

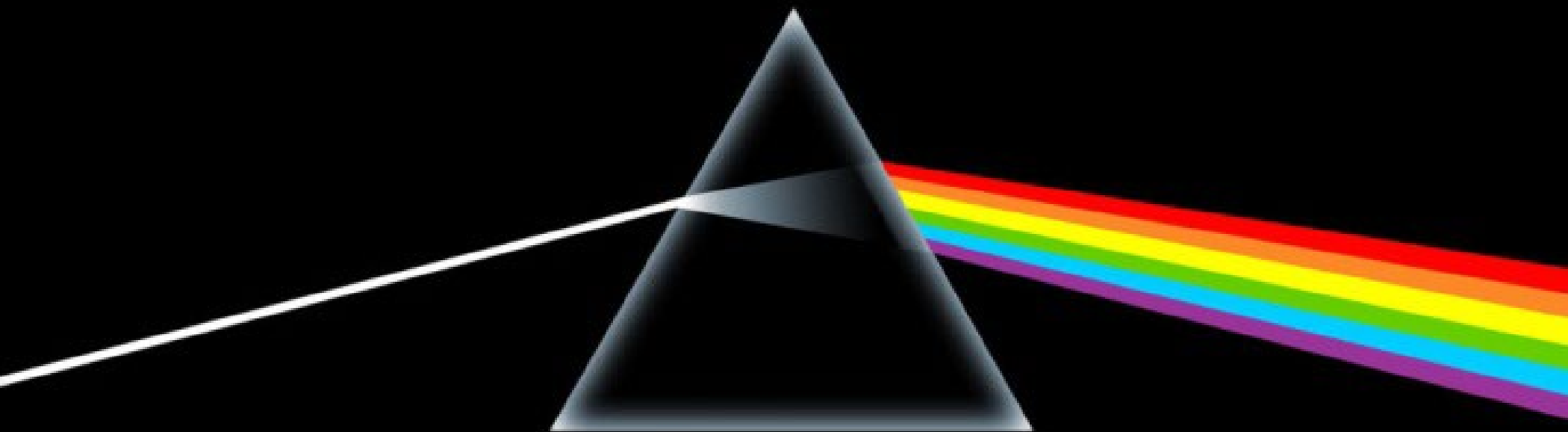


Speech

CSC401/2511 – Natural Language Computing – Winter 2024

Lecture 8

University of Toronto



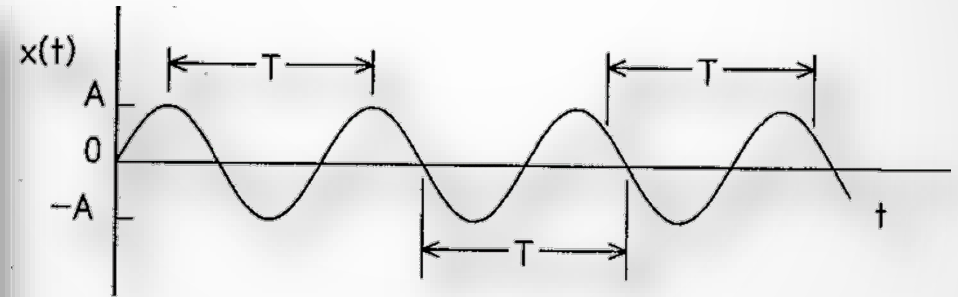
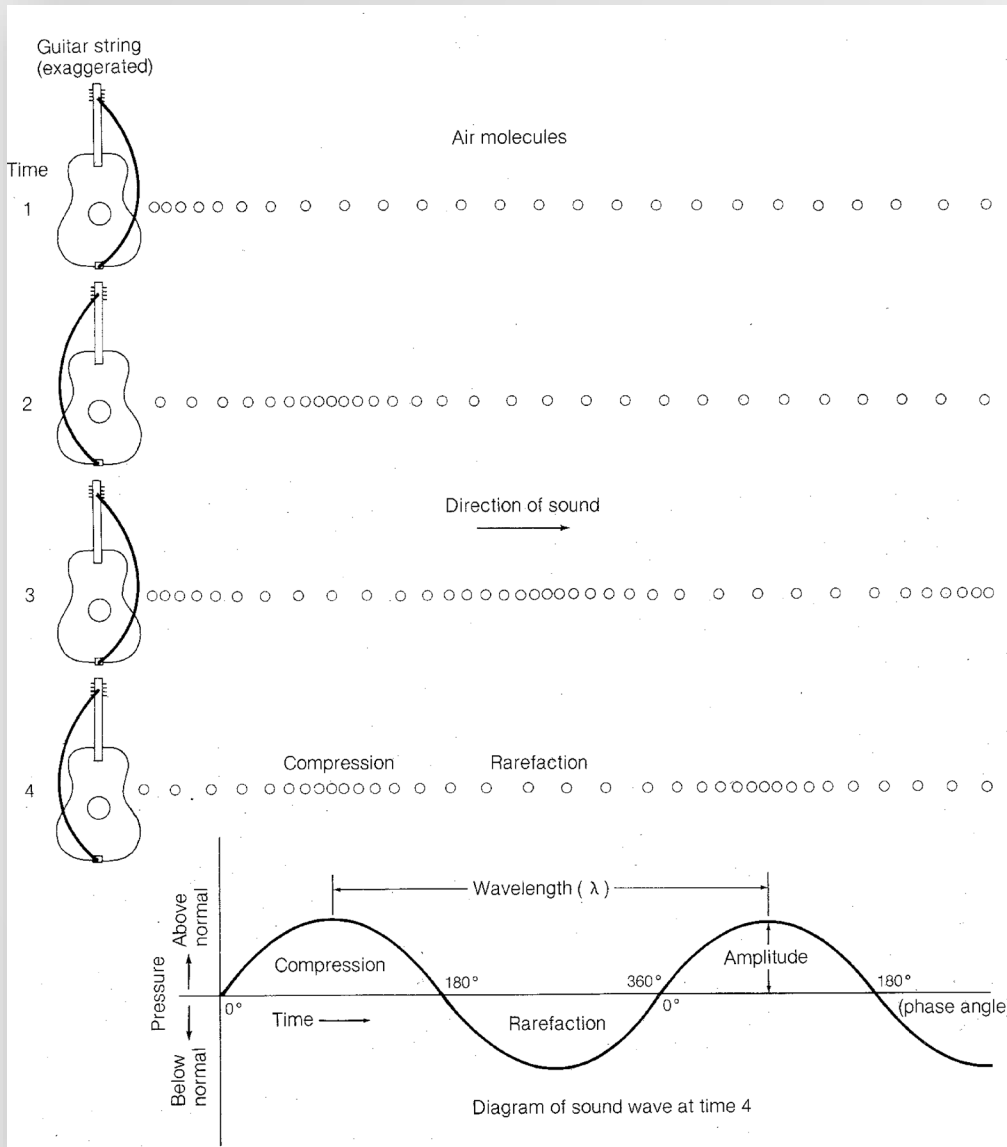
Speech signals

What is sound?

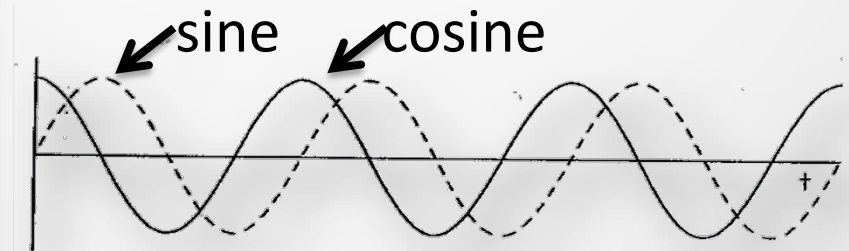
- **Sound** is a time-variant pressure wave created by a vibration.
 - Air particles **hit** each other, setting others in motion.
 - High pressure \equiv **compressions** in the air (C).
 - Low pressure \equiv **rarefactions** within the air (R).



What is sound?



Frequency $F = 1/T$

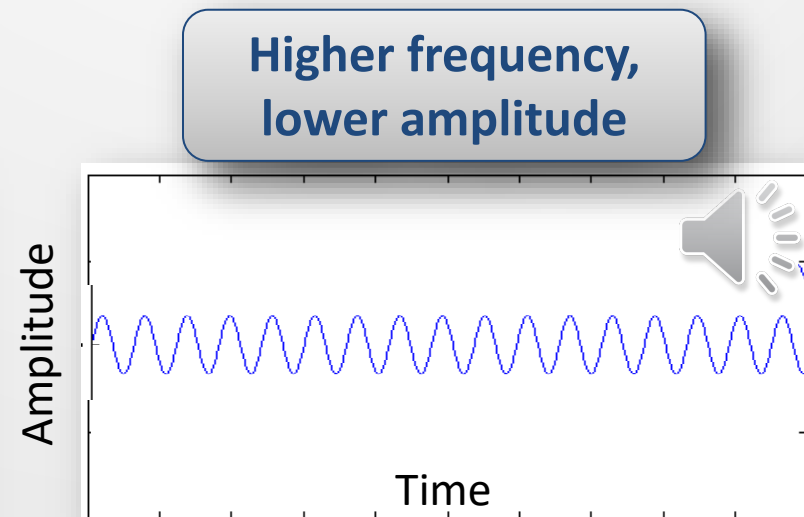
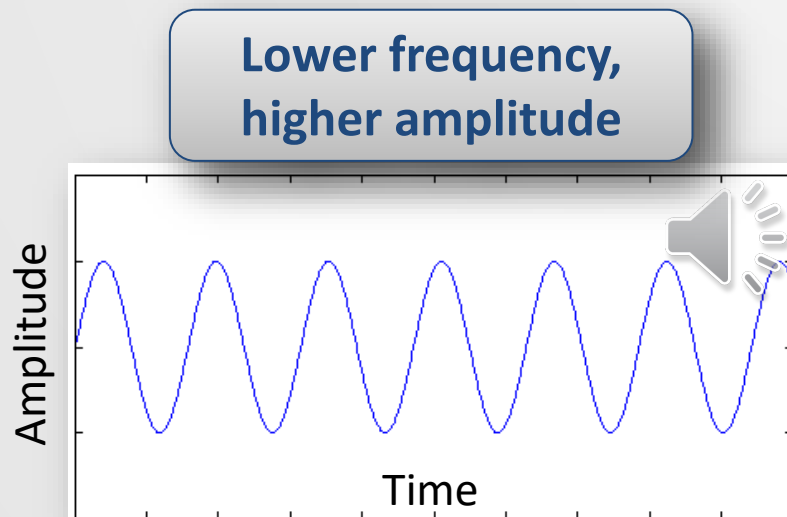


phase ϕ is displacement of a signal in time. E.g., with $\phi = \pi/2$,

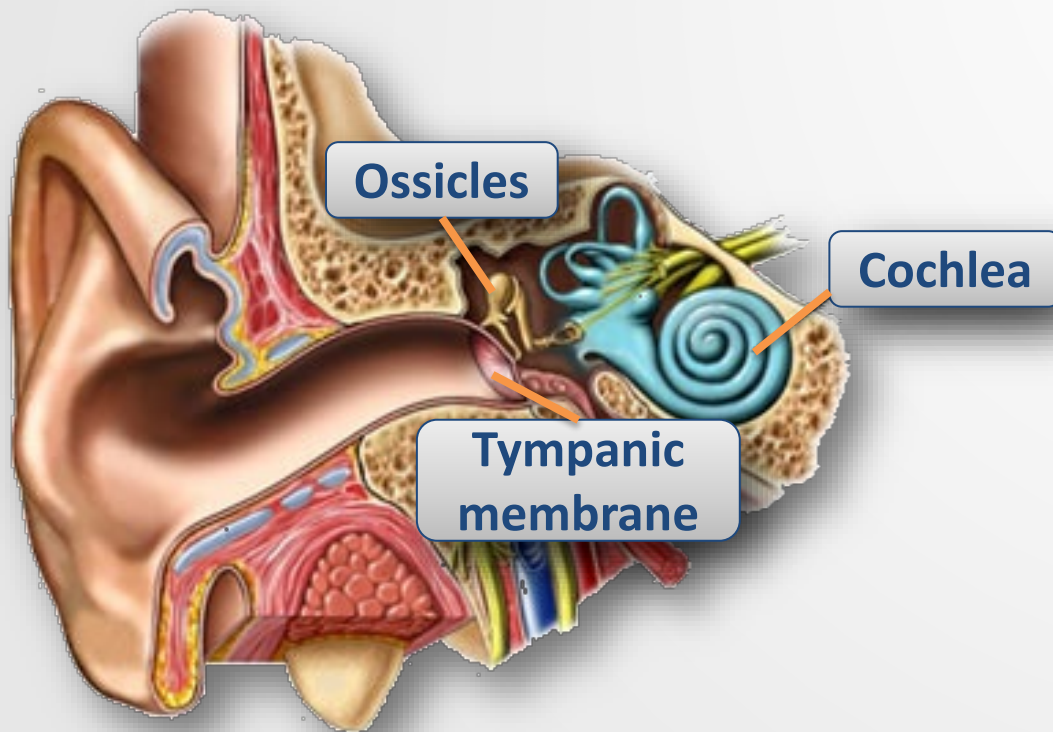
$$\sin(x + \phi) = \cos(x)$$

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'.
 - **Frequency:** n . The number of cycles within a unit of time. e.g., **1 Hertz (Hz) = 1 oscillation/second**

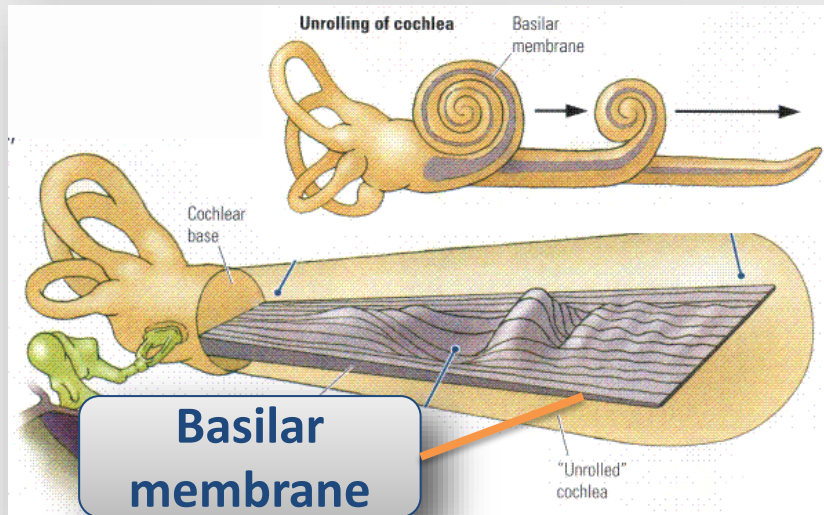


The inner ear

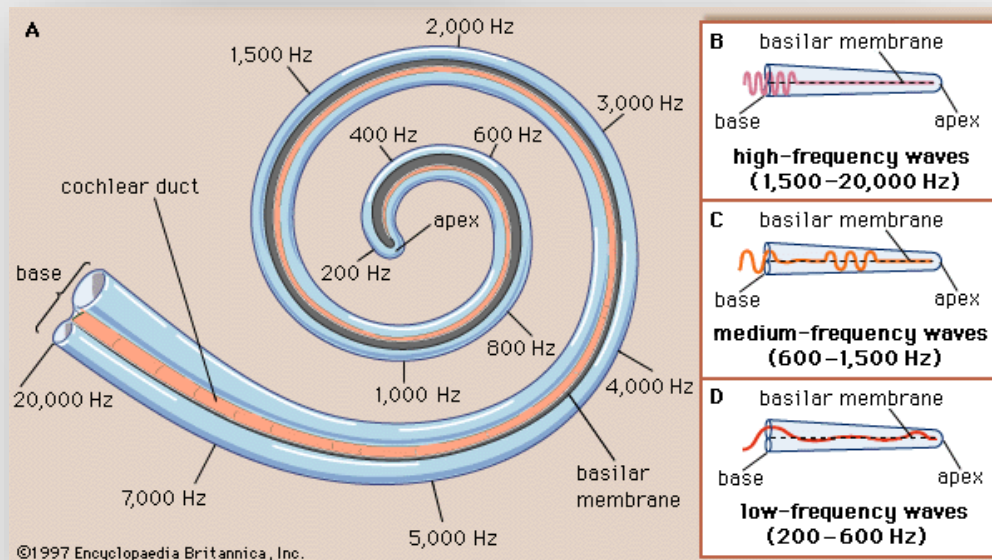


- Time-variant waves enter the ear, vibrating the **tympanic membrane**.
- This membrane causes tiny bones (the **ossicles**) to vibrate.
- These bones in turn vibrate a structure within a shell-shaped bony structure called the **cochlea**.

The cochlea and basilar membrane



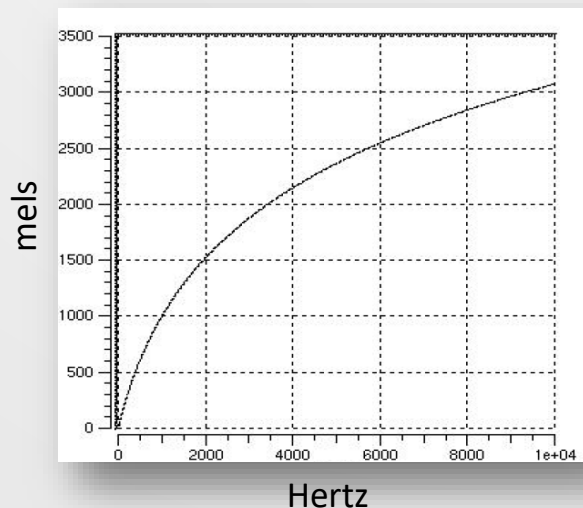
- The **basilar membrane** is covered with tiny hair-like nerves – some near the **base**, some near the **apex**.
- **High** frequencies are picked up near the base, **low** frequencies near the apex.
- These nerves fire when activated, and communicate to the brain.



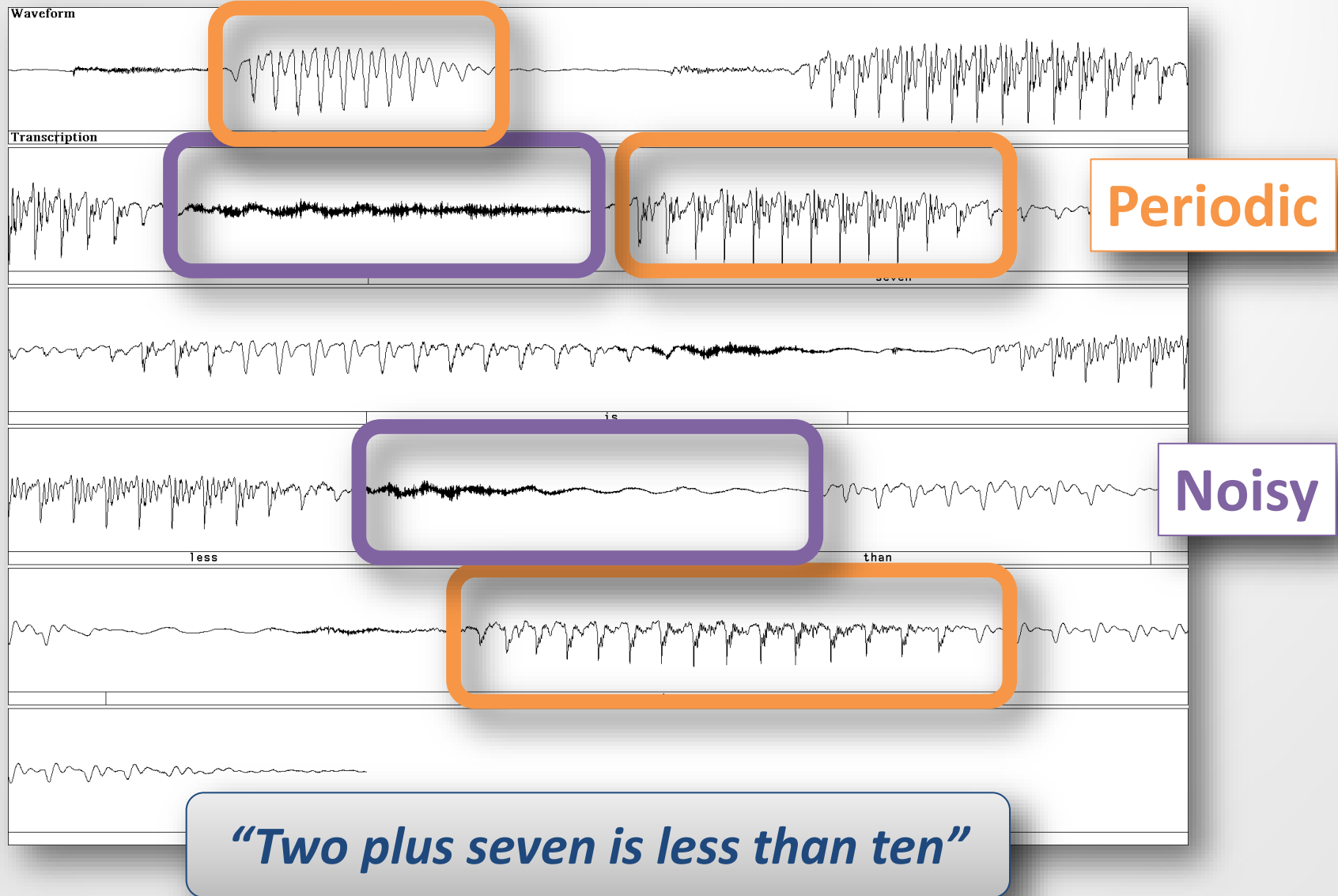
The Mel-scale

- 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**.

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

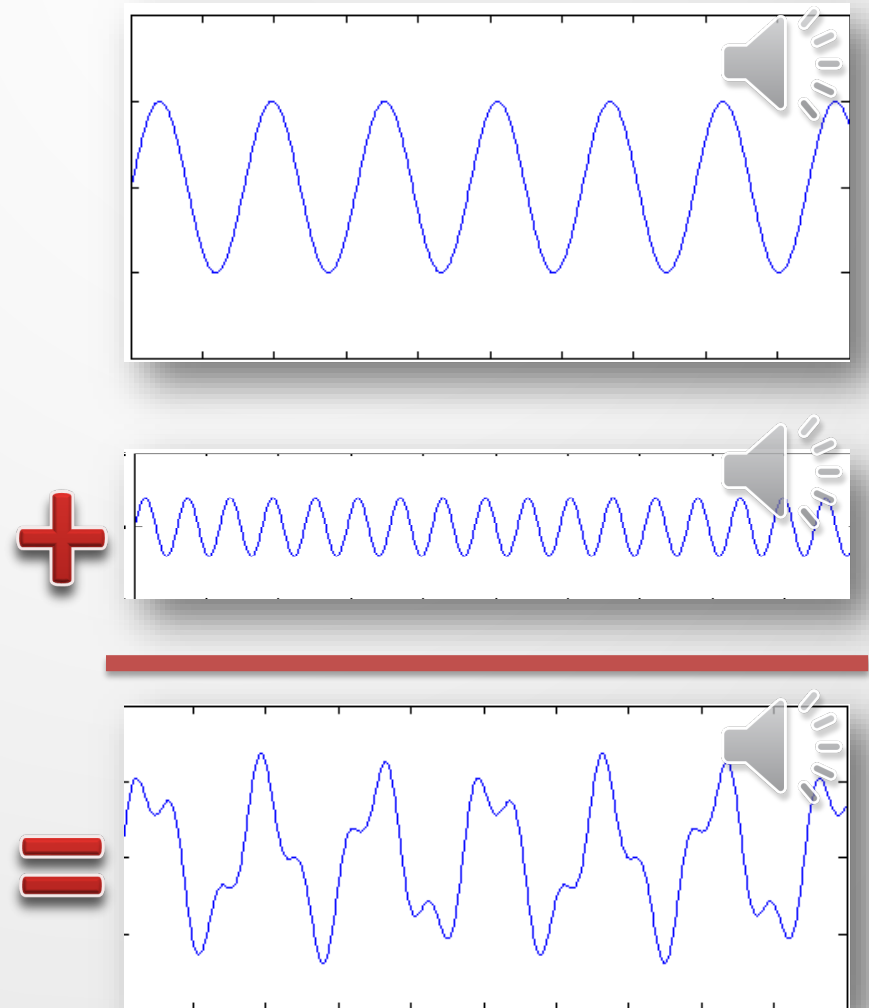
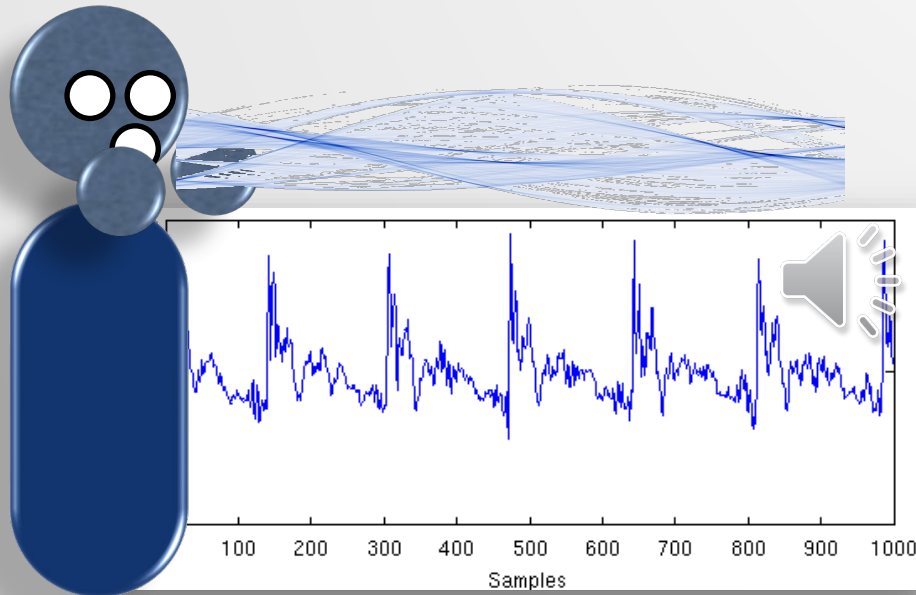


Speech waveforms



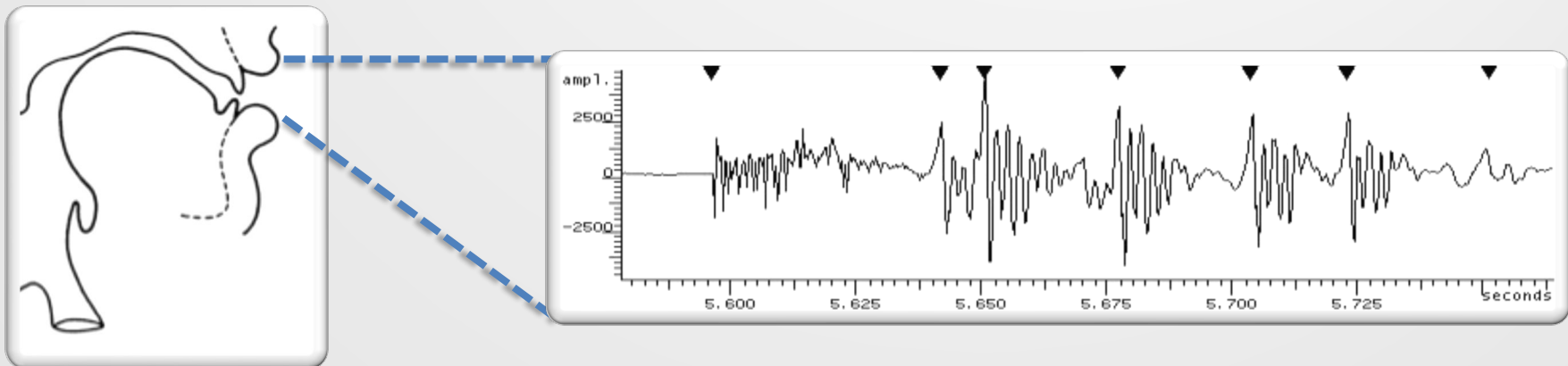
Superposition of sinusoids

- **Superposition:** *n.* the adding of sinusoids together.

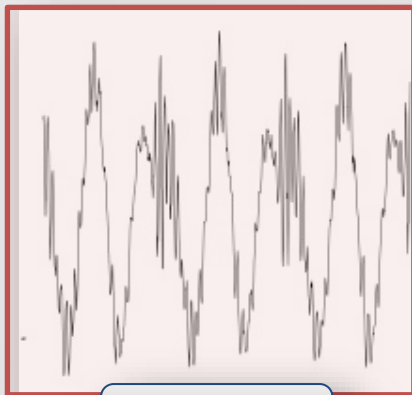
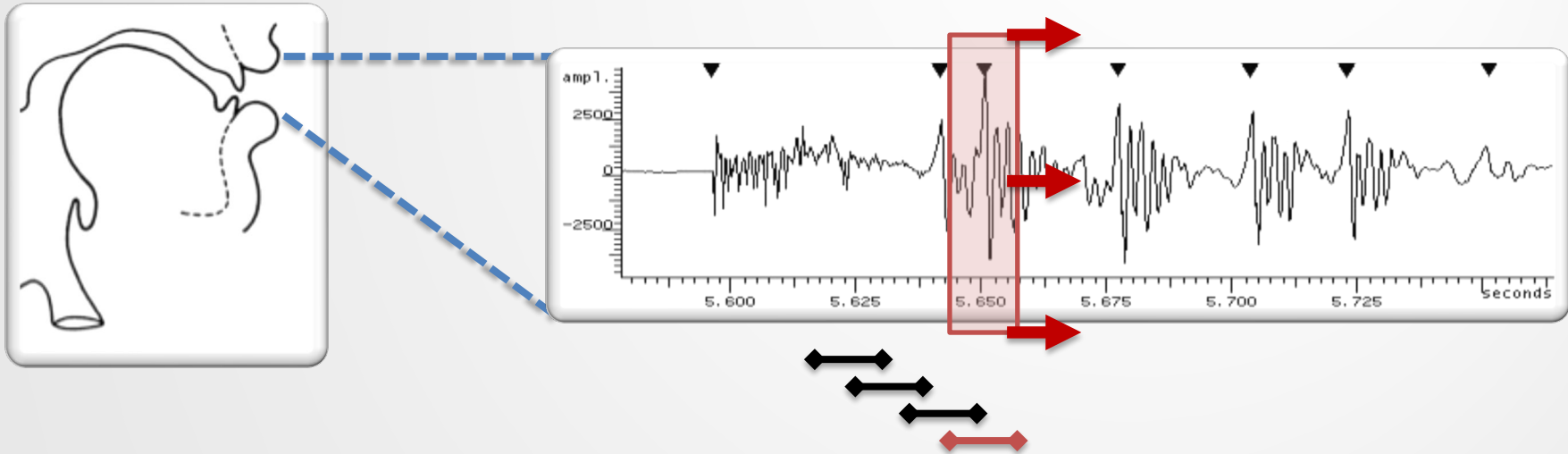


Extracting sinusoids from waveforms

- 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)...



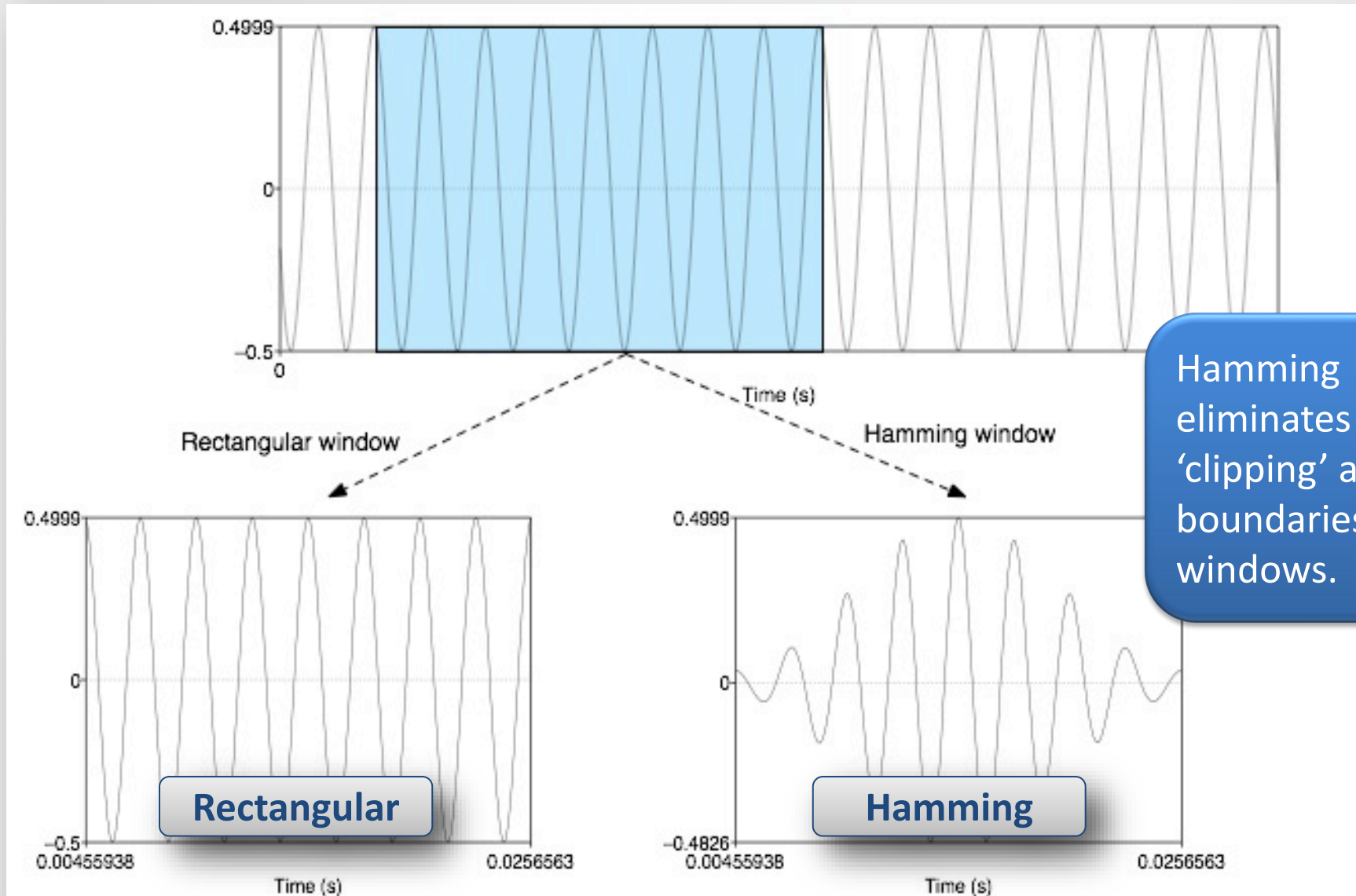
Short-time windowing



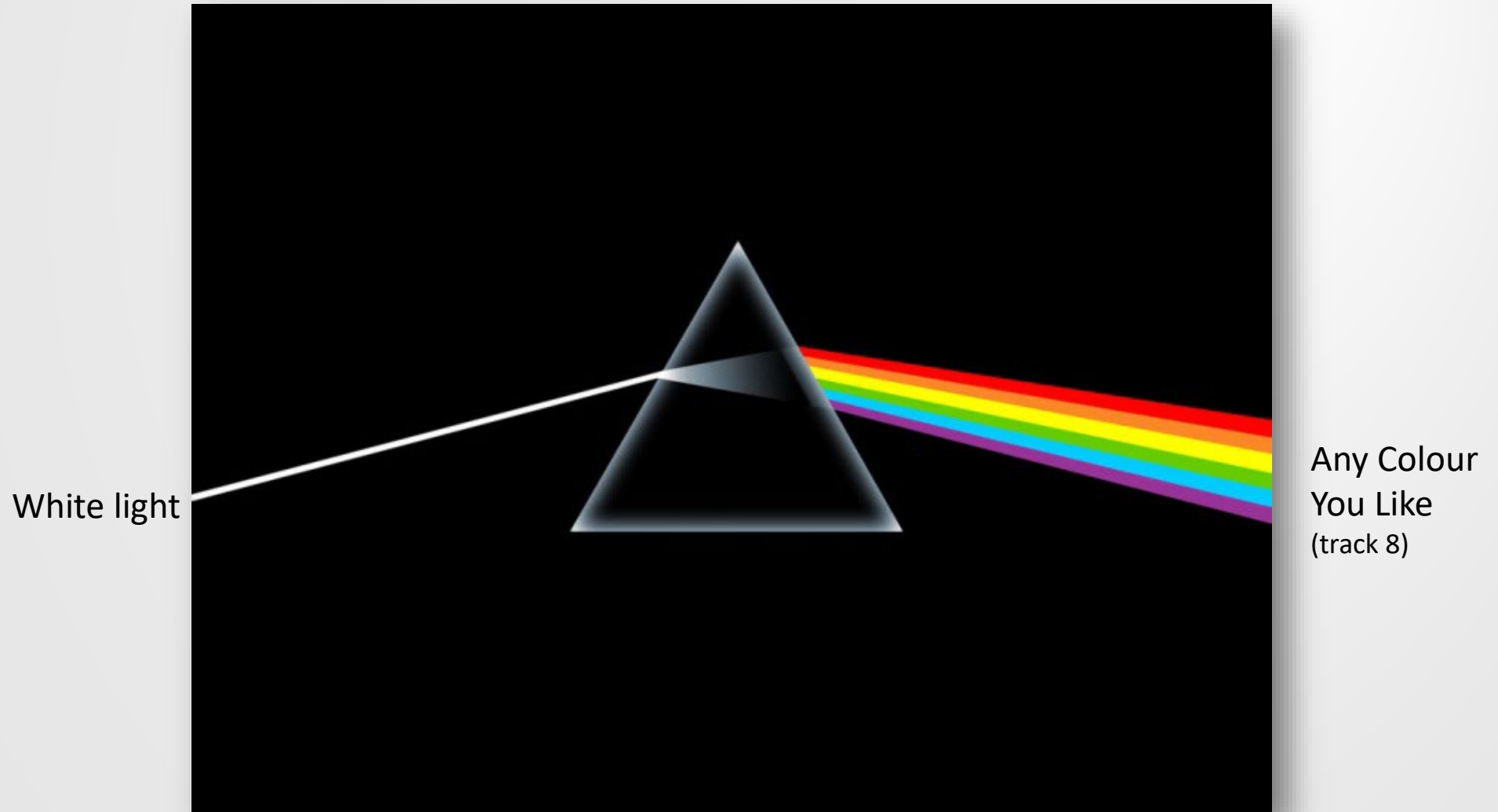
Frame

- 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: 10-30 ms
 - E.g. frame length: 25-40 ms

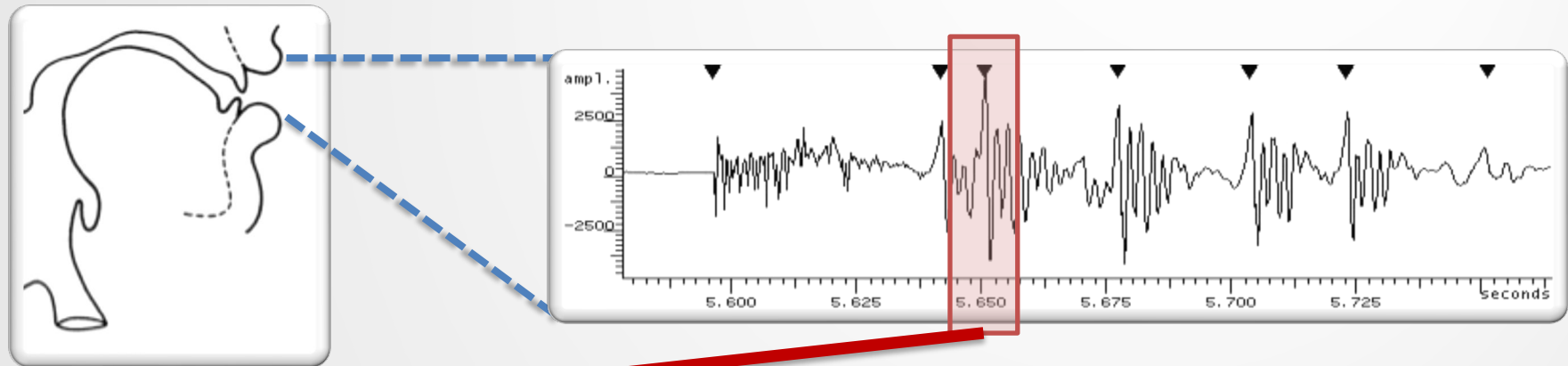
Window types



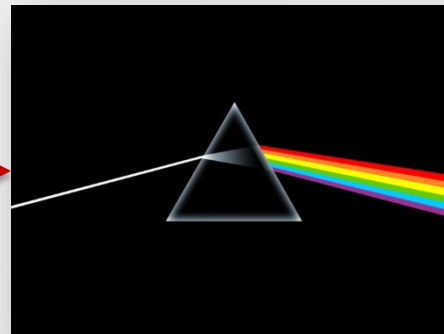
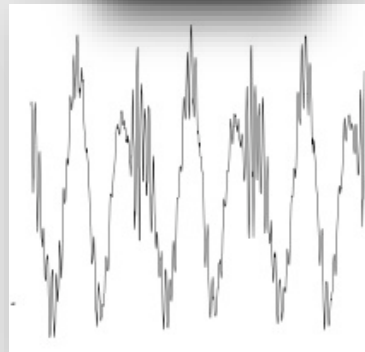
Extracting a spectrum



Extracting a spectrum in a window

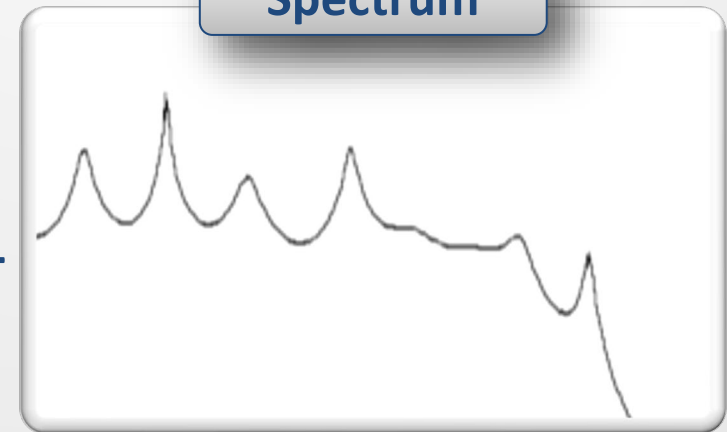


Frame



Amplitude

Spectrum



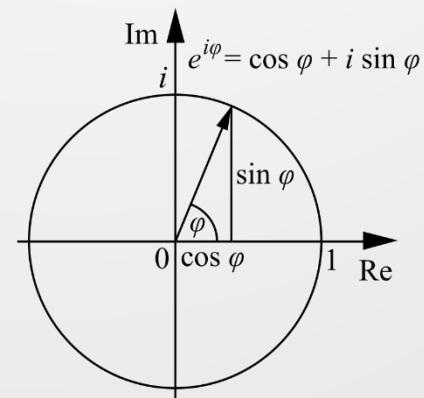
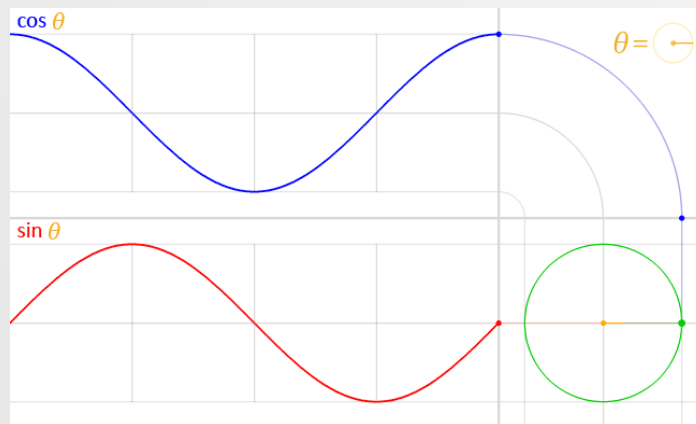
Frequency (Hz)

Euler's formula

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

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

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



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)



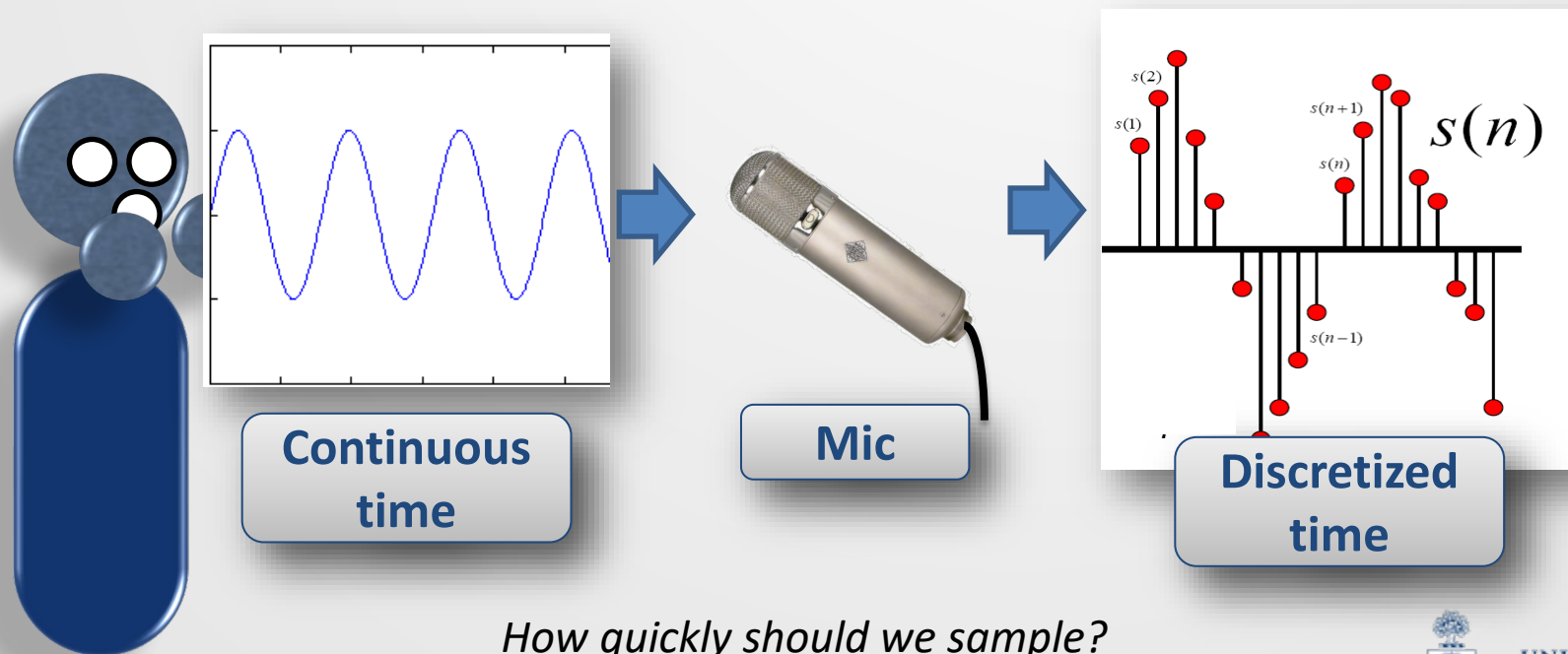
- It's **invertible**, i.e., $x(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} X(F)e^{i2\pi Ft} dF$.
- It's **linear**, i.e., for $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$,
if $h(t) = ax(t) + by(t)$,
then $H(F) = aX(F) + bY(F)$

Fun fact: Fourier instructed
Champollion.

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

Discrete signal representation

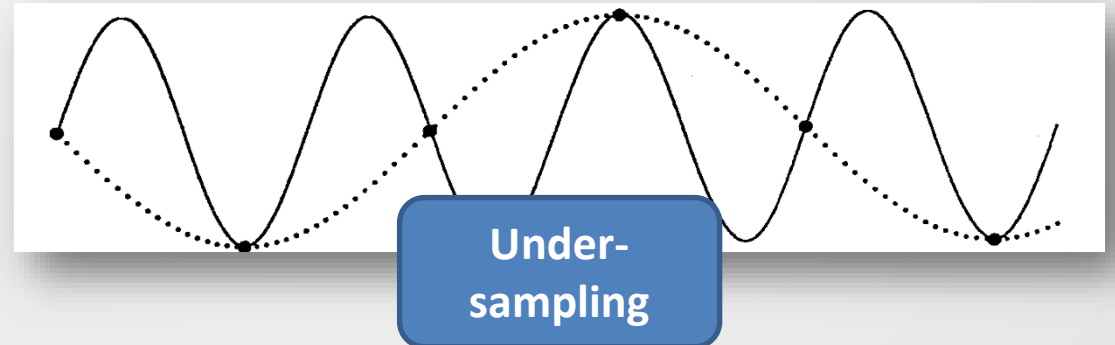
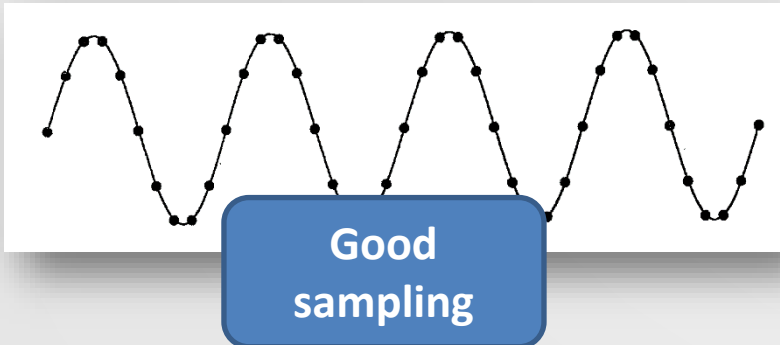
- **Sampling**: *vbg.* measuring the amplitude of a signal at regular intervals.
 - e.g., 44.1 kHz (*CD*), 8 kHz (*telephone*).
 - These amplitudes are initially measured as **continuous** values at **discrete** time steps.



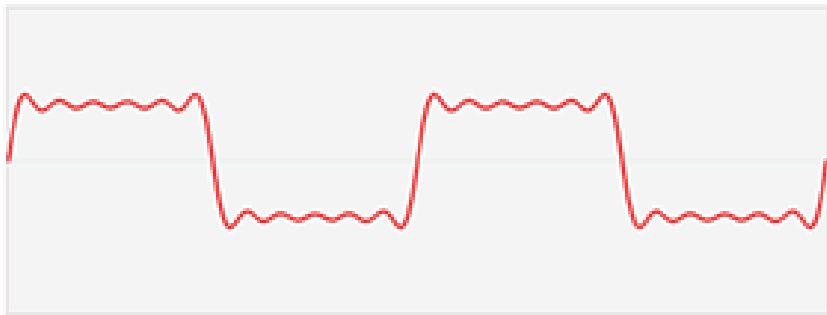
How quickly should we sample?

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 ≥ 2 samples/cycle.
 - Human speech is very informative ≤ 4 kHz, \therefore At least 8 kHz sampling (16kHz the norm)



Discrete Fourier transform (DFT)



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

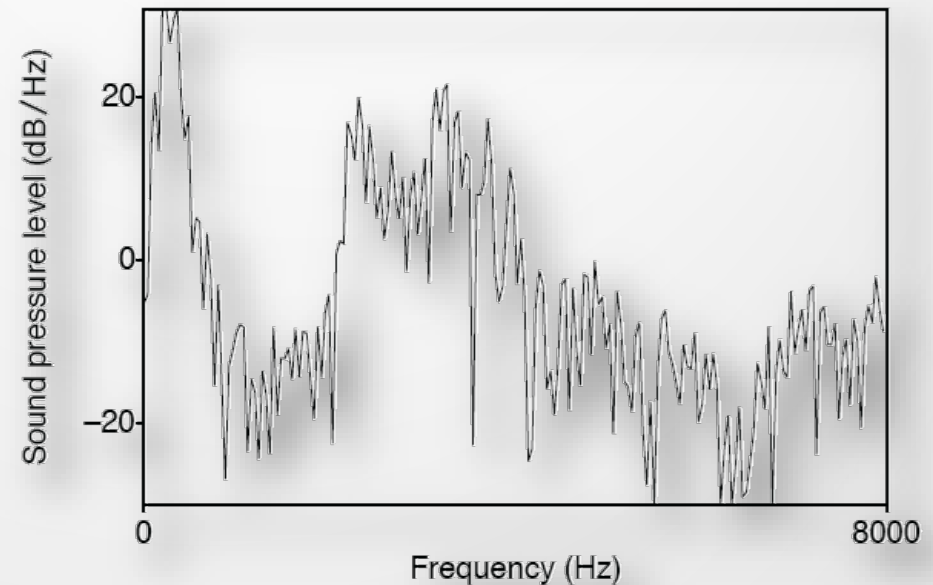
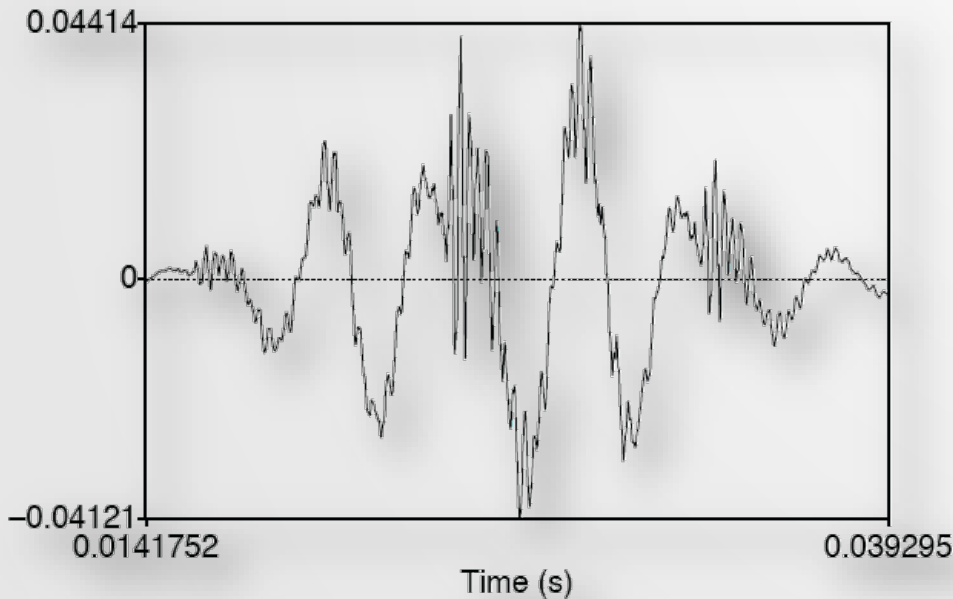
(No need to memorize these)

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

- **Algorithm(s):** the **Fast Fourier Transform** (FFT) with complexity $O(N \log N)$.

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.

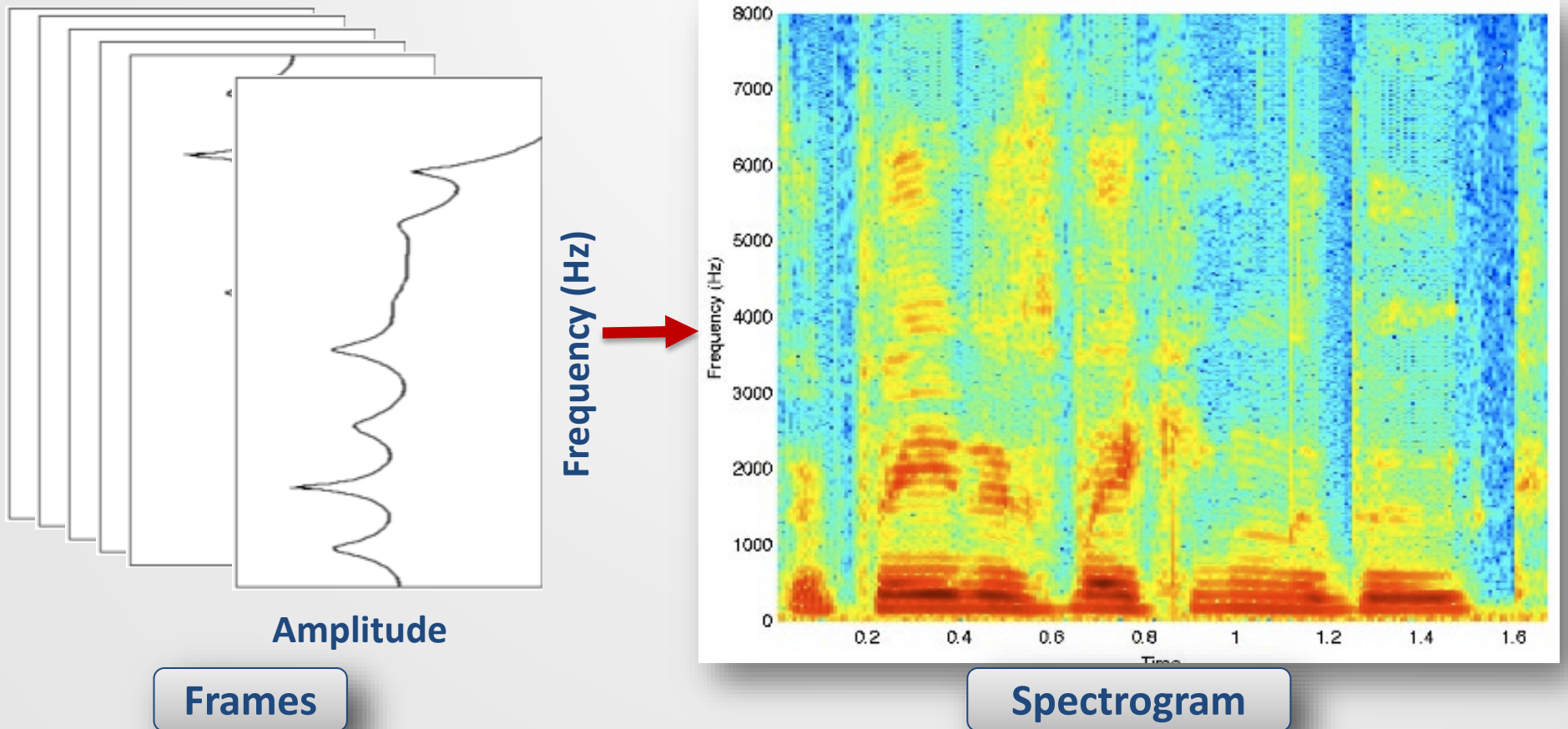


Recall: the Fourier transform is invertible

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

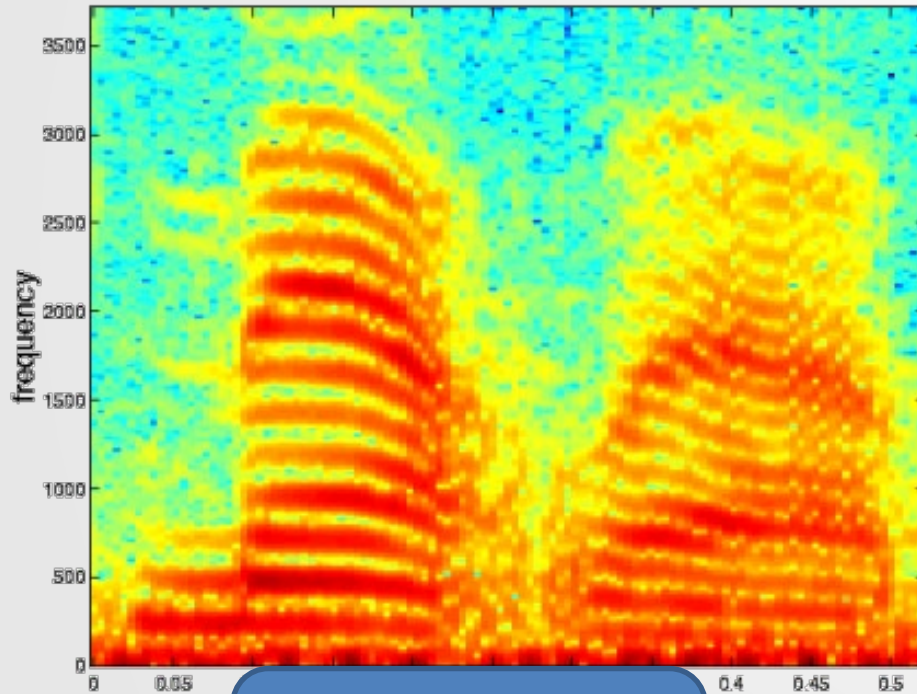
Spectrograms

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



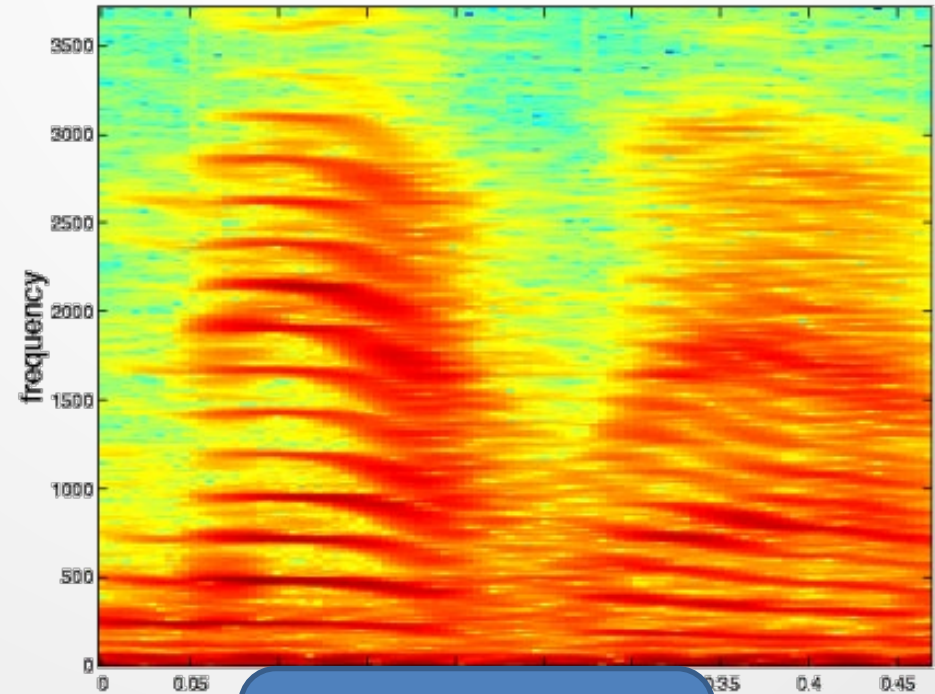
Effect of window length

SPECTROGRAM, R = 128



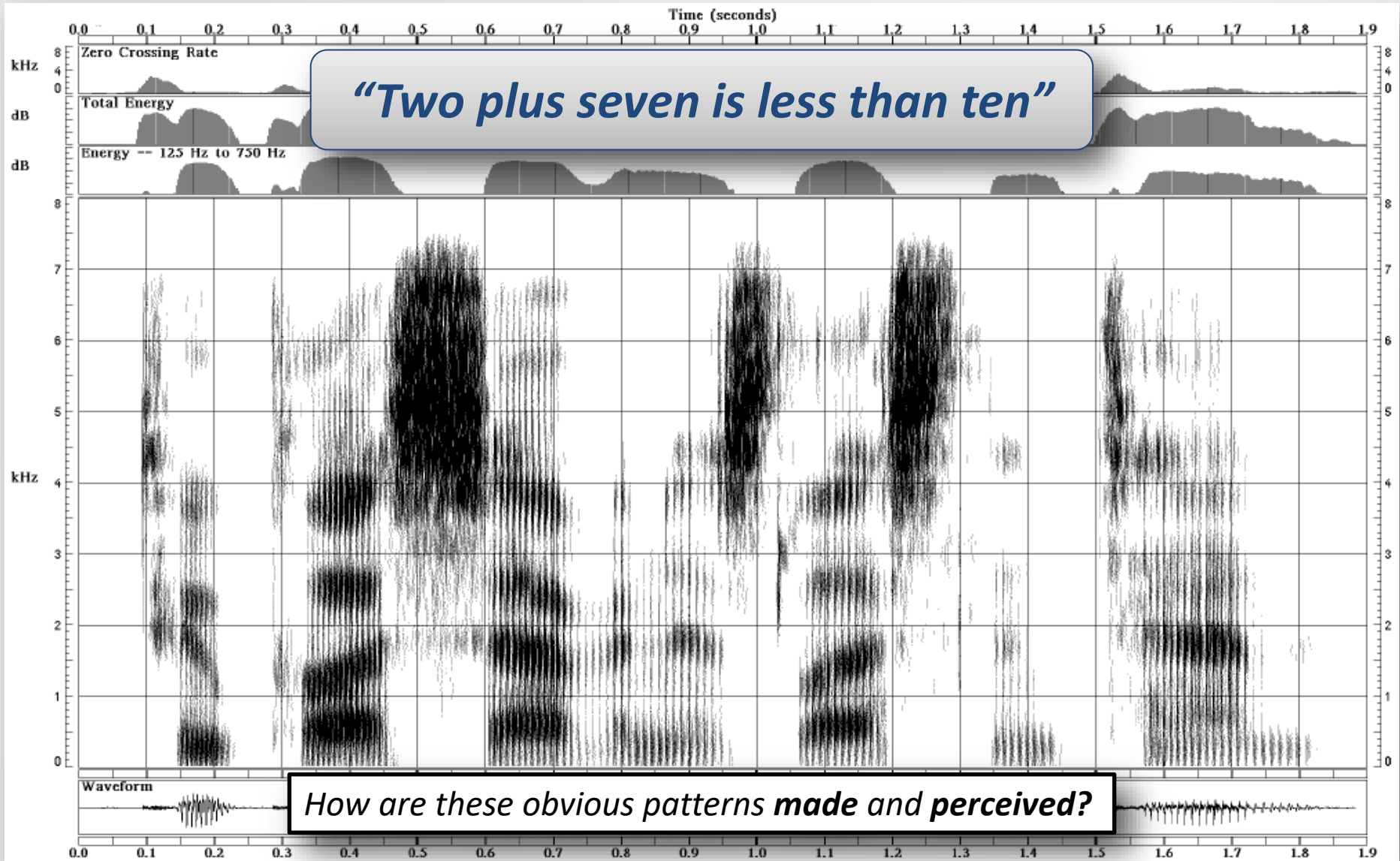
Wide-band
(better time
resolution)

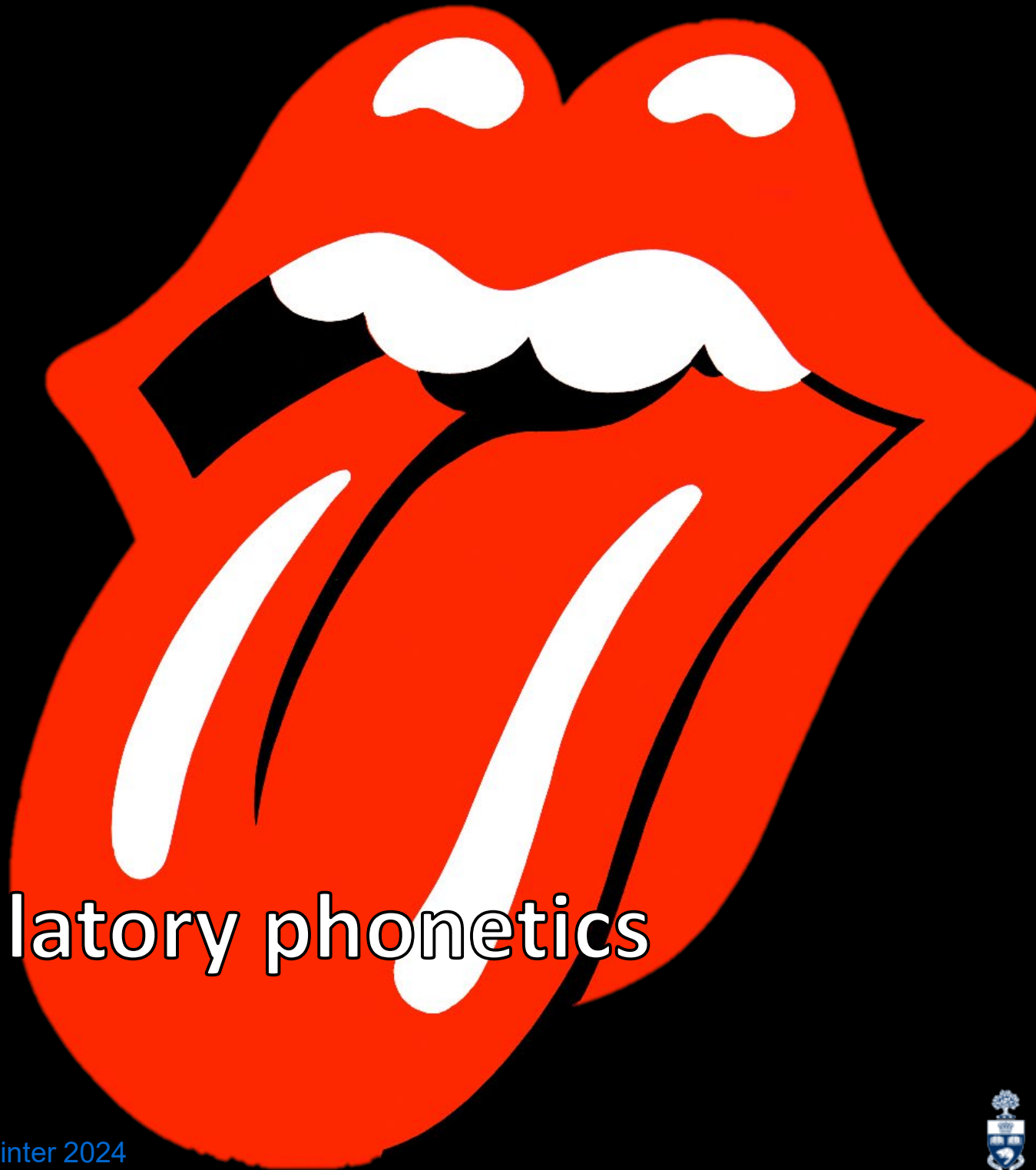
SPECTROGRAM, R = 512



Narrow-band
(better frequency
resolution)

Spectrograms





Articulatory phonetics

Sounds and transcriptions

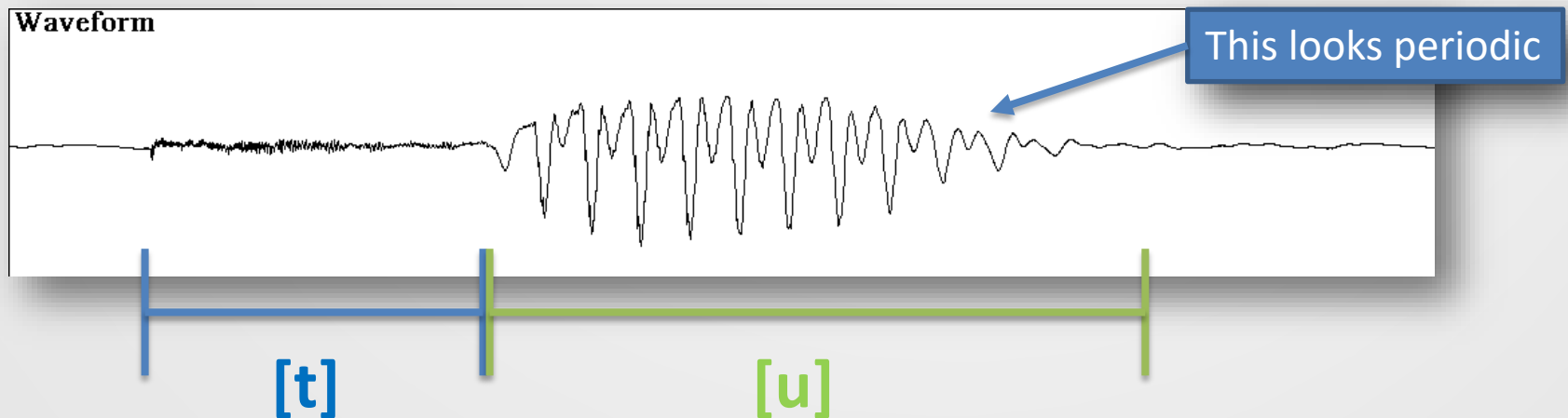
- We are often interested in the meaning of an utterance
- In English, we often transcribe utterances as word tokens
 - We write: <How to recognize speech>
- Is this “what was said?”
 - We might write instead: <How to wreck a nice beach>
 - We can transcribe (or even adopt) foreign words
 - 沙发 = <sofa>, not <sandy hair>
 - We can even transcribe brand new words
 - <skibidi toilet>
- We can instead transcribe “speech sounds”

Phones and phonetics

- **Phonetics** is the study of speech sounds
- A **phone** is a unit of speech
 - Denoted with square braces: [t], [t^h], [u]
 - Language-independent
- Phones which are perceived “similarly” are grouped into **phonemes**
 - Denoted with slashes: /t/, /u/
 - [t],[t^h] \mapsto /t/
 - Language-dependent
- Transcriptions are often in-between:
 - ['t^hu:] \mapsto [t^hu] \mapsto [tu] \mapsto /tu/
- We will be *very* loose with the distinction

Phonetic transcription

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



Phonetic 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** phonetic 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 ^y]	<i>b<u>ea</u>t</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>ou</u>ght</i>
[uh]	[ʊ]	<i>b<u>oo</u>k</i>
[uw]	[u]	<i>b<u>oo</u>t</i>
[ux]	[u̥]	<i>s<u>ui</u>t</i>
[ax]	[ə]	<i><u>a</u>bout</i>

TIMITbet (incomplete)

Vowel	e.g.
[iy]	<i>b<u>ea</u>t</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>ou</u>ght</i>
[uh]	<i>b<u>oo</u>k</i>
[uw]	<i>b<u>oo</u>t</i>
[ux]	<i>s<u>ui</u>t</i>
[ax]	<i><u>a</u>bout</i>

stop	e.g.
[b]	<i><u>B</u>il<u>b</u>o</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>oot<u>s</u></i>
[k]	<i><u>k</u>ick</i>

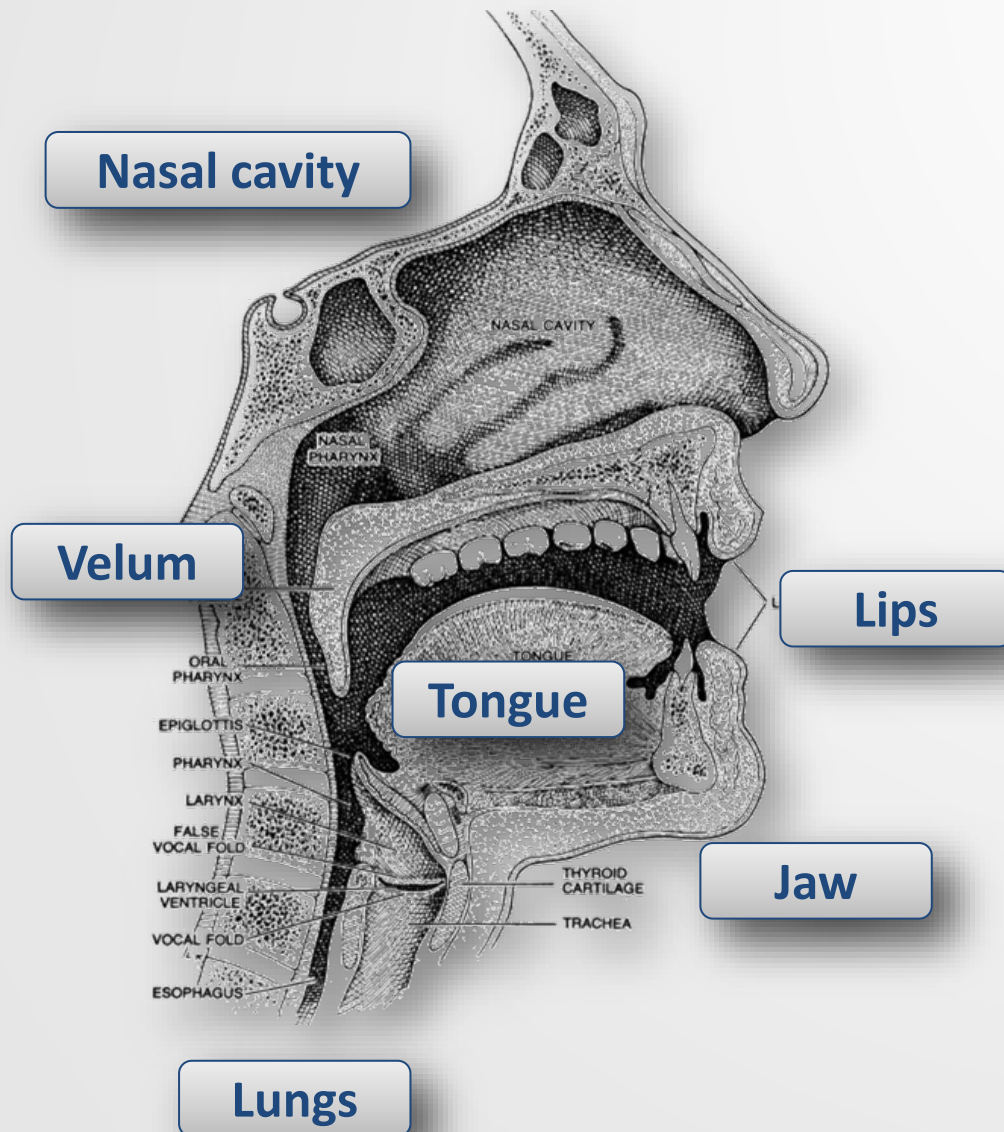
nasal	e.g.
[m]	<i><u>M</u>ama</i>
[n]	<i><u>n</u>oon</i>
[ng]	<i>thin<u>g</u></i>

fricative	e.g.
[s]	<i><u>S</u>ea</i>
[f]	<i><u>F</u>r<u>a</u>nk</i>
[z]	<i><u>Z</u>appa</i>
[th]	<i><u>th</u>is</i>
[sh]	<i><u>Sh</u>ip</i>
[zh]	<i>azu<u>r</u>e</i>
[v]	<i><u>V</u>ogon</i>
[dh]	<i><u>th</u>en</i>

...

(Incomplete)

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.
- We can classify phones by how they are **produced**

A taxonomy of phones

- Phones fall into two broad categories
- **Vowels** are
 - Always periodic
 - Produced with relatively unobstructed airflow
 - Use tongue, lips, and jaw to produce **resonances** in vocal tract, in turn generating **formants**
- **Consonants** are
 - Mostly noisy (not nasals, semivowels)
 - Produced by obstructing airflow
 - Classified by the **place** and **manner** of primary obstruction, as well as **voicing**

Voicing and fundamental frequency

- **Voiced** phones are produced with vibrating **vocal folds**
 - The space between the folds is the **glottis**
- All vowels are voiced; consonants can be **unvoiced**
- F_0 : *n.* (**fundamental frequency**), the rate of vibration (Hz)
 - Very indicative of speaker



	Avg F_0 (Hz)	Min F_0 (Hz)	Max F_0 (Hz)
Male	125	80	200
Female	225	150	350
Children	300	200	500

Vowels

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

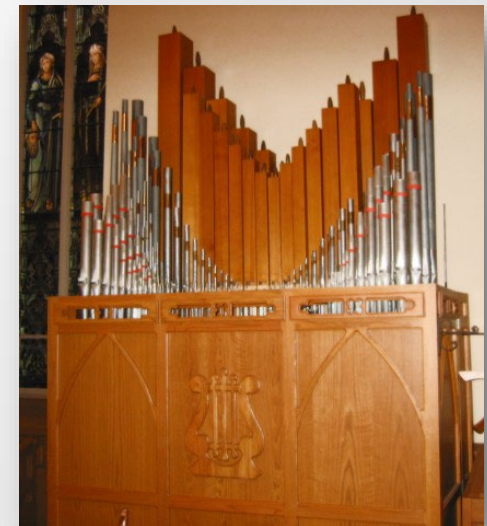
other	e.g.
[er]	<i>B<u>e</u>rt</i>
[axr]	<i>b<u>u</u>tter</i>

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>

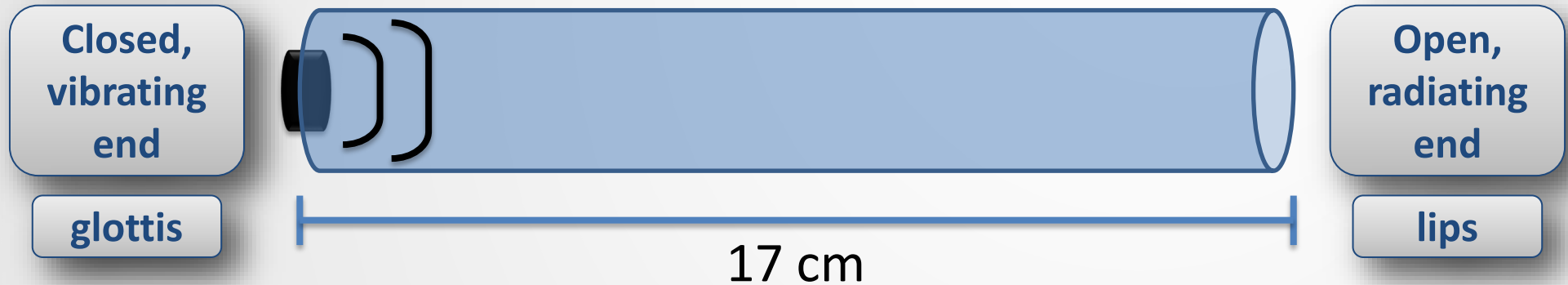
Mono-phthong	e.g.
[iy]	<i>b<u>e</u>at</i>
[ih]	<i>b<u>i</u>t</i>
[eh]	<i>b<u>e</u>t</i>
[ae]	<i>b<u>a</u>t</i>
[aa]	<i>B<u>o</u>b</i>
[ao]	<i>b<u>o</u>ught</i>
[ah]	<i>b<u>u</u>t</i>
[uh]	<i>b<u>o</u>ok</i>
[uw]	<i>b<u>o</u>ot</i>
[ax]	<i><u>a</u>bout</i>
[ix]	<i>ros<u>e</u>s</i>

Uniform tubes

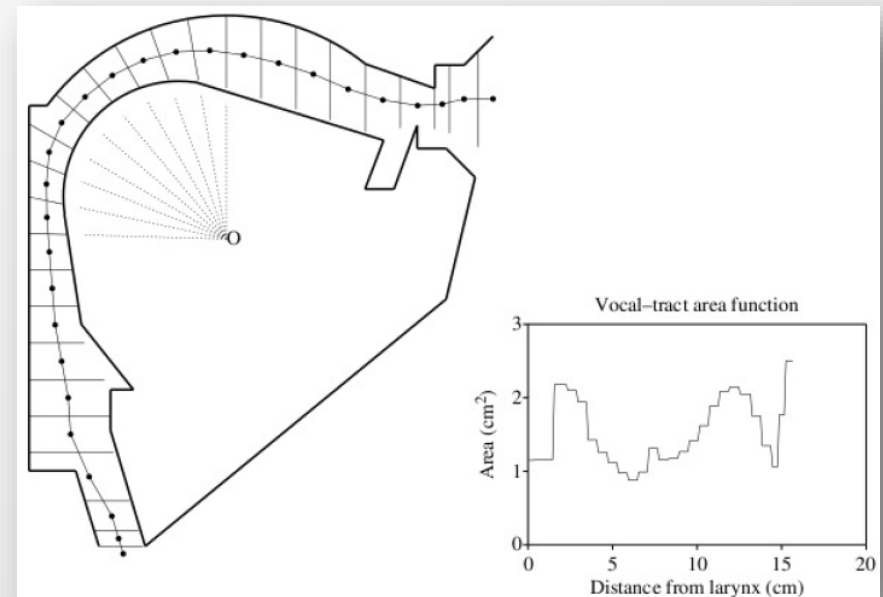
- Formants and resonances can be approximated with tubes
- Many **musical instruments** are based on the idea of uniform (or, in many cases, bent) tubes.
- **Longer** tubes produce '**deeper**' sounds (lower frequencies).
 - A tube $\frac{1}{2}$ the length of another will be 1 octave higher.



The uniform tube

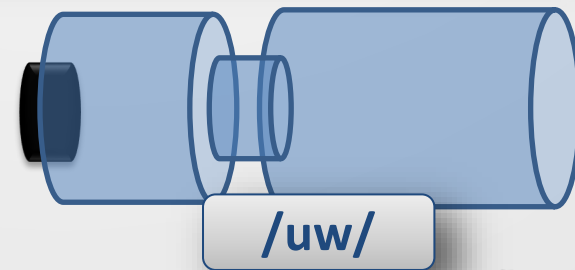
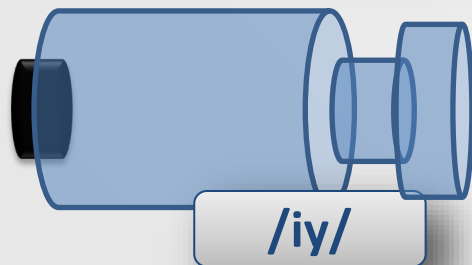
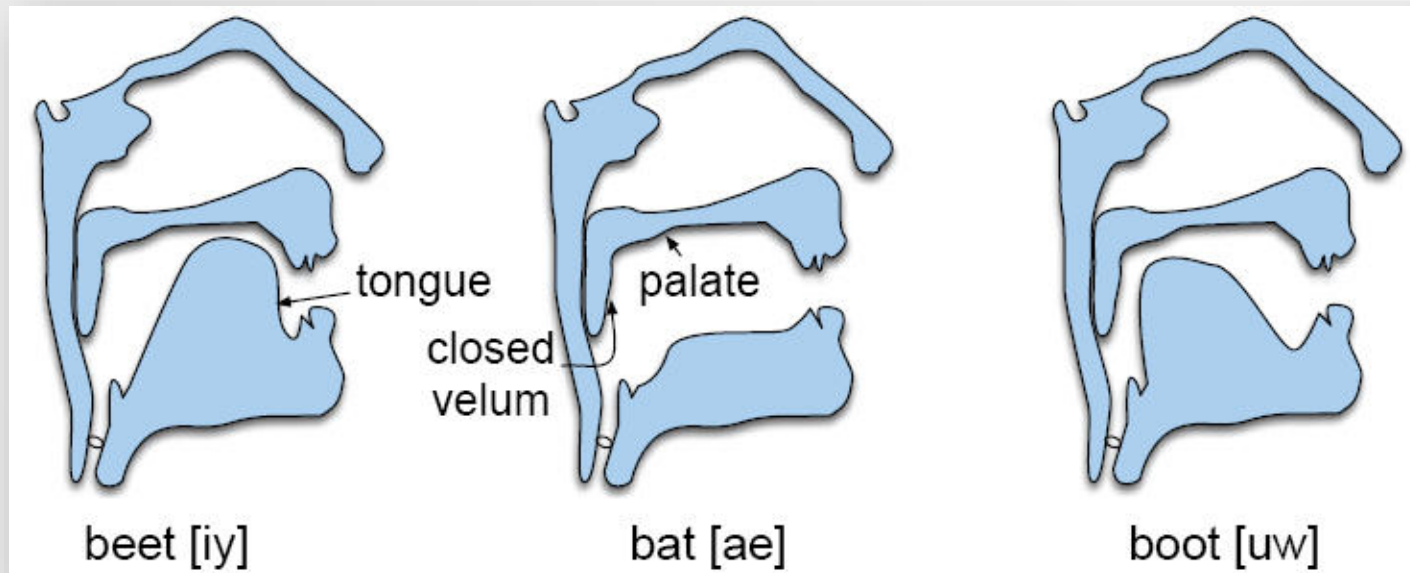


- The positions of the tongue, jaw, and lips change the **shape** and **cross-sectional area** of the vocal tract.



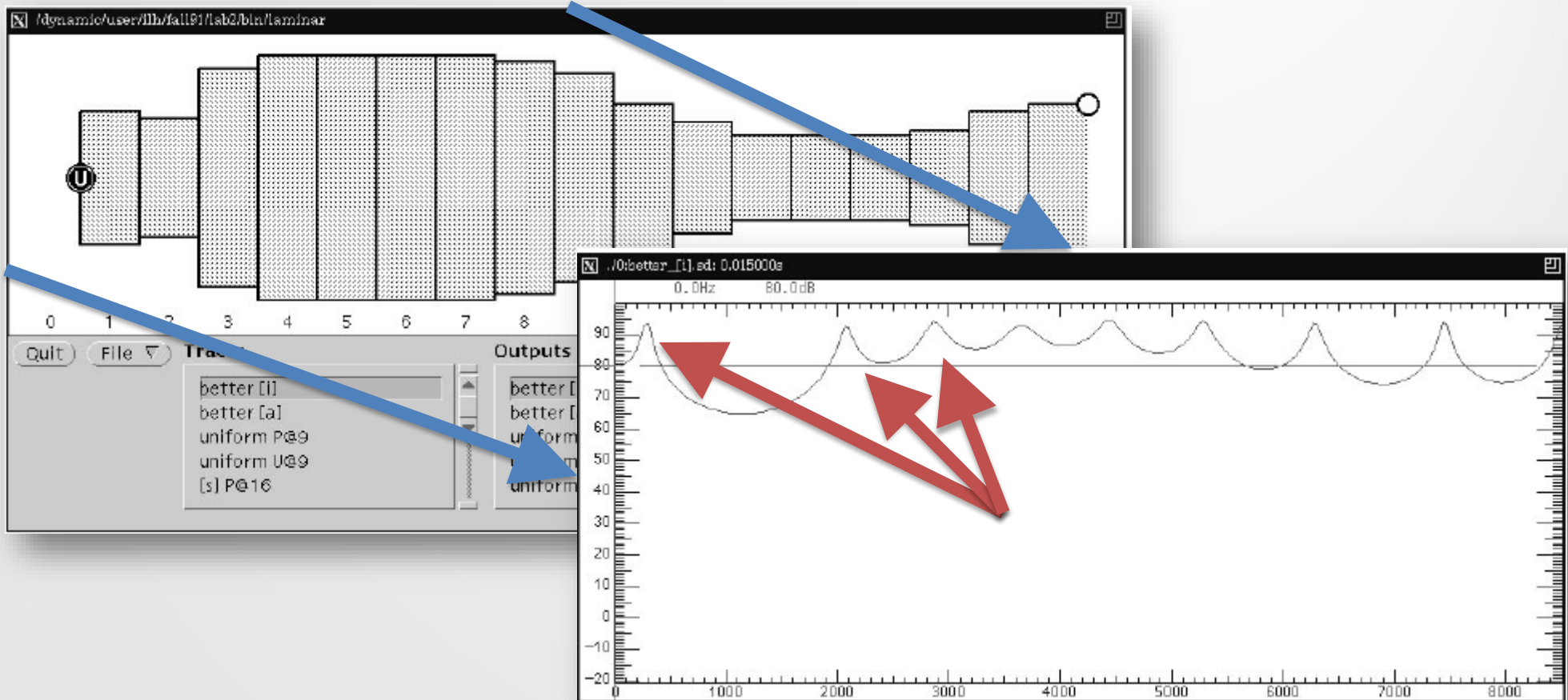
Vowels as concatenated tubes

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



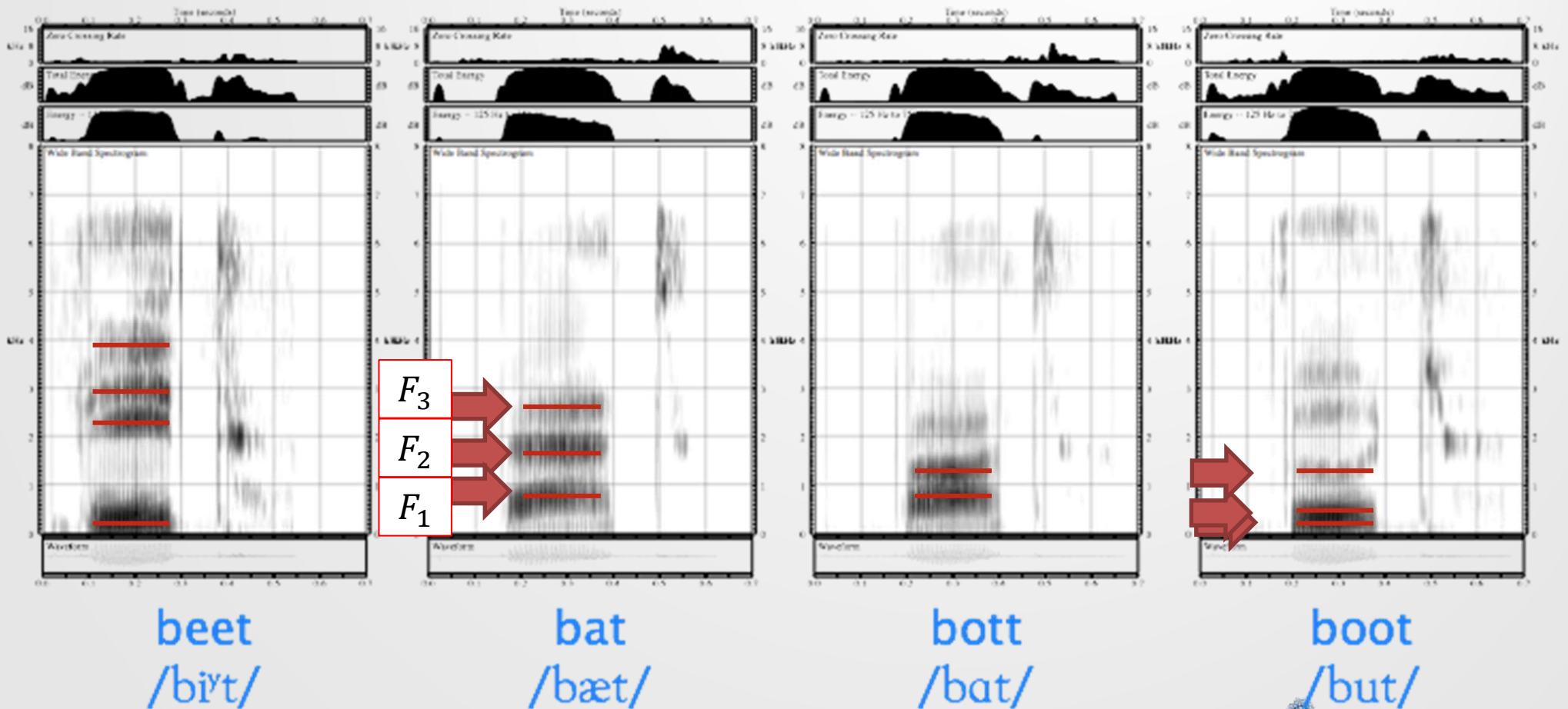
Waves in concatenated tubes

- Reflections at tube boundaries produce resonances which amplify certain frequencies

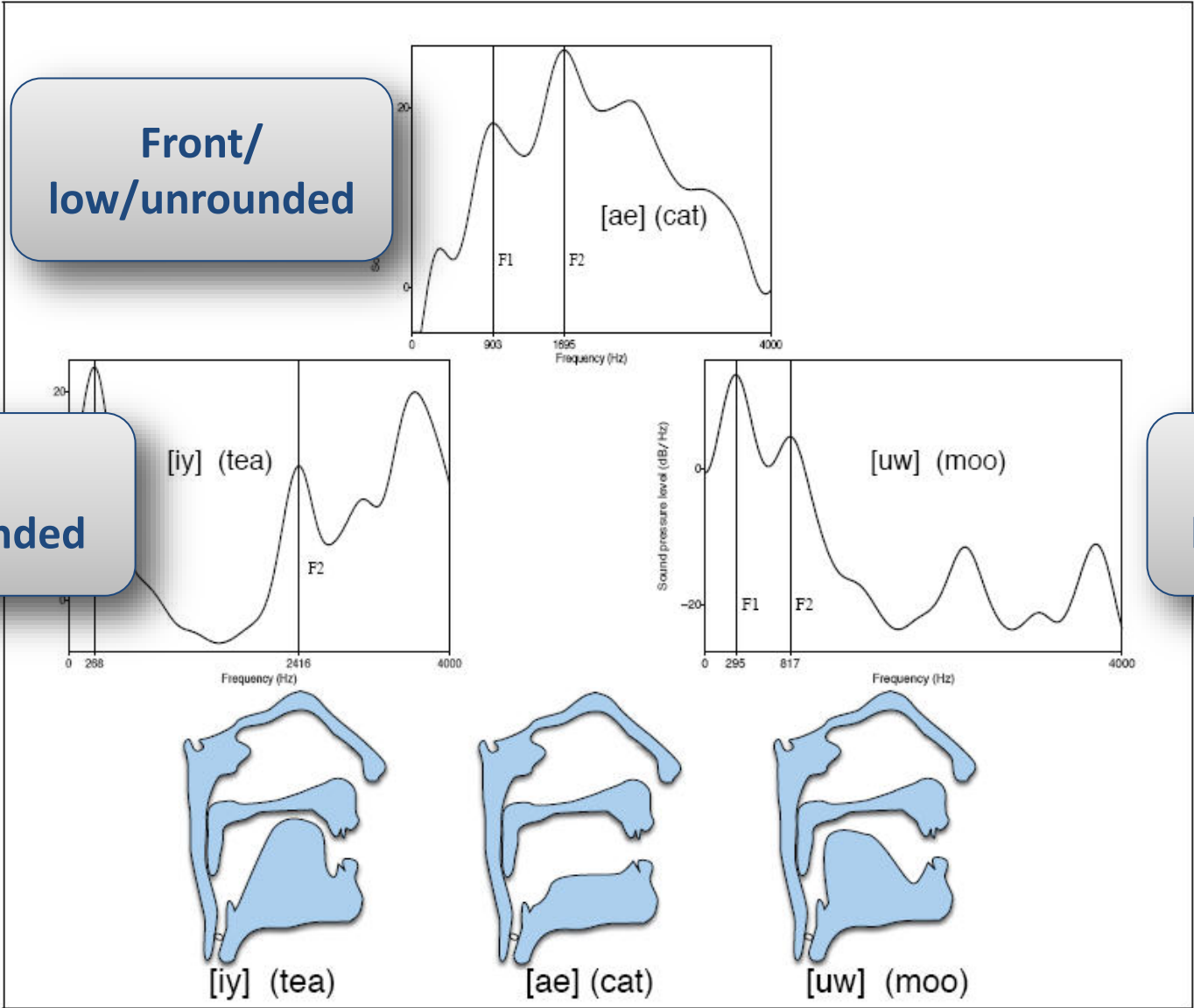


Formants and vowels

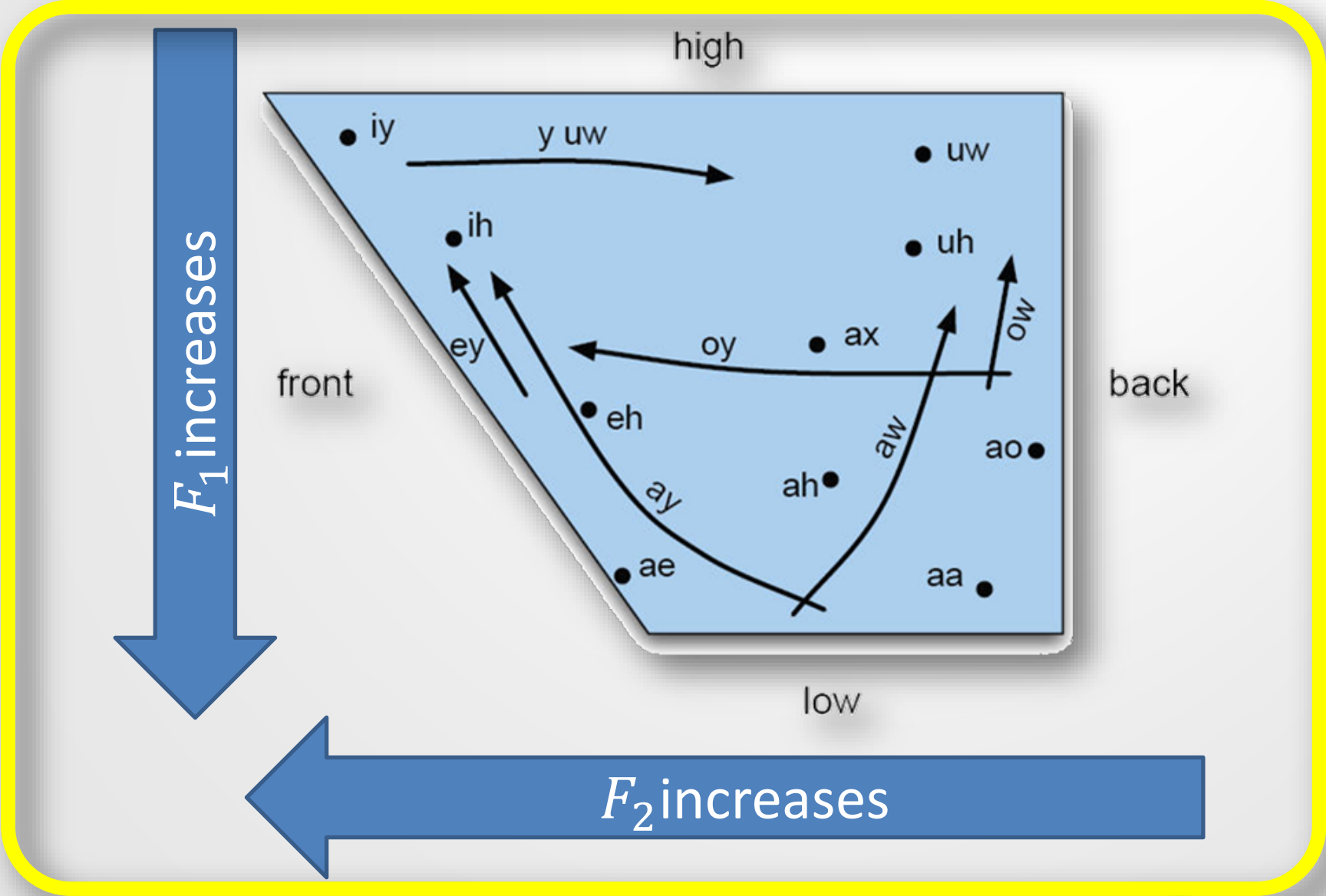
- **Formant:** *n.* A concentration of energy within a frequency band. Ordered from low to high bands (e.g., F_1, F_2, F_3).



Tongues, lips, and formants



The vowel trapezoid

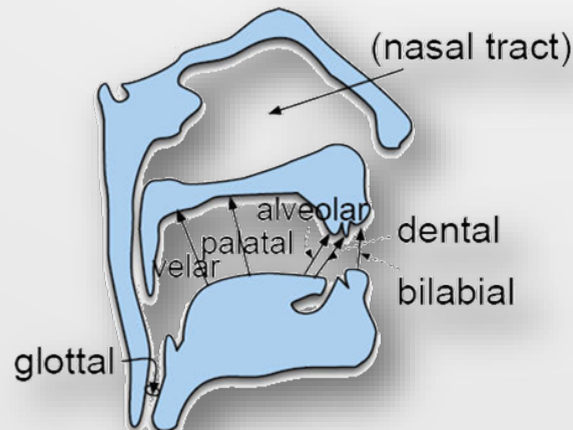


Manner of articulation

- Consonants are classified by **place** and **manner** of obstruction
- For manner:
 - **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.
 - **Taps:** Quick collision of articulators ('buttter')

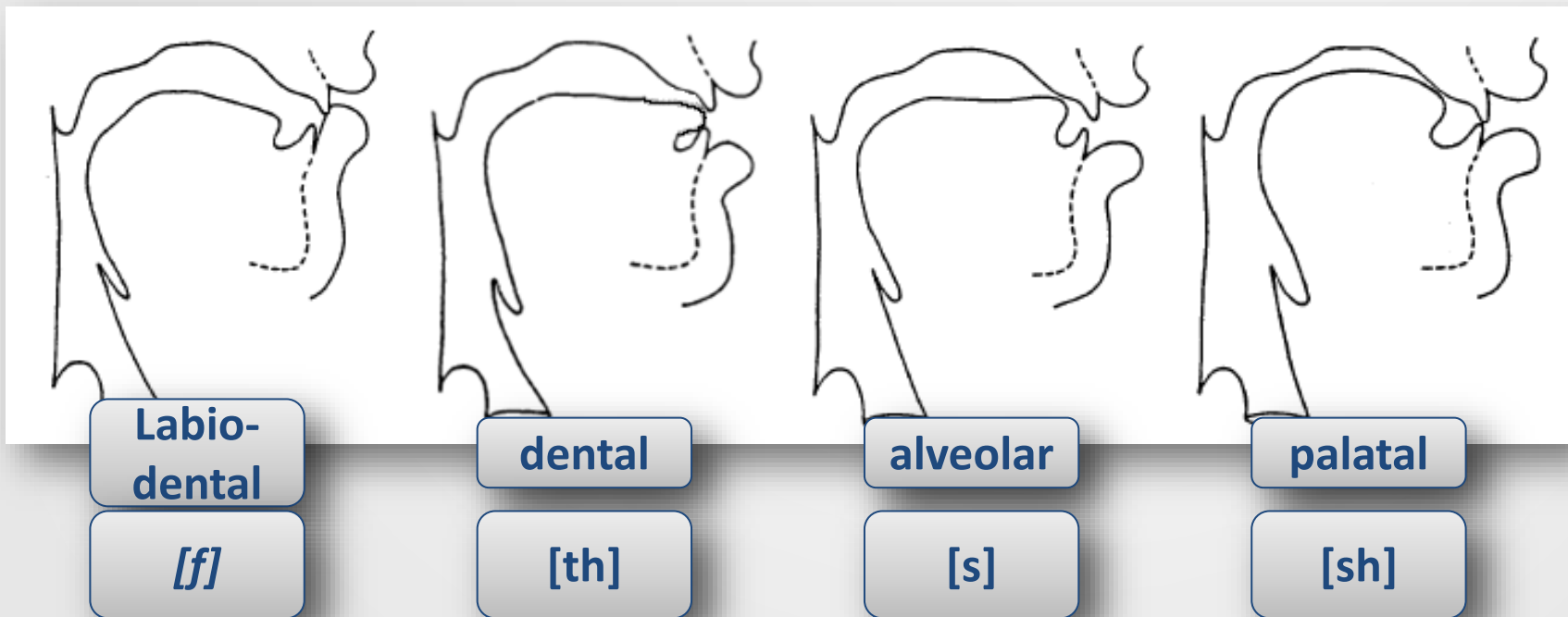
Place of articulation

- 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])
 - **Palatal:** constriction at the (hard) palate (e.g., [sh])
 - **Labiodental:** constriction between lip and teeth (e.g., [f])
 - **Velar:** constriction at or near the velum (e.g., [k]).
 - **Glottal:** constriction of the glottis ([q])



Fricatives

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

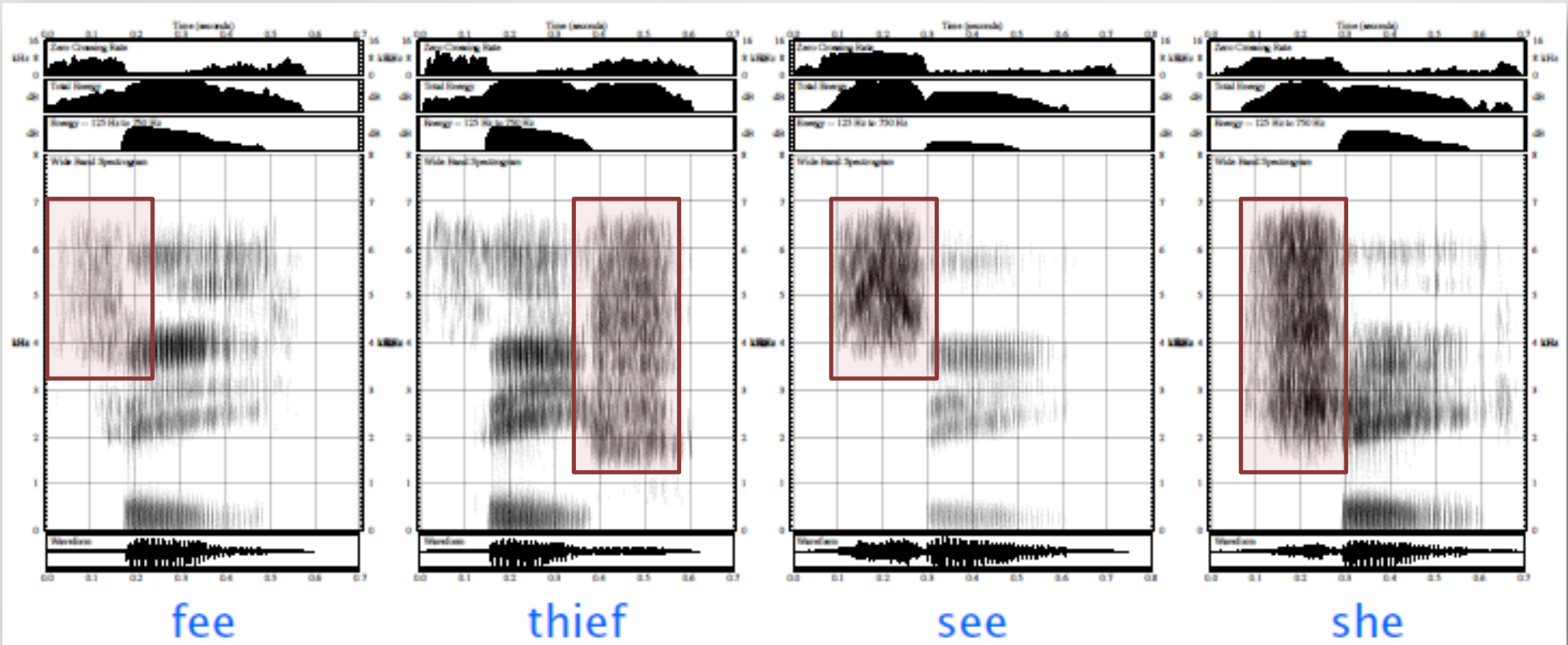


Fricatives

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

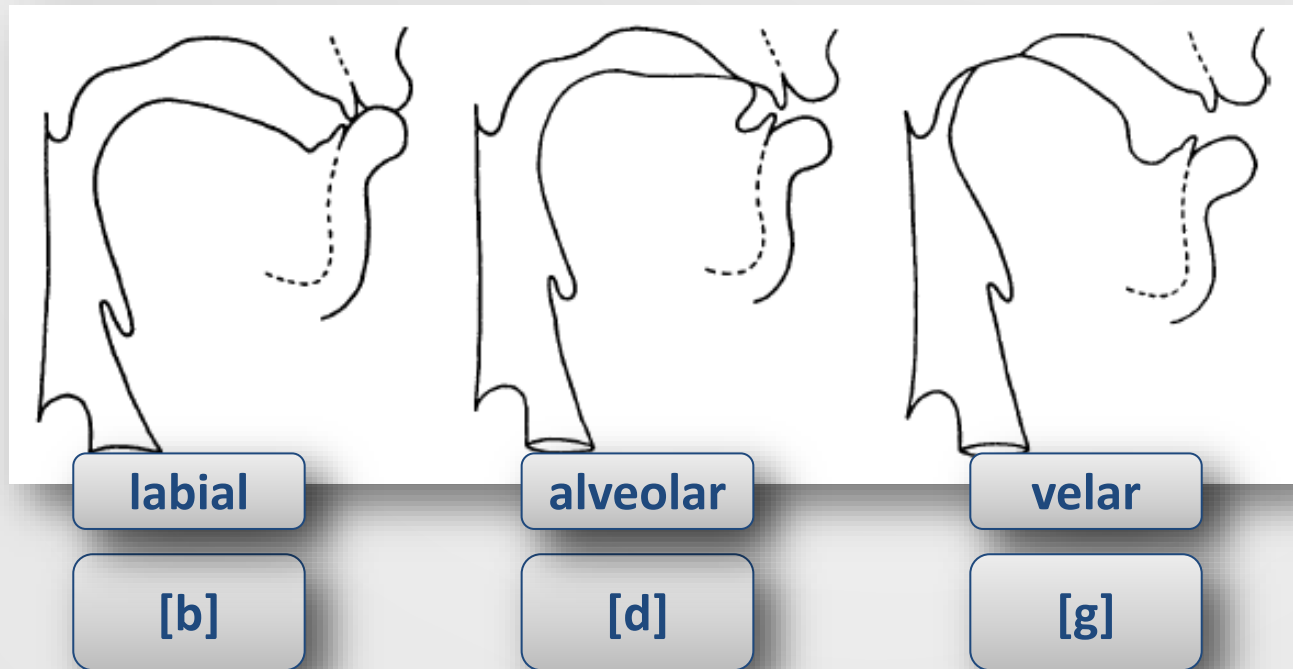
	Unvoiced		Voiced	
Labio-dental	[f]	<u>f</u> ee	[v]	<u>V</u> endetta
Dental	[θ]	<u>th</u> ief	[ð]	<u>Th</u> ee
Alveolar	[s]	<u>s</u> ee	[z]	<u>Z</u> ardo <u>z</u>
Palatal	[ʃ]	<u>sh</u> e	[ʒ]	<u>Zh</u> a- <u>zh</u> a

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**.



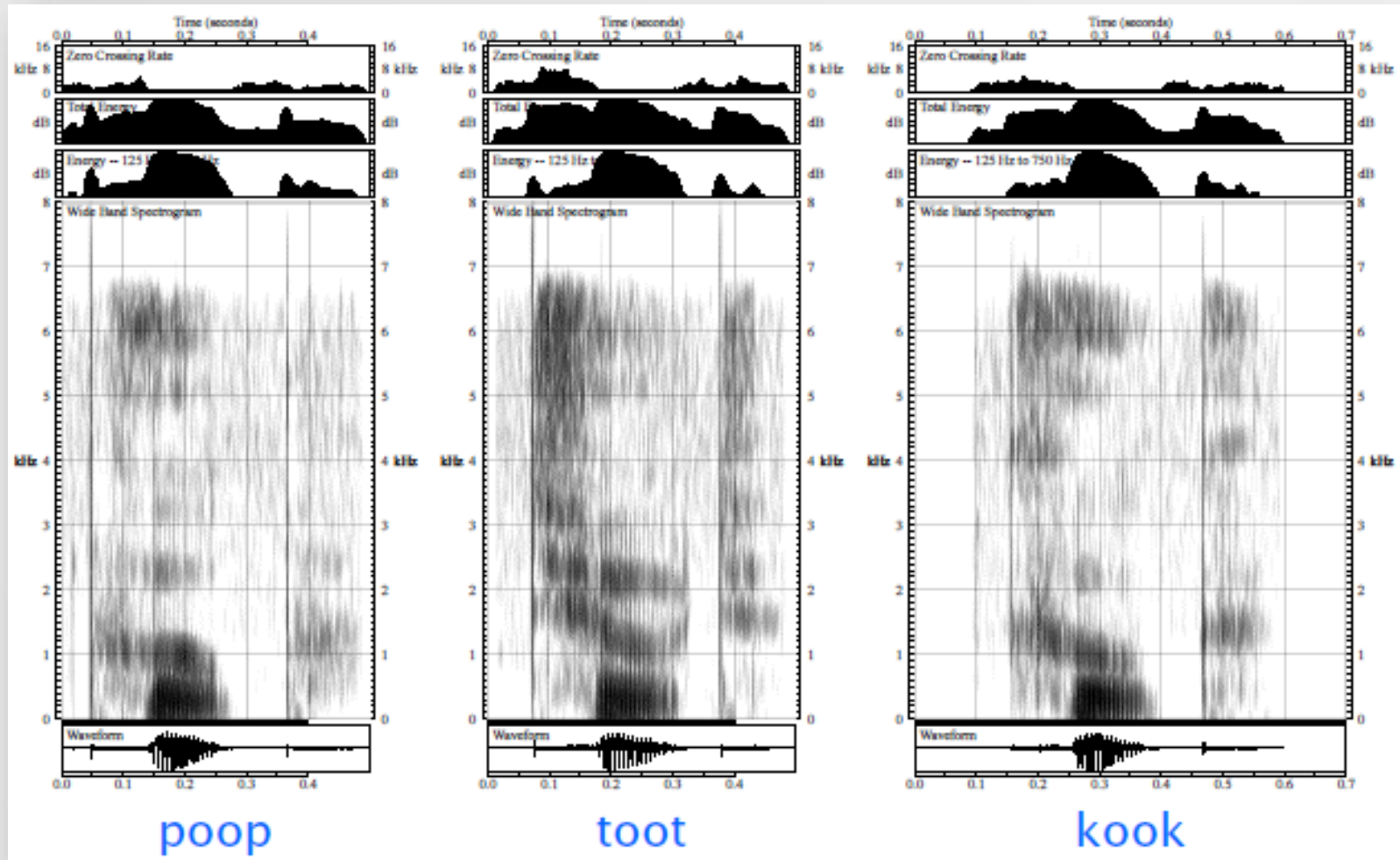
Plosives

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

	Unvoiced		Voiced	
Labial	[p]	<i><u>p</u>or<u>p</u>oise</i>	[b]	<i><u>b</u>ab<u>b</u>oon</i>
Alveolar	[t]	<i><u>t</u>or<u>t</u></i>	[d]	<i><u>d</u>od<u>d</u></i>
Velar	[k]	<i><u>k</u>ic<u>k</u></i>	[g]	<i><u>G</u>oo<u>g</u>le</i>

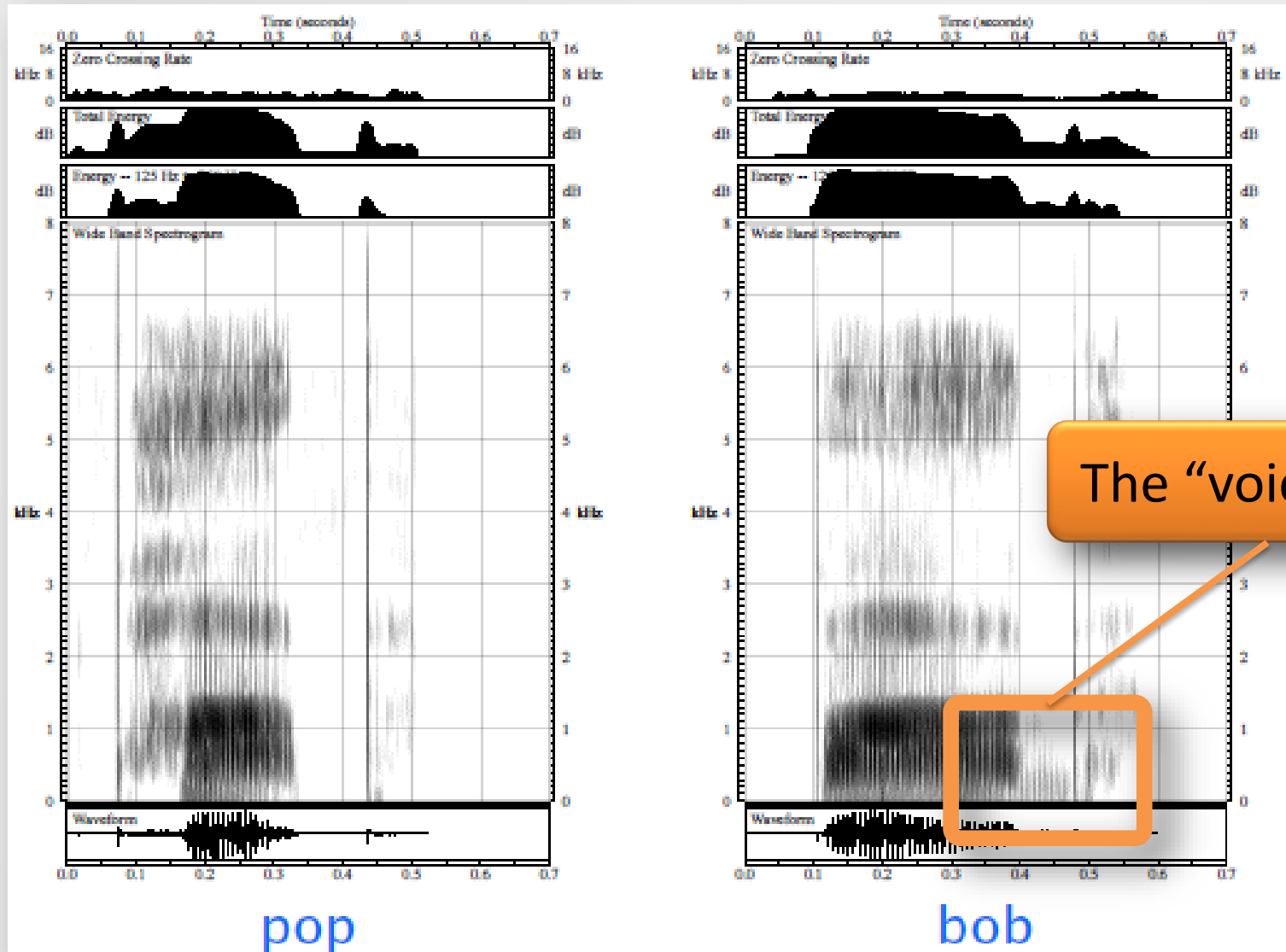
- **Voiced** stops are usually characterized by a “**voice bar**” during closure, indicating the vibrating vocal folds.
- Formant **transitions** are very **informative** in classification.

Formant transitions in plosives



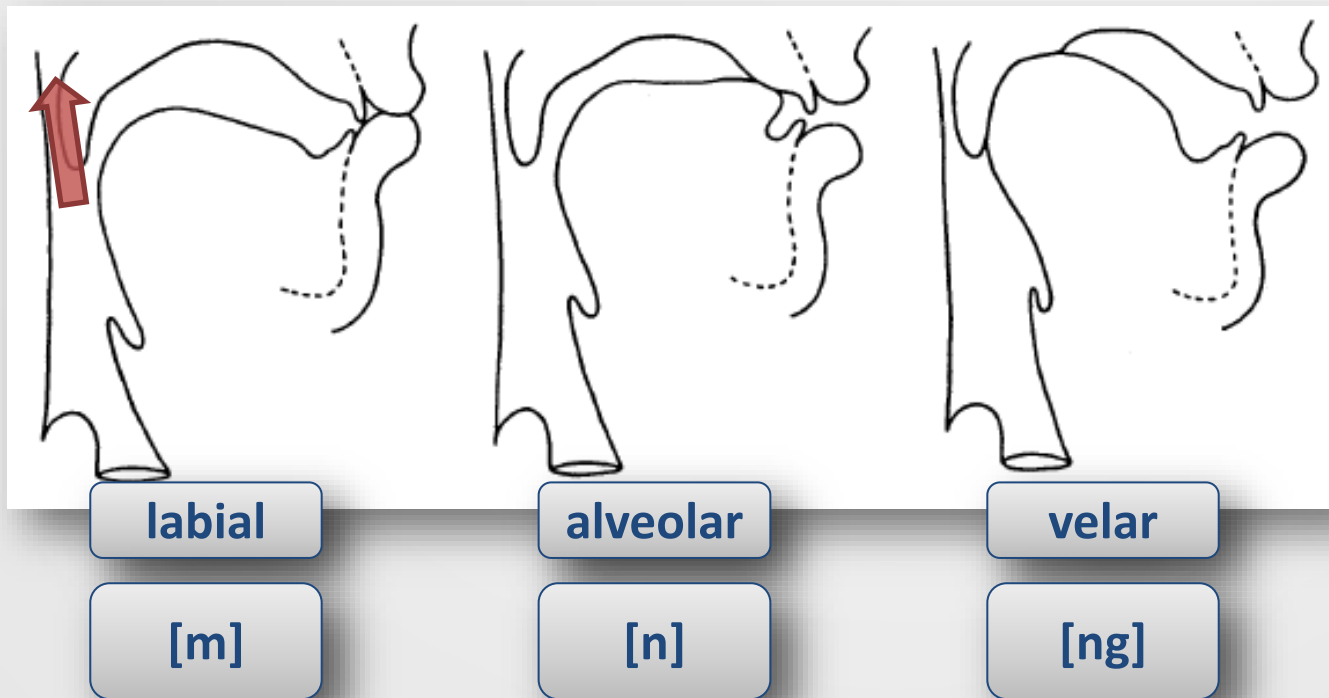
- Despite a **common** vowel, the **motion** of F_2 and F_3 into (and out of) the vowel helps identify the plosive.

Voicing in plosives

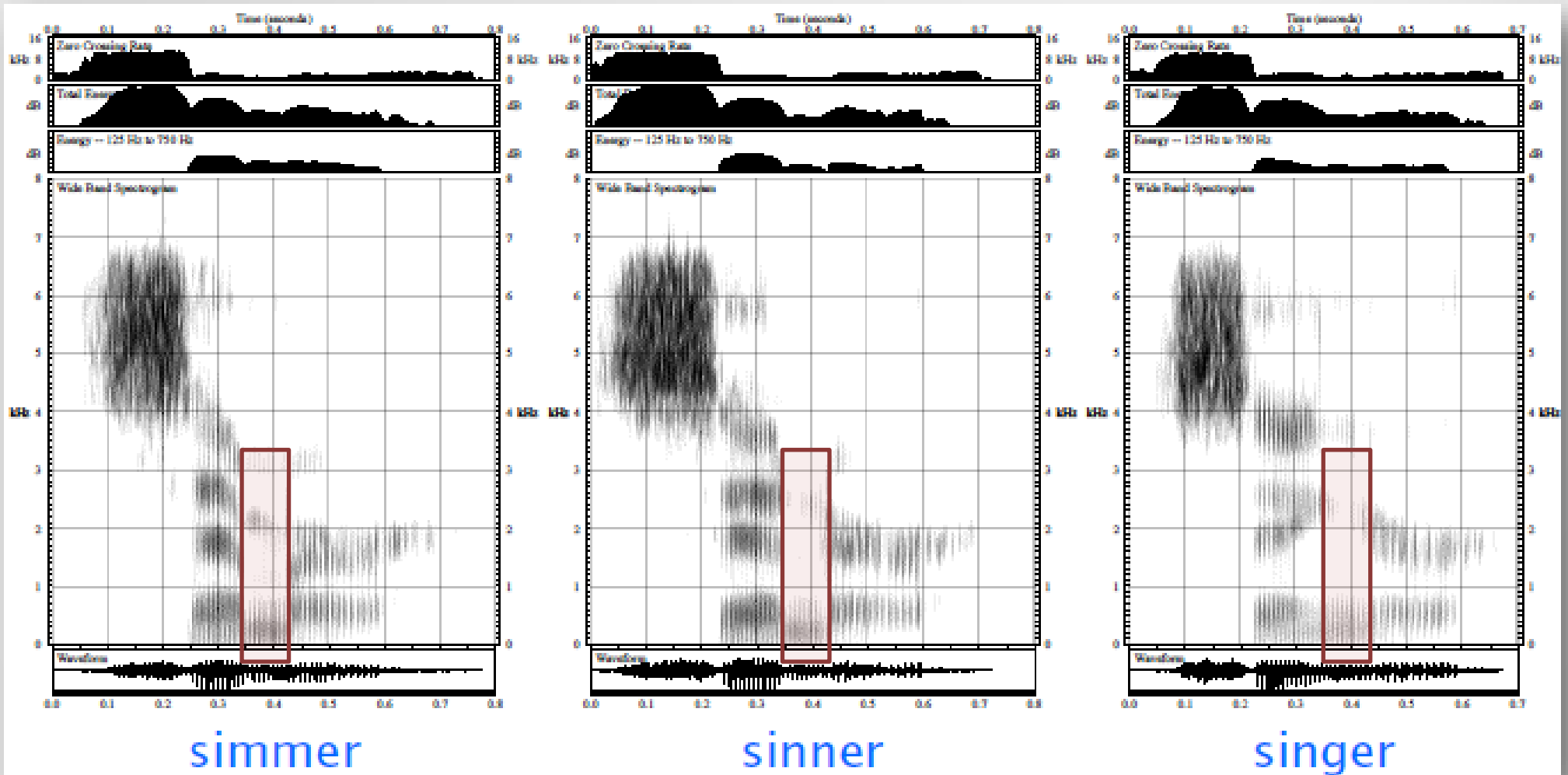


Nasals

- **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.



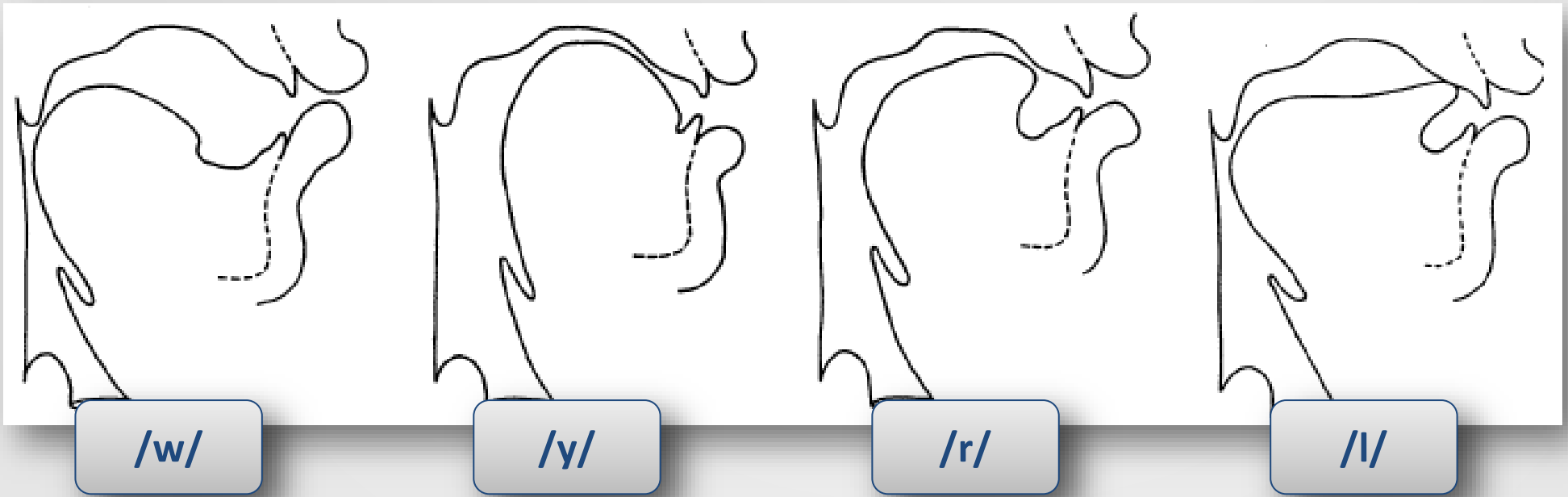
Formant transitions among nasals



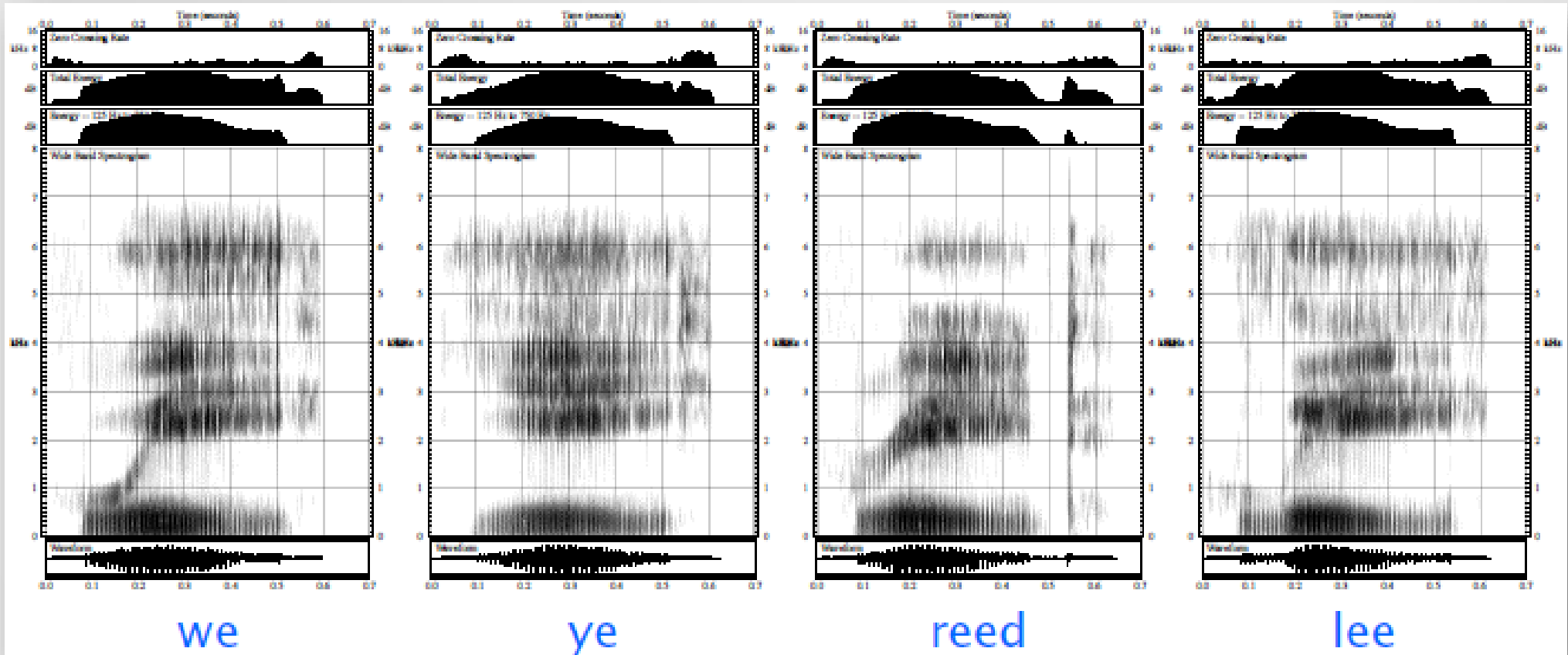
- Nasals often appear as two formants

Semivowels

- **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

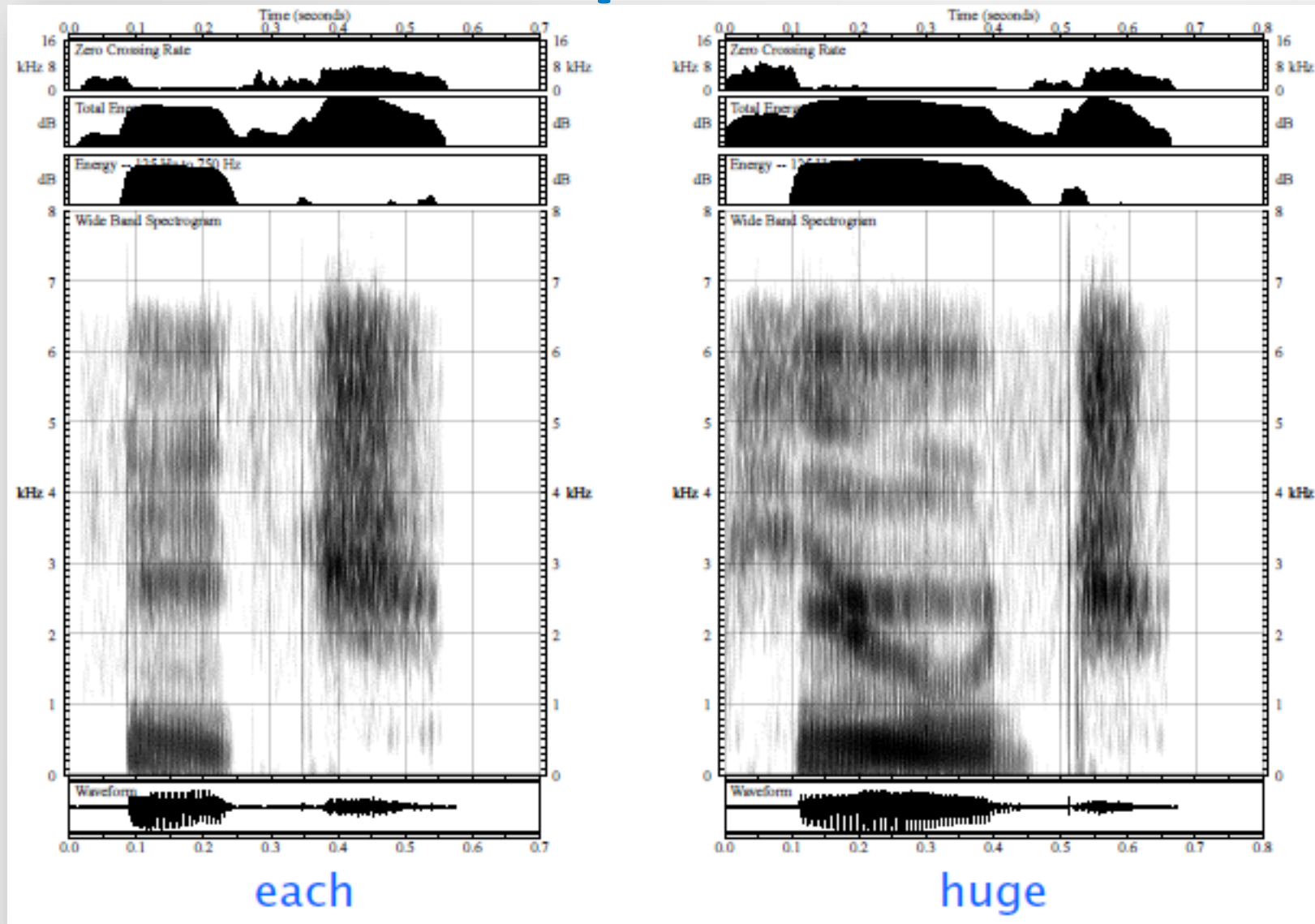


- Note the drastic formant transitions which are more typical of semivowels.

Affricates and aspirants

- 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



Other topics in phonetics

- The grouping of phones into **syllables**
 - Consisting of a vowel (**nucleus**), and optionally preceding (**onset**) and succeeding (**coda**) consonants
 - Only certain sequences are permissible in English
 - Syllables may be made more **prominent** via pitch, duration, or loudness
- The **prosody**, or intonation and rhythm, of an utterance
 - Prominence can also indicate phrase boundaries
 - Gradual F0 movement (**tune**) can indicate a question or statement
- These are especially important to **text-to-speech**