Vowel	e.g.
/iy/	<i>b<u>e</u>at</i>
/ih/	<i>b<u>i</u>t</i>
/eh/	<i>b<u>e</u>t</i>
/ae/	<i>b<u>a</u>t</i>
/aa/	<i>B<u>o</u>b</i>
/ah/	<i>b<u>u</u>t</i>
/ao/	<i>b<u>o</u>ught</i>
/uh/	<i>b<u>o</u>ok</i>
/uw/	<i>b<u>o</u>ot</i>
/ux/	<i>s<u>u</u>it</i>
/ax/	<i><u>a</u>bout</i>

stop	e.g.
/b/	<i><u>B</u>ilbo</i>
/d/	<i><u>d</u>ada</i>
/g/	<i><u>G</u>aga</i>
/p/	<i><u>P</u>ippin</i>
/t/	<i><u>T</u>oots</i>
/k/	<i><u>k</u>ick</i>

nasal	e.g.
/m/	<i><u>M</u>ama</i>
/n/	<i><u>n</u>oon</i>
/ng/	<i>th<u>ing</u></i>

fricative	e.g.
/s/	<i><u>S</u>ea</i>
/f/	<i><u>F</u>runk</i>
/z/	<i><u>Z</u>appa</i>
/th/	<i><u>th</u>is</i>
/sh/	<i><u>Sh</u>ip</i>
/zh/	<i>az<u>u</u>re</i>
/v/	<i><u>V</u>ogon</i>
/dh/	<i><u>th</u>en</i>

...

(Incomplete)

# Phoneme sequences

- Often, we assume that a **spoken utterance** can be **partitioned** into a **sequence of non-overlapping phonemes**.
  - Demarking the periods during which certain phonemes are being uttered is called **transcription** or **annotation** (\*).
  - This approach has problems (e.g., when *exactly* does one phoneme end and another begin?), but it's useful for **classification**.



*What are some characteristics of the six **manners** of articulation?*

# Vowels (1/6)

- There are approximately **19** vowels in Canadian English, including **diphthongs** in which the articulators **move** over time.
- Vowels are distinguished primarily by their **formants**. (?)

other	e.g.
/er/	<i>B<u>e</u>rt</i>
/axr/	<i>b<u>u</u>tter</i>

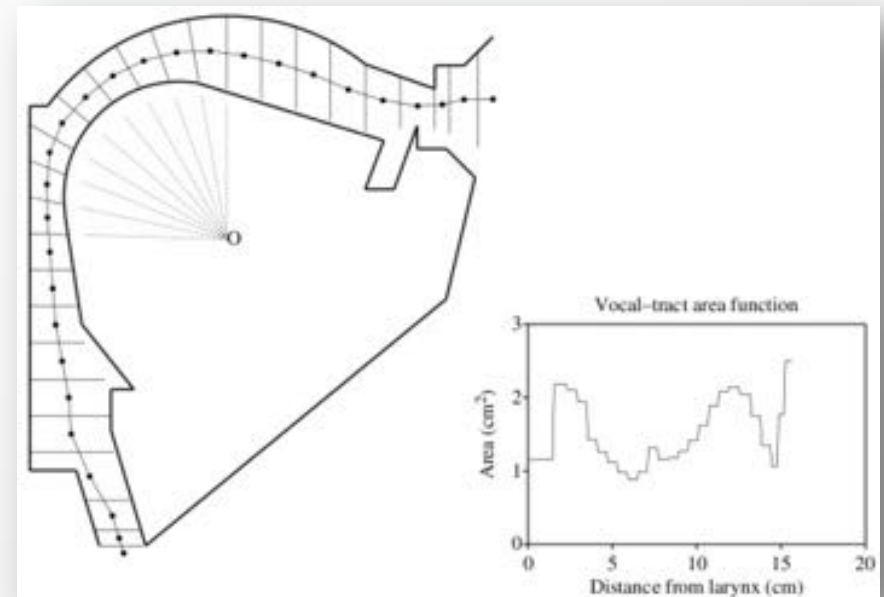
diphthong	e.g.
/ey/	<i>b<u>a</u>it</i>
/ow/	<i>b<u>o</u>at</i>
/ay/	<i>b<u>i</u>te</i>
/oy/	<i>b<u>o</u>y</i>
/aw/	<i>b<u>o</u>ut</i>
/ux/	<i>s<u>u</u>it</i>

Mono-phthong	e.g.
/iy/	<i>b<u>e</u>at</i>
/ih/	<i>b<u>i</u>t</i>
/eh/	<i>b<u>e</u>t</i>
/ae/	<i>b<u>a</u>t</i>
/aa/	<i>B<u>o</u>b</i>
/ao/	<i>b<u>o</u>ught</i>
/ah/	<i>b<u>u</u>t</i>
/uh/	<i>b<u>o</u>ok</i>
/uw/	<i>b<u>o</u>ot</i>
/ax/	<i><u>a</u>bout</i>
/ix/	<i>ros<u>e</u>s</i>

# The uniform tube



- The positions of the tongue, jaw, and lips change the **shape** and **cross-sectional area** of the vocal tract.





# Uniform tubes in practice

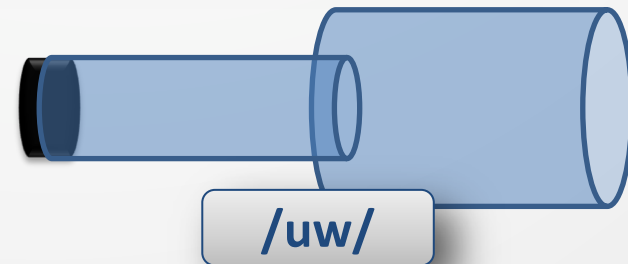
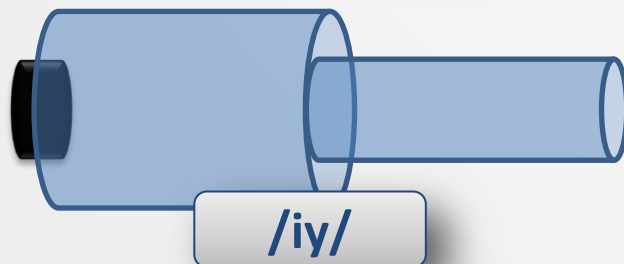
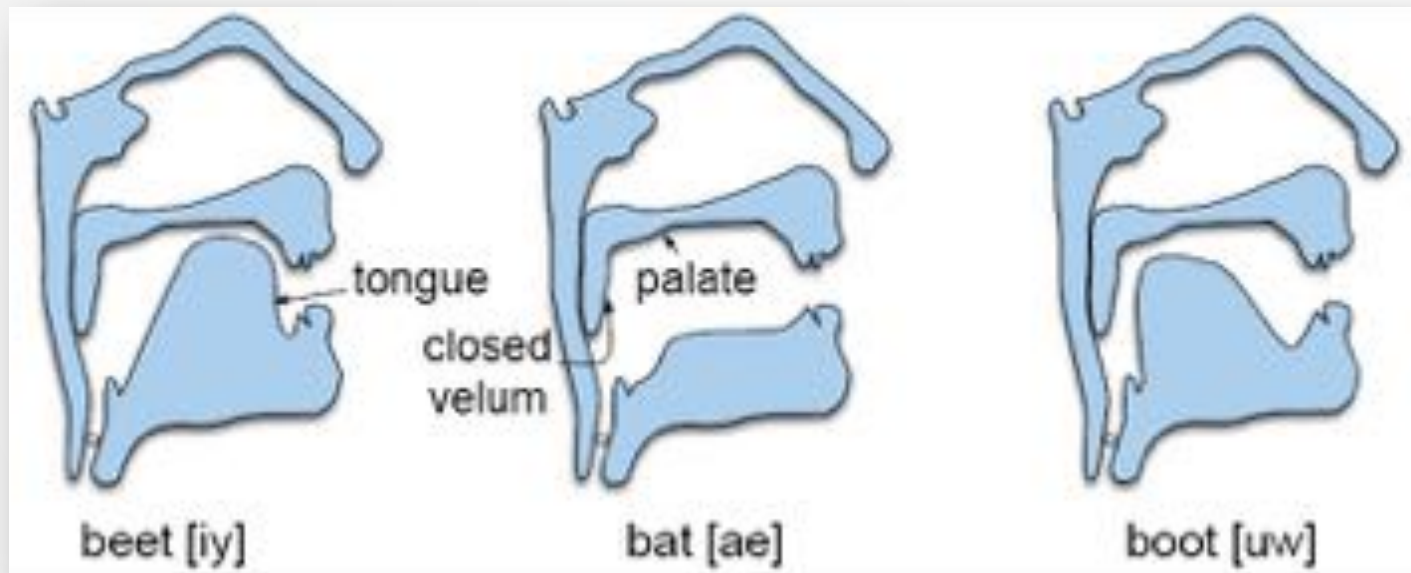
- Many **musical instruments** are based on the idea of uniform (or, in many cases, bent) tubes.
- **Longer** tubes produce '**deeper**' sounds (lower frequencies).
  - A tube  $\frac{1}{2}$  the length of another will be 1 octave higher.





# Vowels as concatenated tubes

- The vocal tract can be modelled as the concatenation of dozens, hundreds, or thousands of tubes.



# Aside – waves in concatenated tubes

- We model the **volume velocity**  $U_k$  and the **pressure variation**  $p_k$  at position  $x$  in the  $k^{\text{th}}$  lossless tube (whose area is  $A_k$ ) at time  $t$

The diagram illustrates two tubes of different cross-sectional areas,  $A_k$  and  $A_{k+1}$ , connected at an interface. The upper tube has a larger cross-sectional area  $A_k$  and the lower tube has a smaller cross-sectional area  $A_{k+1}$ . The length of each tube segment is  $\Delta x$ . Arrows indicate the direction of wave propagation:  $U_k^+(t)$  and  $U_{k+1}^+(t)$  represent waves moving to the right, while  $U_k^-(t)$  and  $U_{k+1}^-(t)$  represent waves moving to the left. At the interface, the incident wave  $U_k^+(t-\tau)$  splits into a transmitted wave  $U_{k+1}^+(t)$  and a reflected wave  $U_k^-(t+\tau)$ . The corresponding pressure variations are  $p_k(x, t)$  and  $p_{k+1}(x, t)$ .

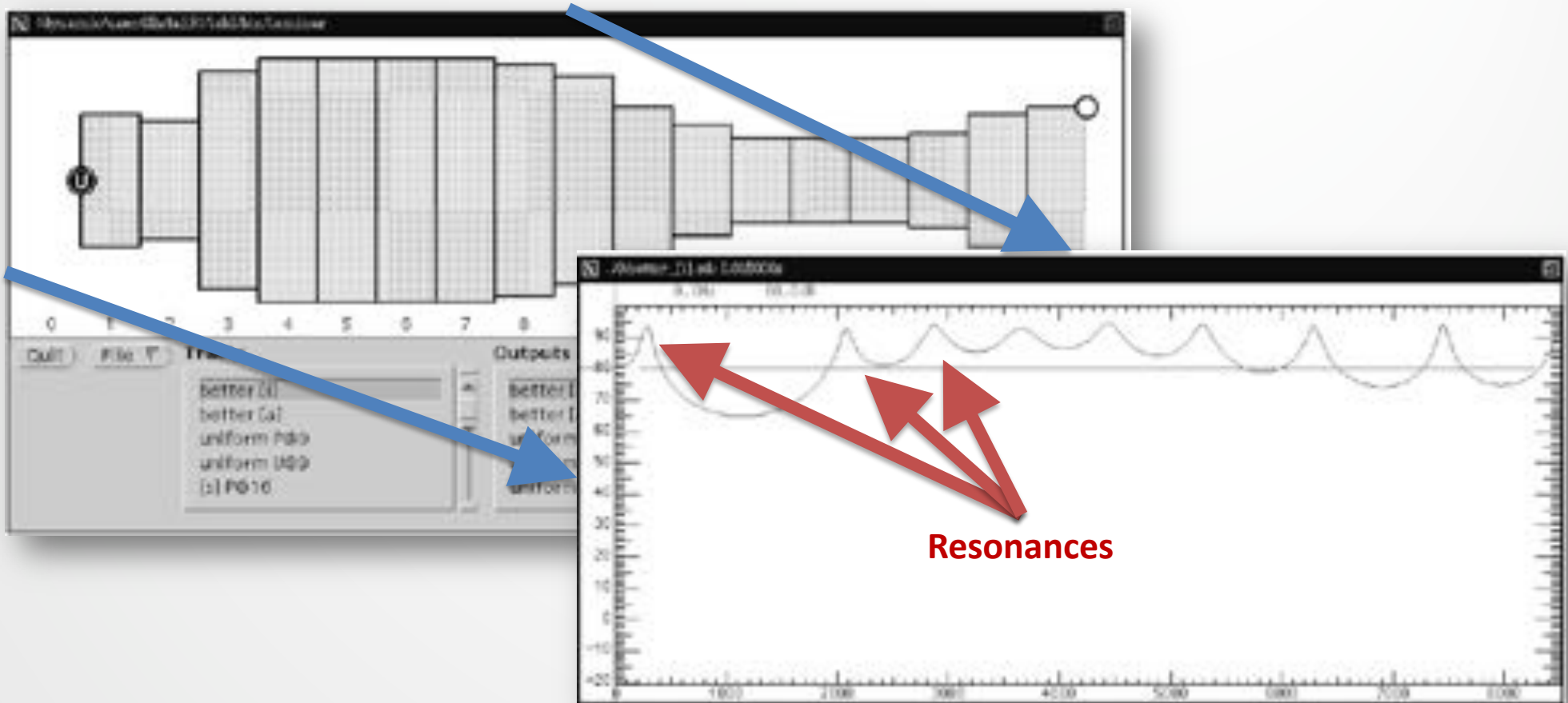
$$U_k(x, t) = U_k^+ \left( t - \frac{x}{c} \right) - U_k^- \left( t + \frac{x}{c} \right)$$

$$p_k(x, t) = \frac{\rho c}{A_k} \left[ U_k^+ \left( t - \frac{x}{c} \right) + U_k^- \left( t + \frac{x}{c} \right) \right]$$

where  
 $c$  is the speed of sound,  
 $\rho$  is the density of air.

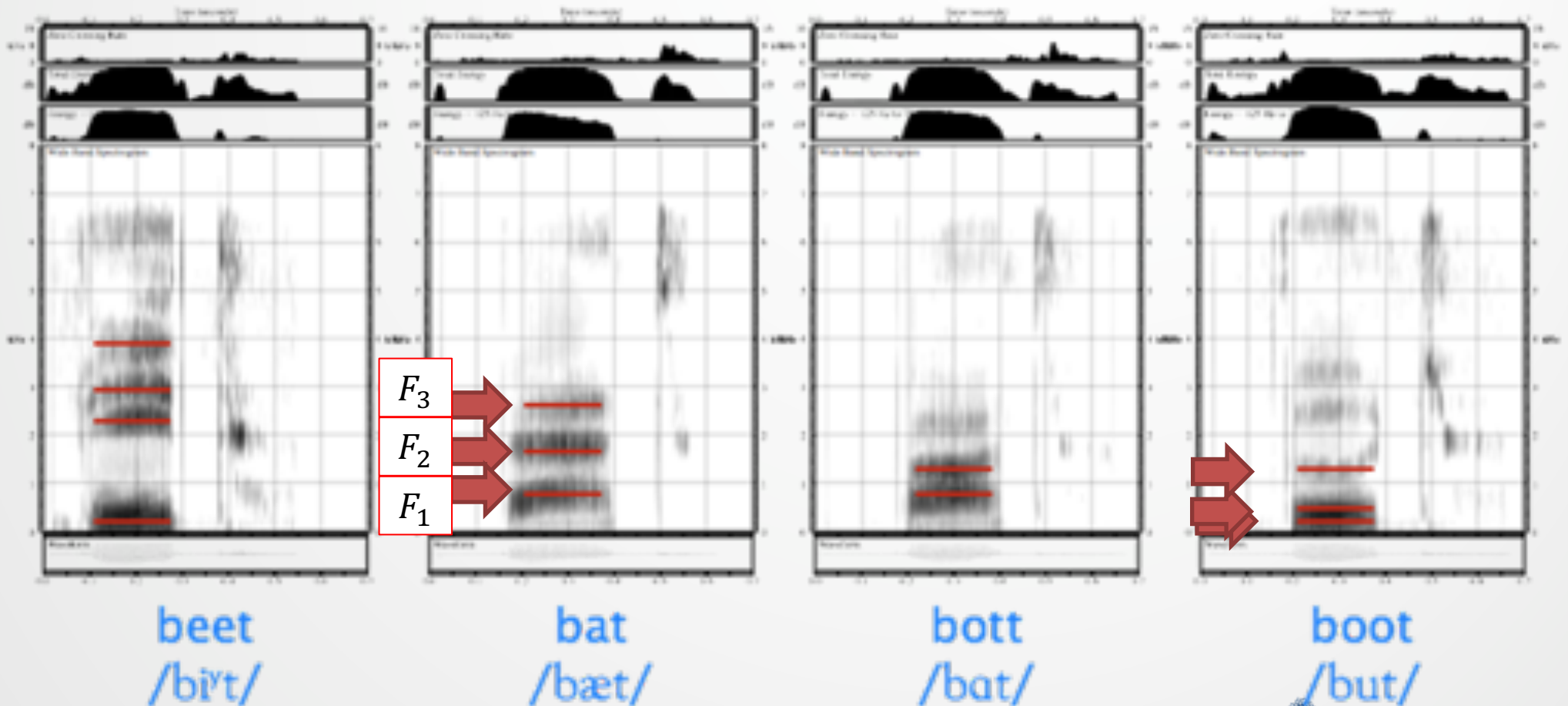
# Waves in concatenated tubes

- Because of partial wave **reflections** that occur at tube boundaries, we can generate spectra with particular **resonances**.

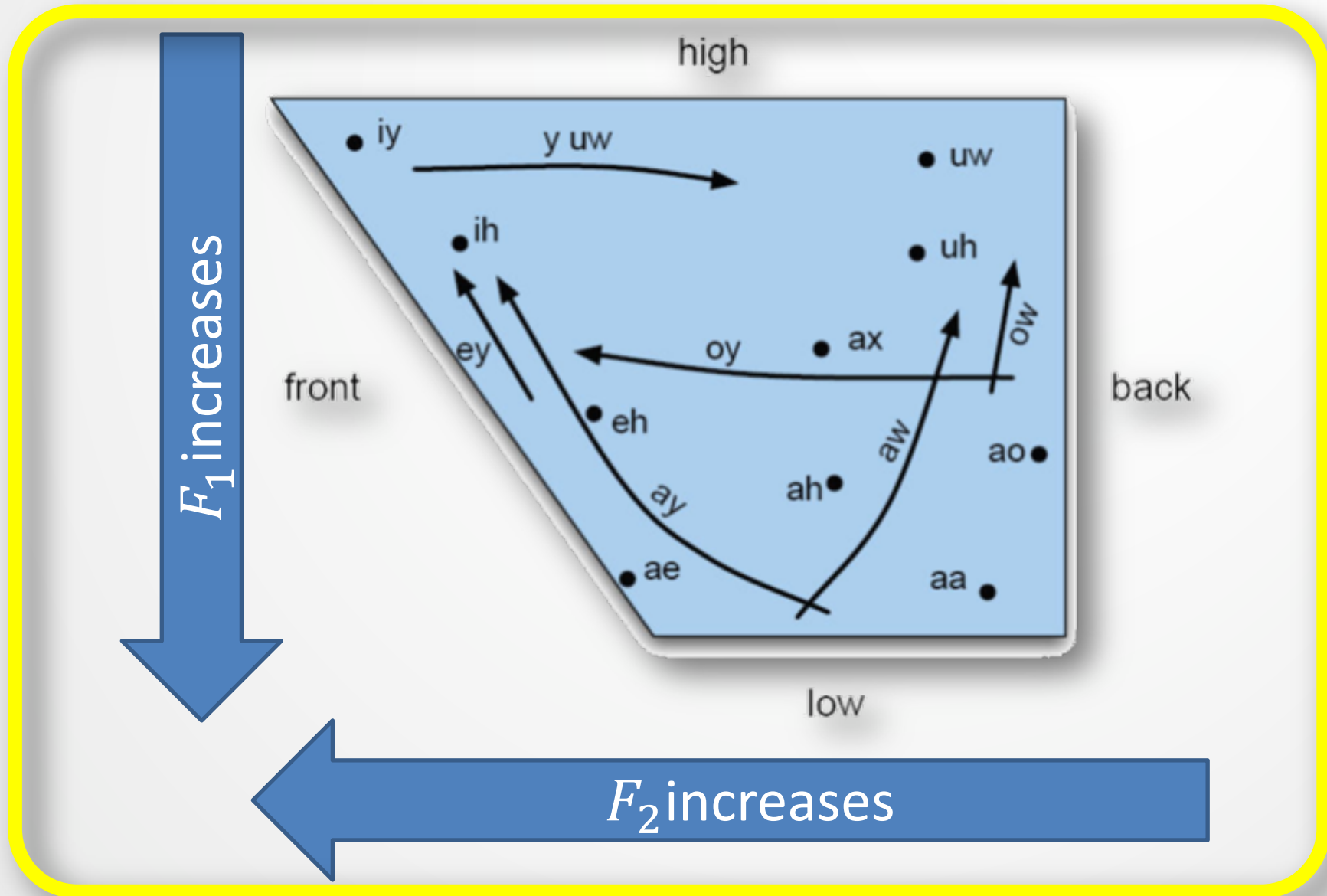


# Formants and vowels

- **Formant:** *n*. A concentration of energy within a frequency band. Ordered from low to high bands (e.g.,  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ ,  $F_3$ ).

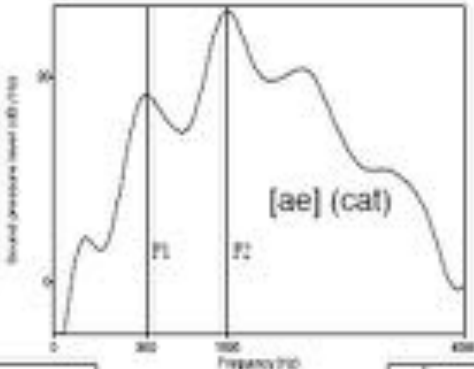


# The vowel trapezoid

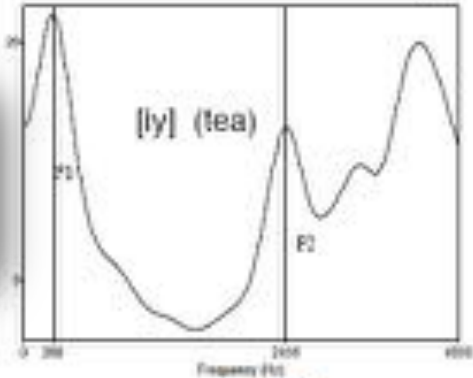


# Tongues and formants

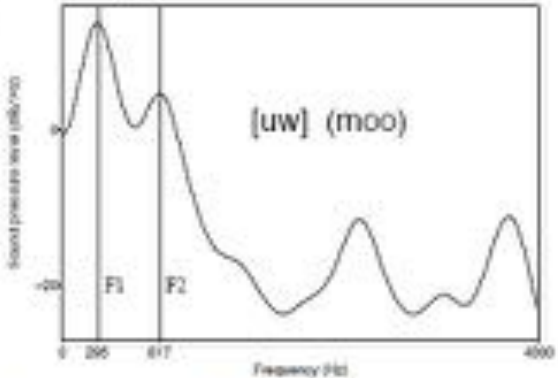
Front/  
low



Front/  
high



Back/  
high



[iy] (tea)



[ae] (cat)

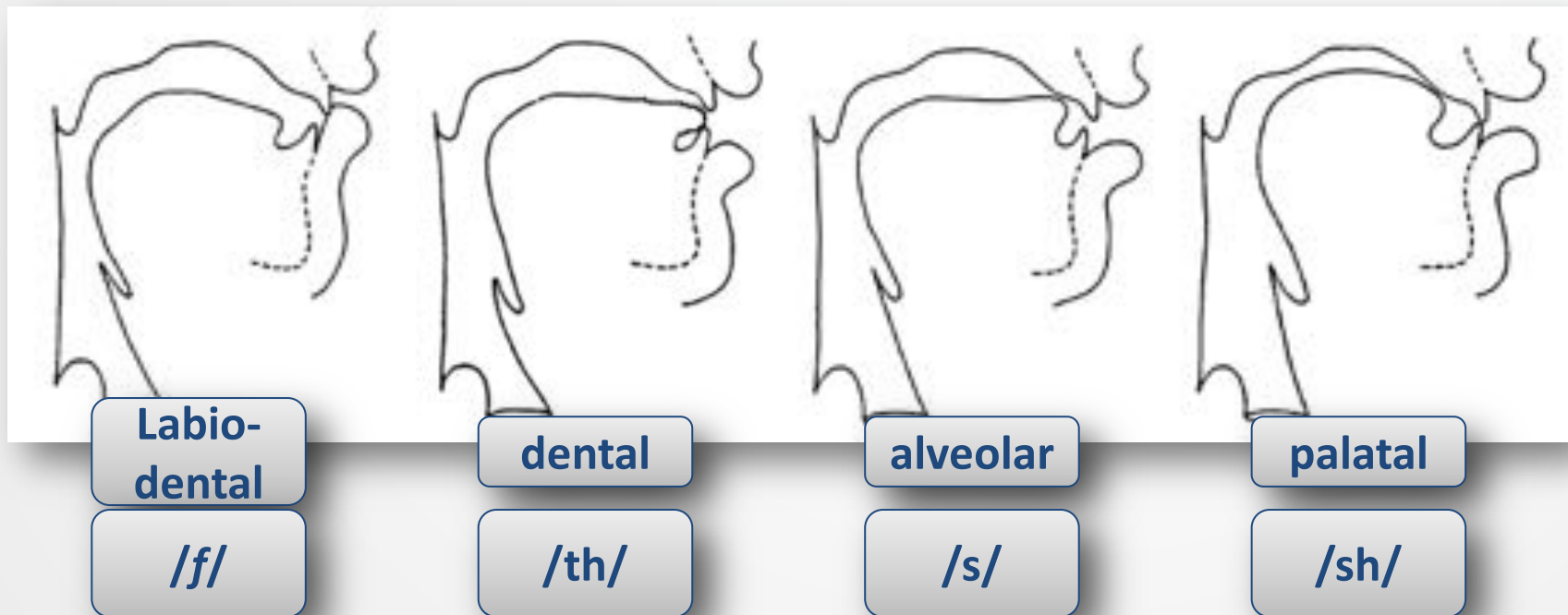


[uw] (moo)



# Fricatives (2/6)

- **Fricatives** are caused by acoustic turbulence at a **narrow constriction** whose position determines the sound.

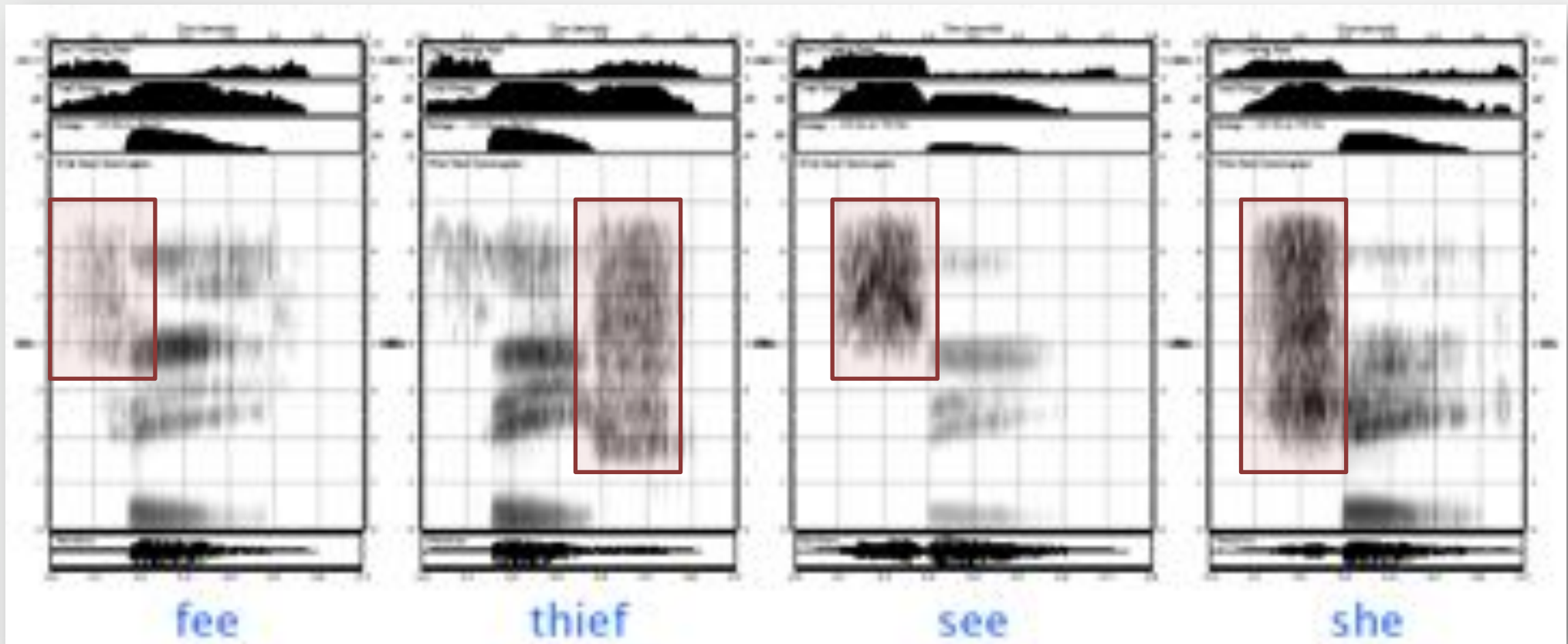


# Fricatives

- **Fricatives** have four places of articulation.
- Each place of articulation has a **voiced** fricative (i.e., the glottis can be vibrating), and an **unvoiced** fricative.

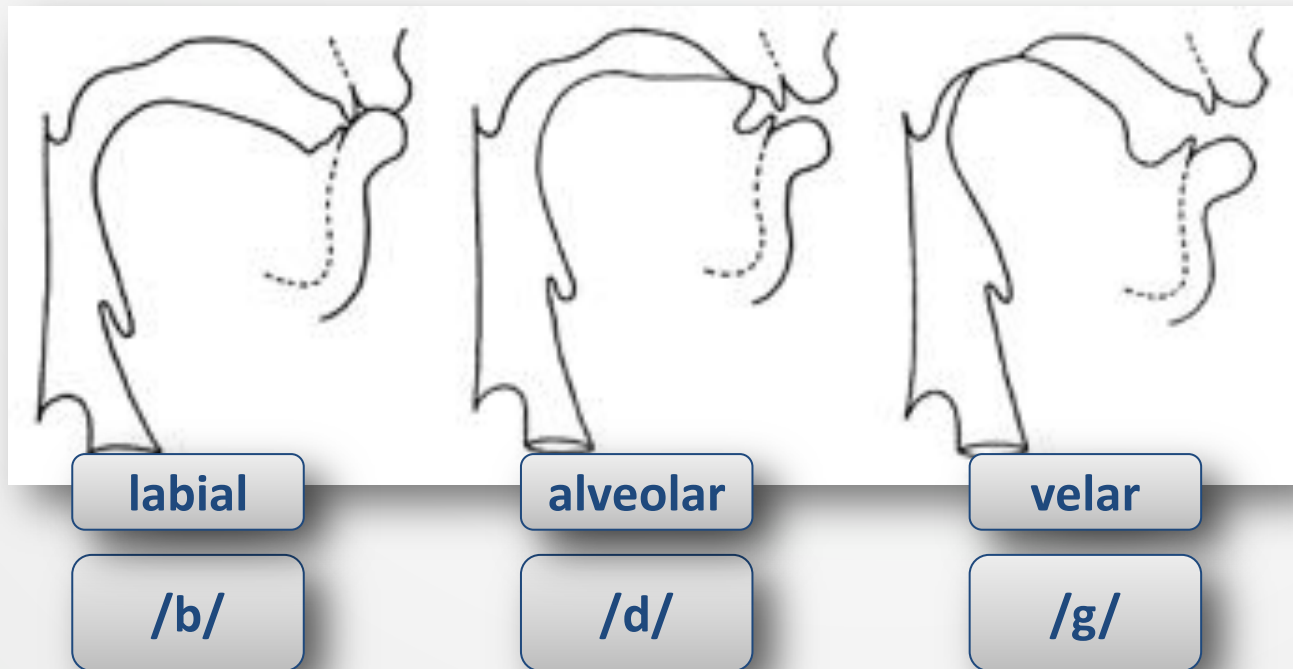
	Unvoiced		Voiced	
Labio-dental	/f/	<u>f</u> ee	/v/	<u>V</u> endetta
Dental	/θ/	<u>th</u> ief	/ð/	<u>Th</u> ee
Alveolar	/s/	<u>s</u> ee	/z/	<u>Z</u> ardo <u>z</u>
Palatal	/ʃ/	<u>sh</u> e	/ʒ/	<u>Zh</u> a- <u>zh</u> a

# Unvoiced fricatives



# Plosives (3/6)

- **Plosives** build pressure behind a **complete closure** in the vocal tract.
- A **sudden release** of this constriction results in **brief noise**.



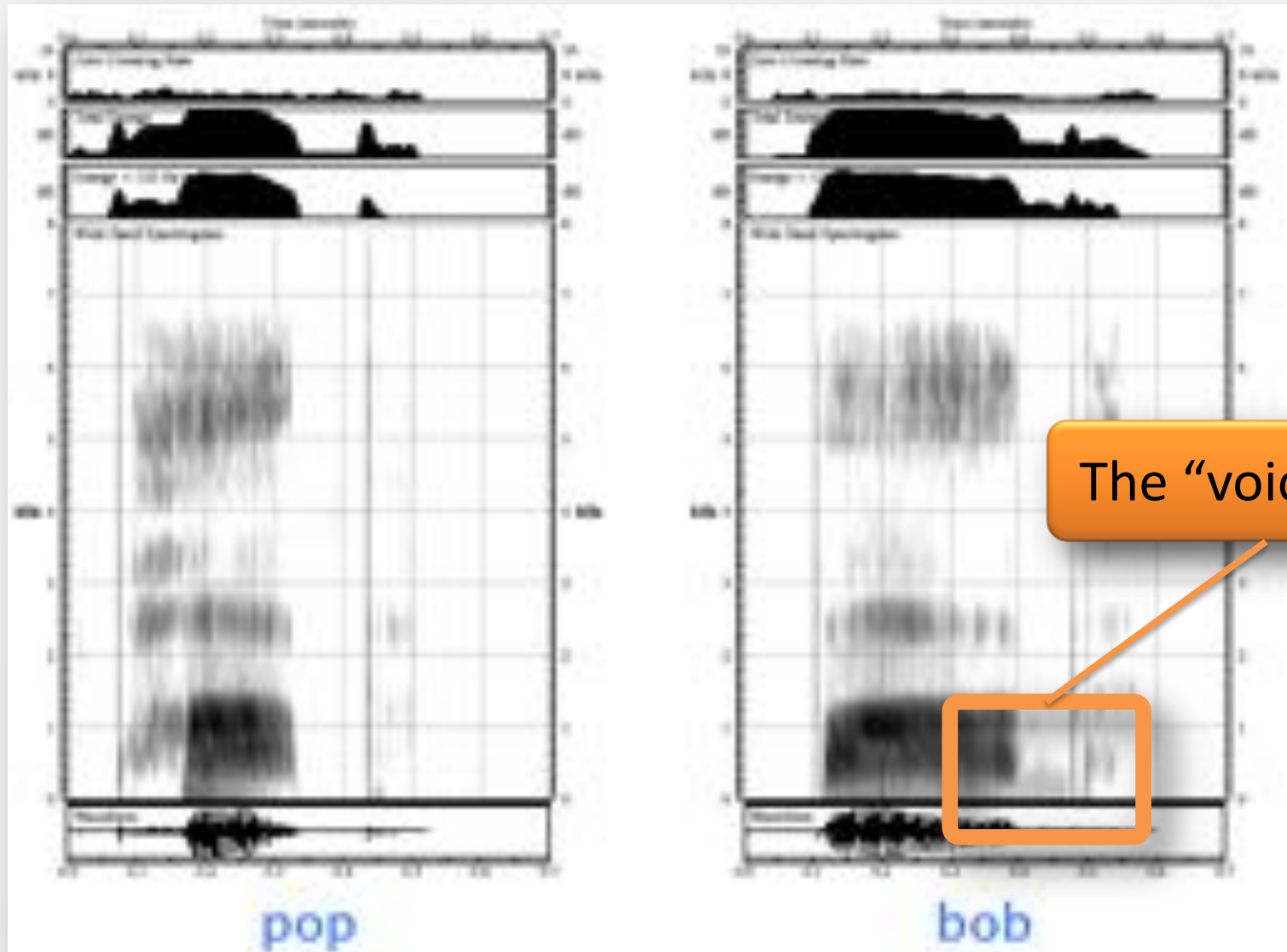
# Plosives

- **Plosives** have three places of articulation:

	Unvoiced		Voiced	
Labial	/p/	<u>p</u> or <u>p</u> oise	/b/	<u>b</u> a <u>b</u> oon
Alveolar	/t/	<u>t</u> or <u>t</u>	/d/	<u>d</u> o <u>d</u> o
Velar	/k/	<u>k</u> ic <u>k</u>	/g/	<u>G</u> oo <u>g</u> le

- **Voiced** stops are usually characterized by a “**voice bar**” during closure, indicating the vibrating glottis.
- Formant **transitions** are very **informative** in classification.

# Voicing in plosives

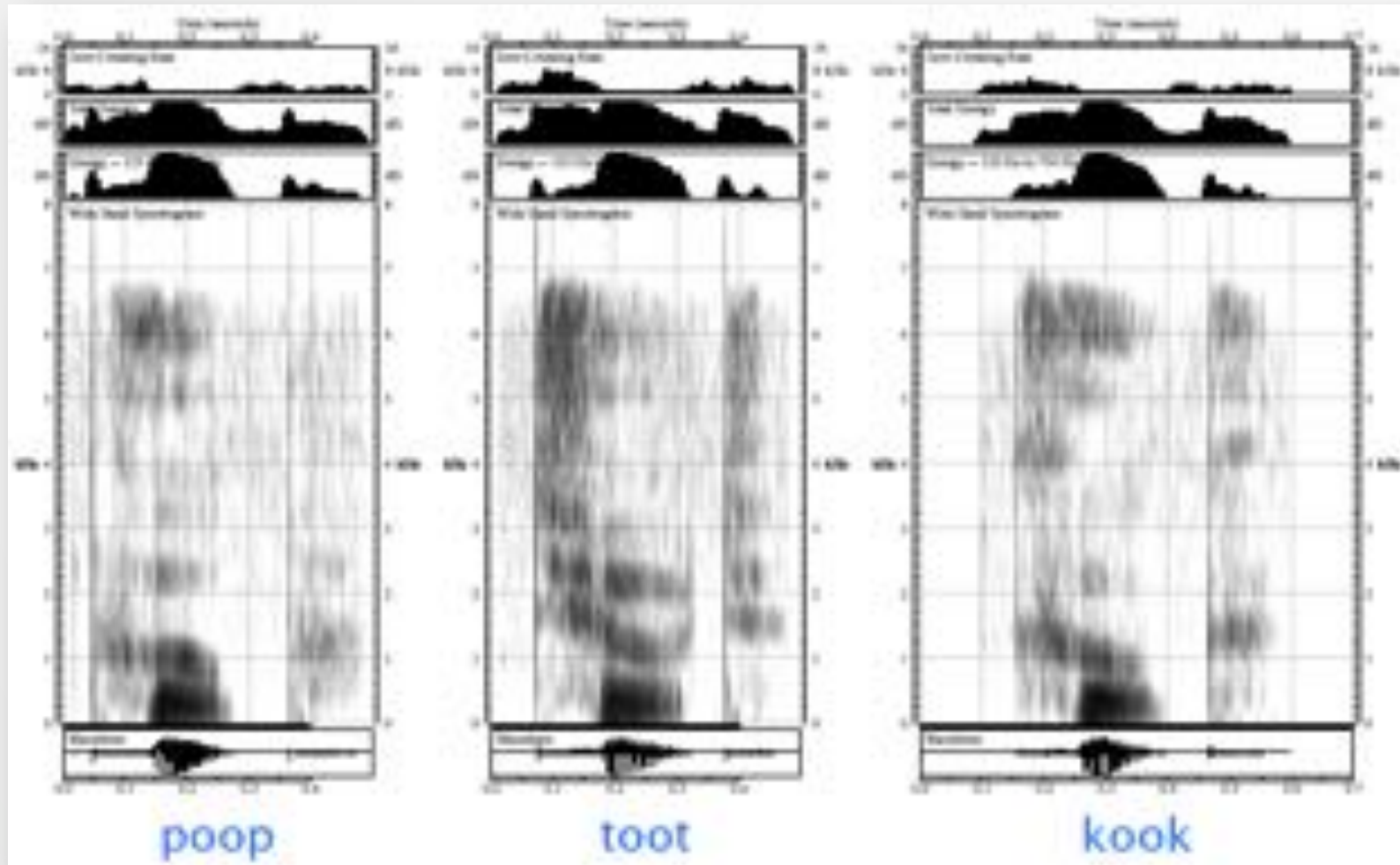


The "voice bar"





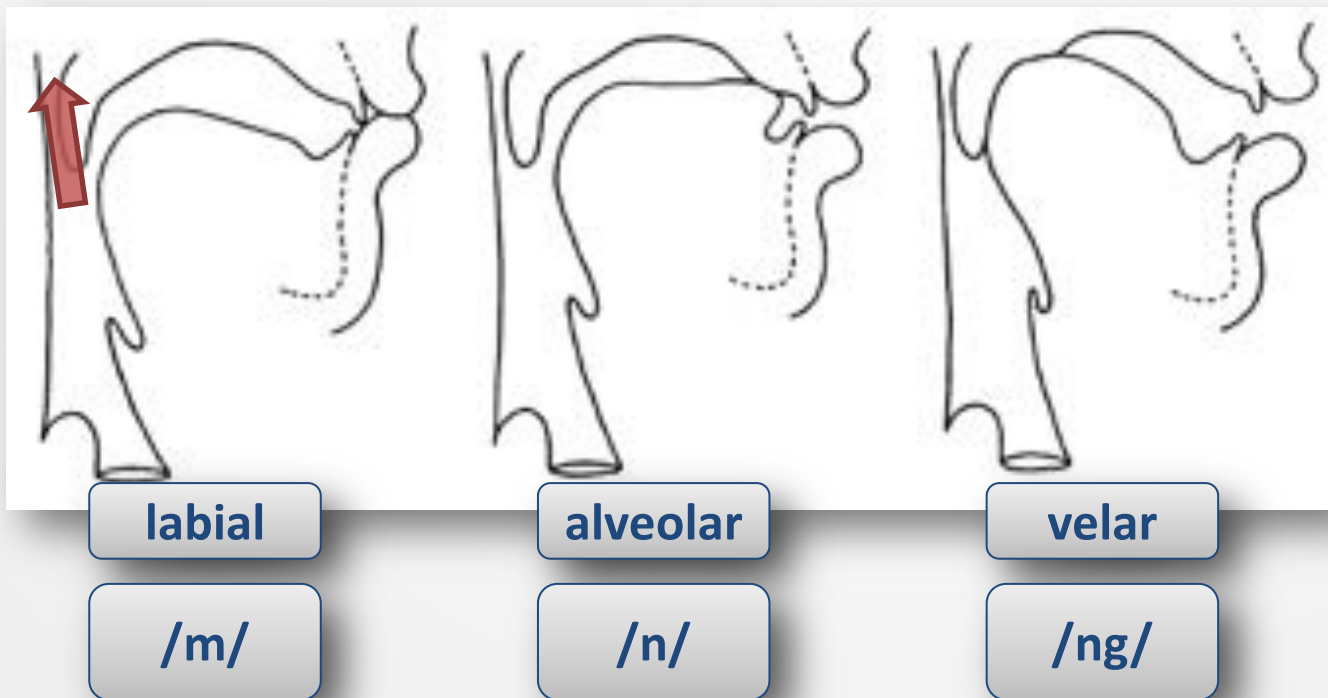
# Formant transitions in plosives



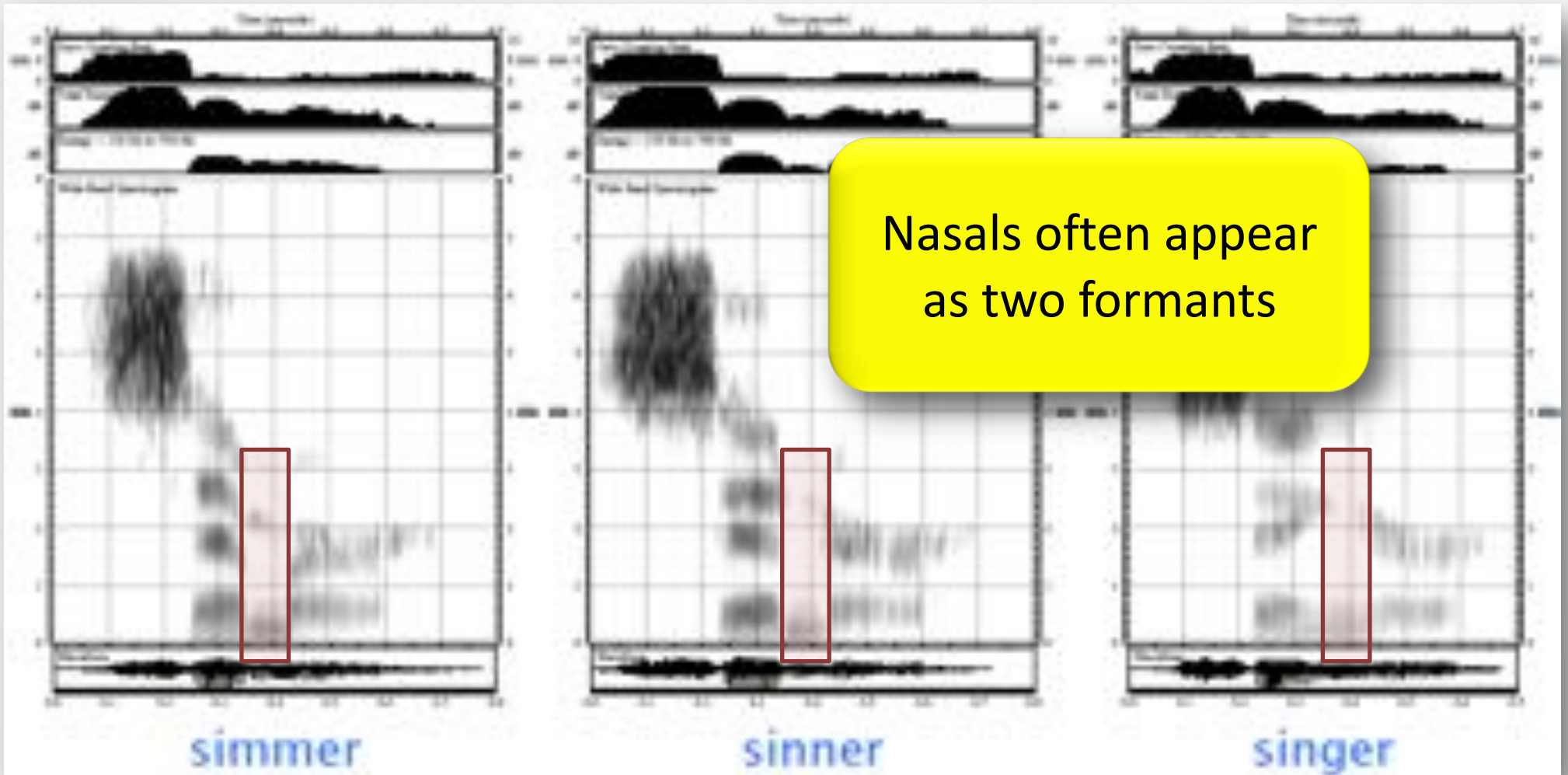
- Despite a **common** vowel, the **motion** of  $F_2$  and  $F_3$  into (and out of) the vowel helps identify the plosive.

# Nasals (4/6)

- **Nasals** involve lowering the velum so that air passes through the **nasal cavity**.
- **Closures** in the oral cavity (at same positions as plosives) change the resonant characteristics of the nasal sonorant.



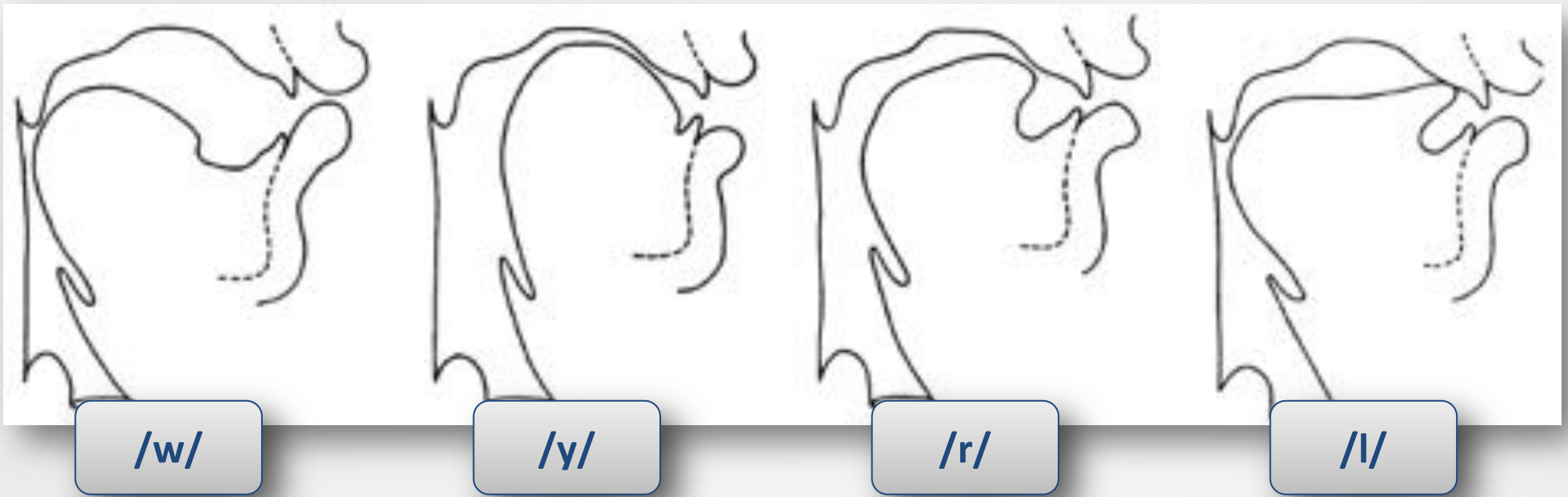
# Formant transitions among nasals



- Despite a common vowel, the motion of  $F_2$  and  $F_3$  before and after each nasal helps to identify it.

# Semivowels (5/6)

- **Semivowels** act as consonants in syllables and involve constriction in the vocal tract, but there is **less turbulence**.
  - They also involve slower articulatory motion.
- **Laterals** involve airflow around the **sides** of the tongue.



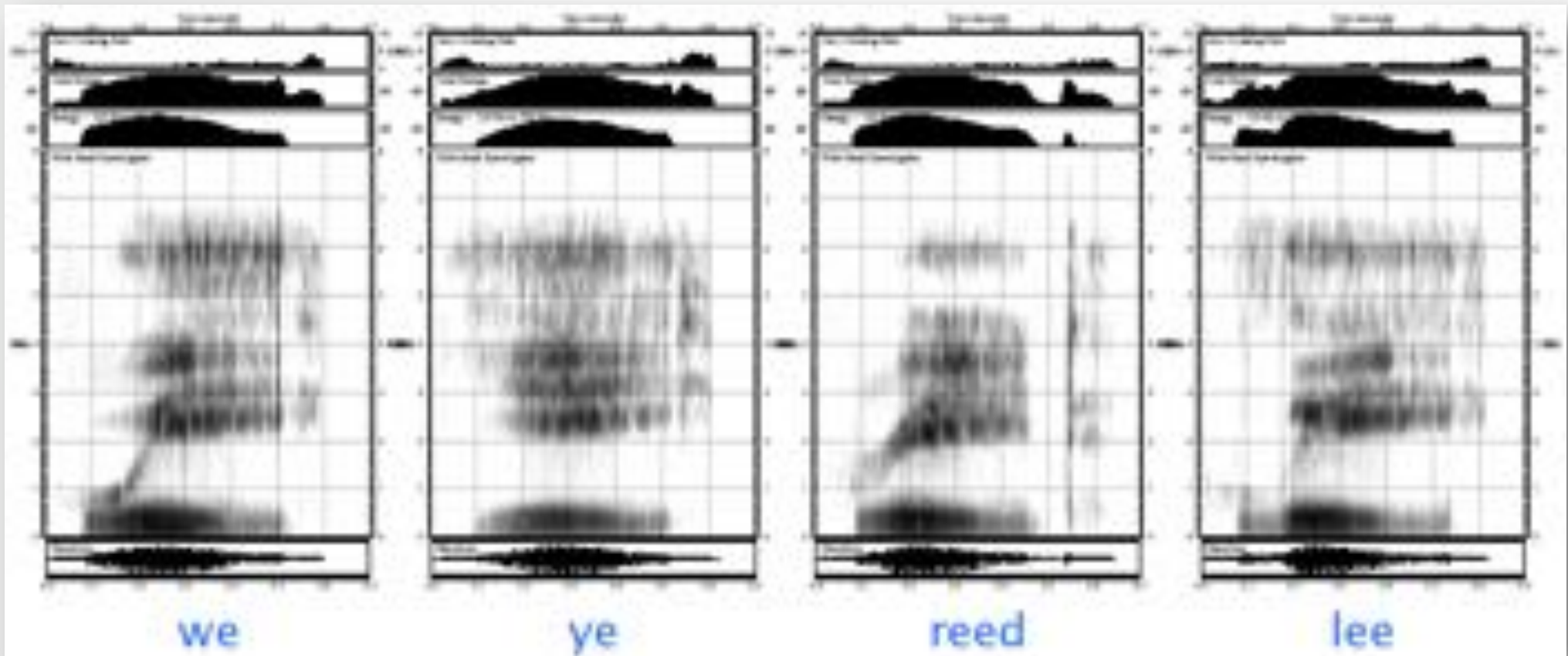
# Semivowels

- Semivowels are often sub-classified as glides or liquids.

	Semivowel		Nearest vowel
Glides	/w/	<u>W</u> ow	/uw/
	/y/	y <u>o</u> y	/iy/
Liquids	/r/	<u>r</u> ear	/er/
	/l/	<u>L</u> u <u>l</u> u	/ow/

- Semivowels are more constricted versions of corresponding vowels.
  - Similar formants, though generally weaker.

# Semivowels



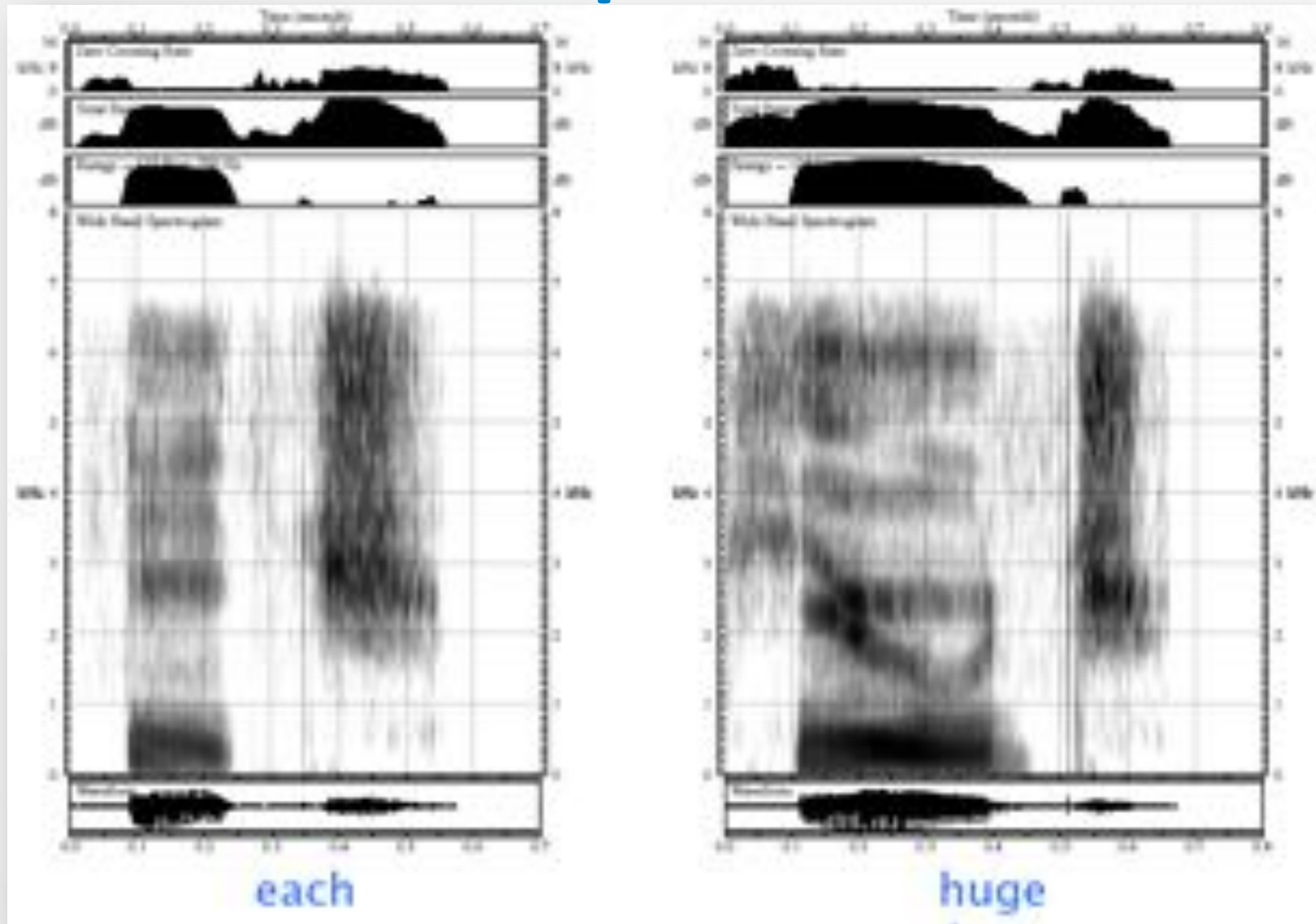
- Note the drastic formant transitions which are more typical of semivowels.



# Affricates and aspirants (6/6)

- There are two **affricates**: /jh/ (voiced; e.g., *judge*) and /ch/ (unvoiced; e.g., *church*).
  - These involve an **alveolar stop** followed by a **fricative**.
  - Voicing in /jh/ is normally indicated by voice bars, as with plosives.
- There's only one **aspirant** in Canadian English: /h/ (e.g., *hat*)
  - This involves turbulence generated at the **glottis**,
  - In Canadian English, there is **no** constriction in the vocal tract.

# Affricates and aspirants



# Alternative pronunciations

- **Pronunciations** of words can vary significantly, but with observable **frequencies**.
  - The **Switchboard** corpus is a phonetically annotated database of speech recorded in telephone conversations.

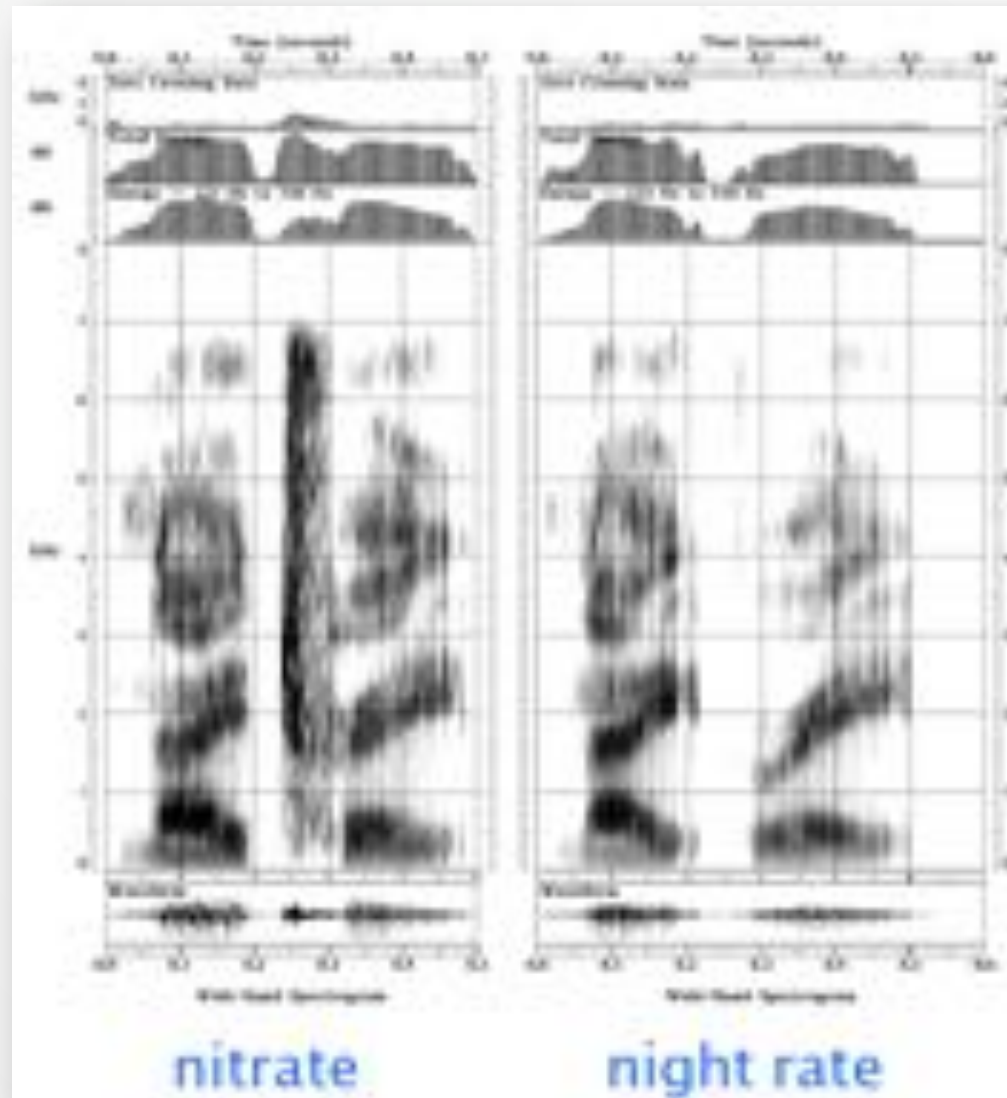
because				about			
ARPAbet	%	ARPAbet	%	ARPAbet	%	ARPAbet	%
b iy k ah z	27%	k s	2%	ax b aw	32%	b ae	3%
b ix k ah z	14%	k ix z	2%	ax b aw t	16%	b aw t	3%
k ah z	7%	k ih z	2%	b aw	9%	ax b aw dx	3%
k ax z	5%	b iy k ah zh	2%	ix b aw	8%	ax b ae	3%
b ix k ax z	4%	b iy k ah s	2%	ix b aw t	5%	b aa	3%
b ih k ah z	3%	b iy k ah	2%	ix b ae	4%	b ae dx	3%
b ax k ah z	3%	b iy k aa z	2%	ax b ae dx	3%	ix b aw dx	2%
k uh z	2%	ax z	2%	b aw dx	3%	ix b aa t	2%

# Known effects of pronunciation

- Speakers tend to **drop** or **change** pronunciations in **predictable** ways in order to reduce the effort required to **co-ordinate** the various articulators.
  - **Palatalization** generally refers to a **conflation** of phonemes closer to the frontal palate than they 'should' be.
  - **Final t/d deletion** is simply the **omission** of alveolar plosives from the ends of words.

Phrase	Palatalization		Phrase	Final t/d Deletion	
	Lexical	Reduced		Lexical	Reduced
set your	s eh t y ow r	s eh ch er	find him	f ay n d h ih m	f ay n ix m
not yet	n aa t y eh t	n aa ch eh t	and we	ae n d w iy	eh n w iy
did you	d ih d y uw	d ih jh y ah	draft the	d r ae f t dh iy	d r ae f dh iy

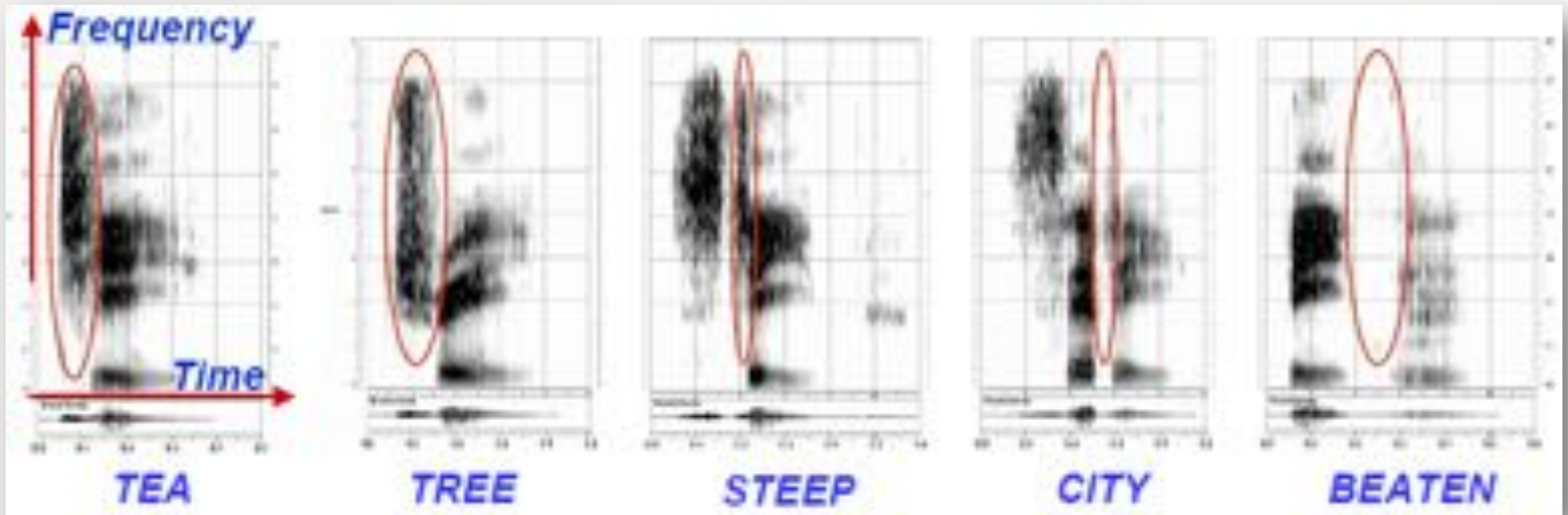
# Variation at syllable boundaries





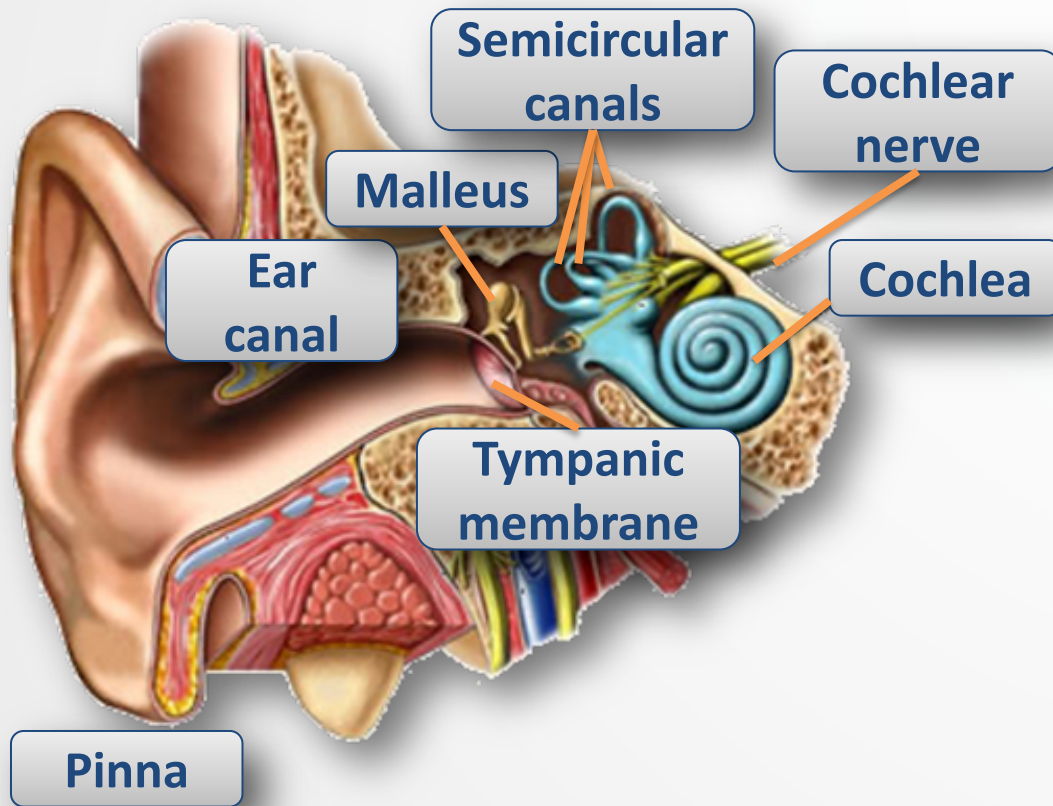
# Phonological variation

- The acoustics of a phoneme depend strongly on the **context** in which that phoneme occurs.



*That must make **recognizing** phonemes hard, right?  
How do humans do it?*

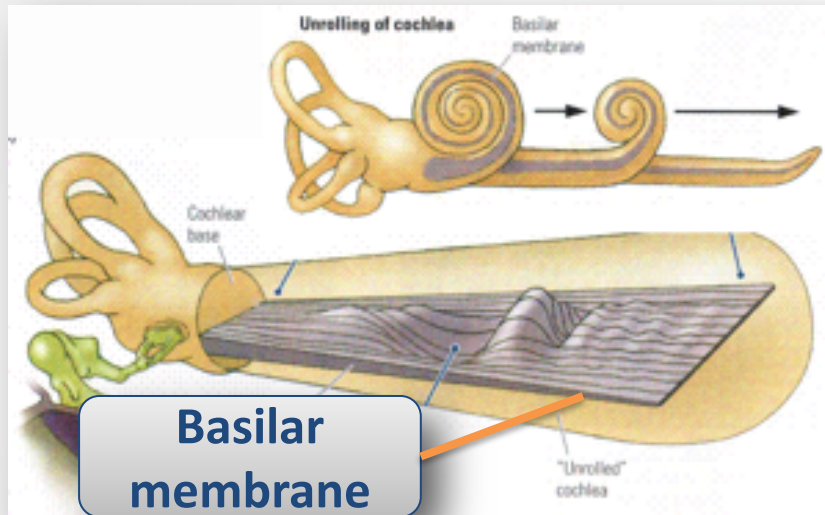
# The inner ear



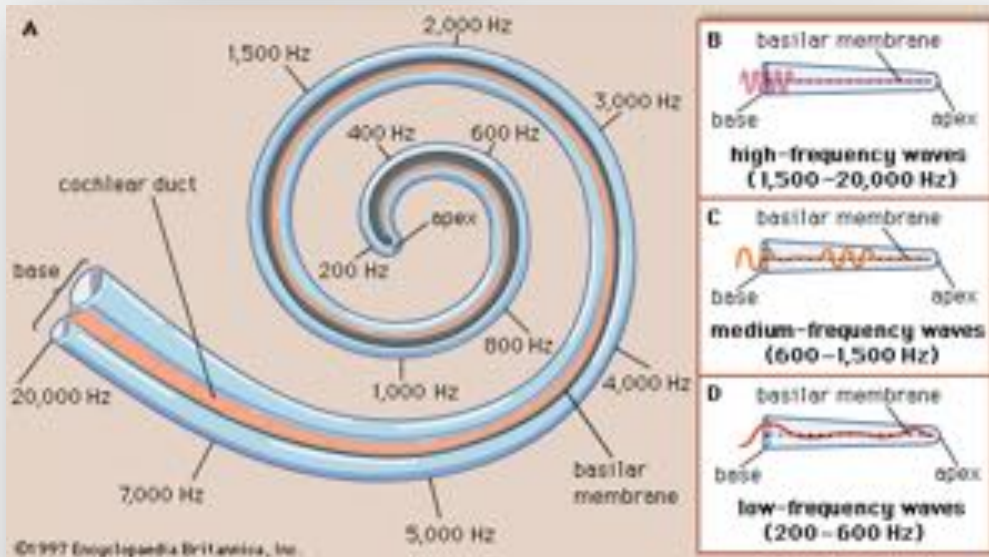
- Time-variant waves enter the ear, vibrating the **tympanic membrane**.
- This membrane causes tiny bones (incl. **malleus**) to vibrate.
- These bones in turn vibrate a structure within a shell-shaped bony structure called the **cochlea**.



# The cochlea and basilar membrane



- The **basilar membrane** is covered with tiny hair-like nerves – some near the **base**, some near the **apex**.
- **High** frequencies are picked up near the base, **low** frequencies near the apex.
- These nerves fire when activated, and communicate to the brain.

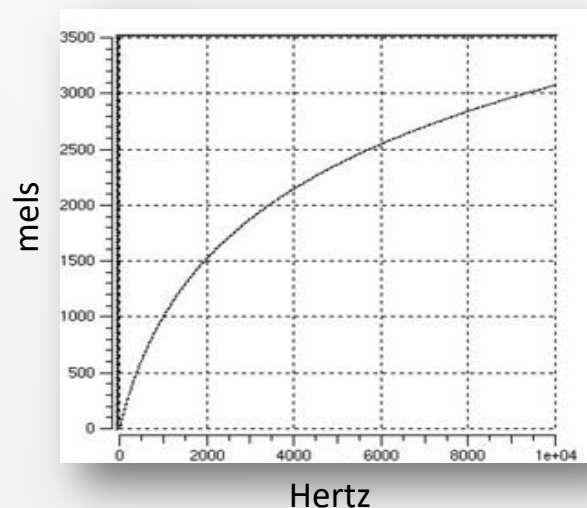


# The Mel-scale

- Human hearing is **not** equally sensitive to **all** frequencies.
  - We are **less** sensitive to frequencies  $> 1$  kHz.
- A **mel** is a unit of pitch. Pairs of sounds which are **perceptually** equidistant in pitch are separated by an equal number of **mels**.

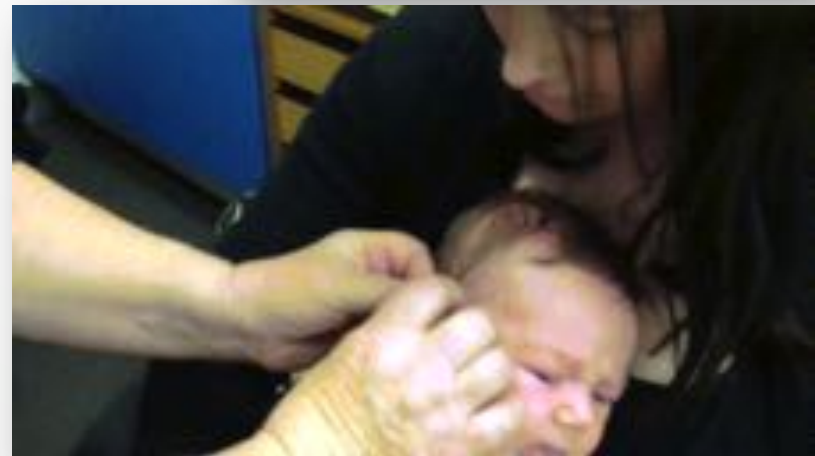
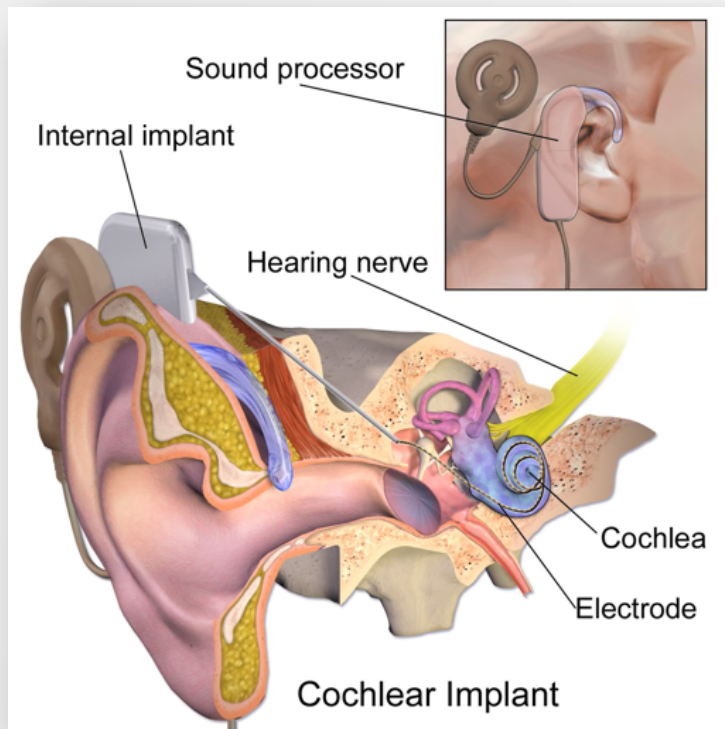
$$Mel(f) = 2595 \log_{10} \left( 1 + \frac{f}{700} \right)$$

(No need to  
memorize this  
either)



# Aside – Challenges of perception

- **Cochlear implants** replace the basilar membrane and stimulate the auditory nerve directly.



# Next...

- How the Mel scale is used in ASR.
- Automatic speech recognition.