

ECE 417 Lecture 8: Speech Production

Mark Hasegawa-Johnson, 9/2017

Speech

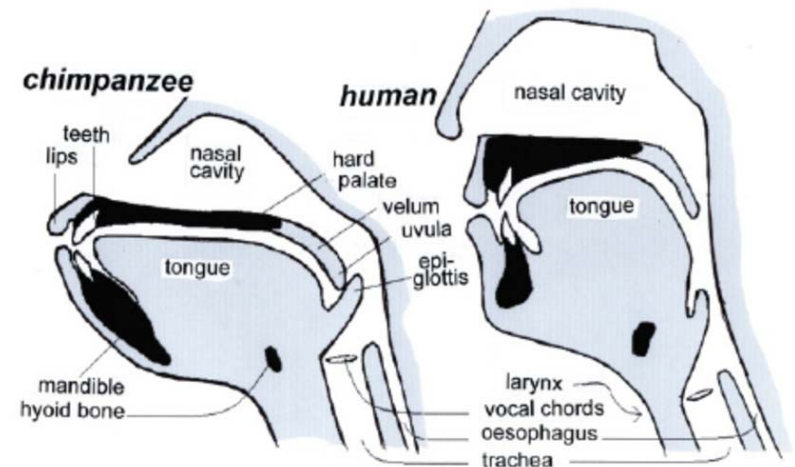
(Slide: Scharenborg, 2017)

- Specific to humans
- Allows us to convey information very fast
- Central role in many other language-related processes
- One of the most complex skills humans perform:
 - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DcNMCB-Gsn8>
 - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KtN-FCOeWjl>

Evolution of the vocal tract

(Slide: Scharenborg, 2017)

- Lowering of the tongue into the pharynx → lowering of the larynx
- Lengthening of the neck
- At the cost of an increase in the risk of choking on food



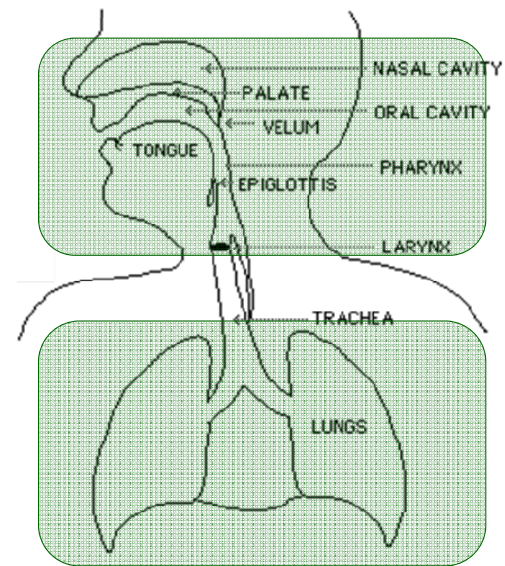
- Neanderthals were not capable of human speech
- Modern human vocal tract: since 50,000 years

The anatomy and physiology of speech

(Slide: Scharenborg, 2017)

Vocal tract

- Area between vocal cords and lips
- Pharynx + nasal cavity
+ oral cavity



and lungs

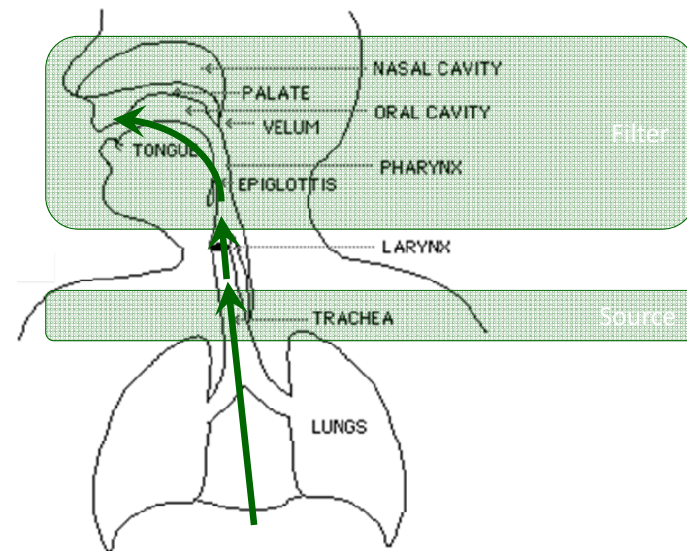
3 steps to produce sounds

(Slide: Scharenborg, 2017)

step 3: *articulation* =
distortion of air
→ time-varying formant-frequency
pattern
= speech

step 2: *phonation*

step 1: *initiation*



The Source-Filter Model of Speech Production

(Chiba & Kajiyama, 1940)

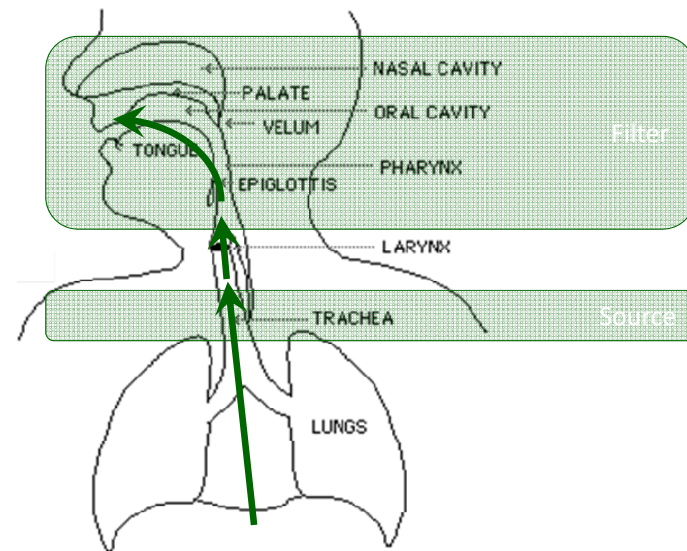
- Sources: there are only three, all of them have wideband spectrum
 - Voicing: vibration of the vocal folds, same type of aerodynamic mechanism as a flag flapping in the wind.
 - Frication or Aspiration: turbulence created when air passes through a narrow aperture
 - Burst: the “pop” that occurs when high air pressure is suddenly released
- Filter:
 - Vocal tract = the air cavity between glottis and lips
 - Just like a flute or a shower stall, it has resonances
 - The excitation has energy at all frequencies; excitation at the resonant frequencies is enhanced

3 steps to produce sounds

step 3: *articulation* =
distortion of air
→ time-varying formant-frequency
pattern
= speech

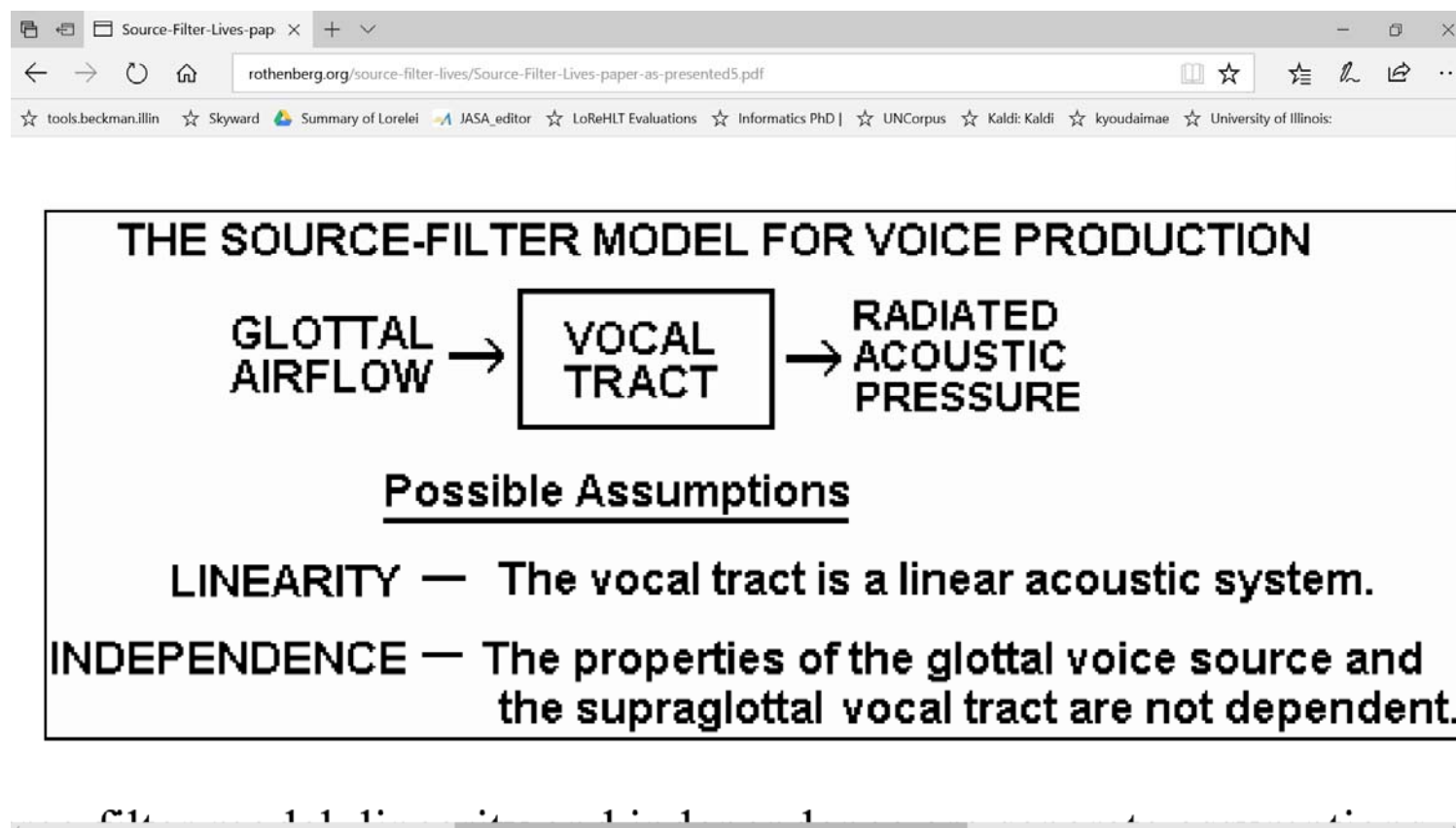
step 2: *phonation*

step 1: *initiation*



The Source-Filter Model of Speech Production

A picture from Martin Rothenberg's website



The Source-Filter Model

- The speech signal, $s(t)$, is created by convolving (*) an excitation signal $e(t)$ through a vocal tract transfer function $h(t)$

$$s(t) = h(t) * e(t)$$

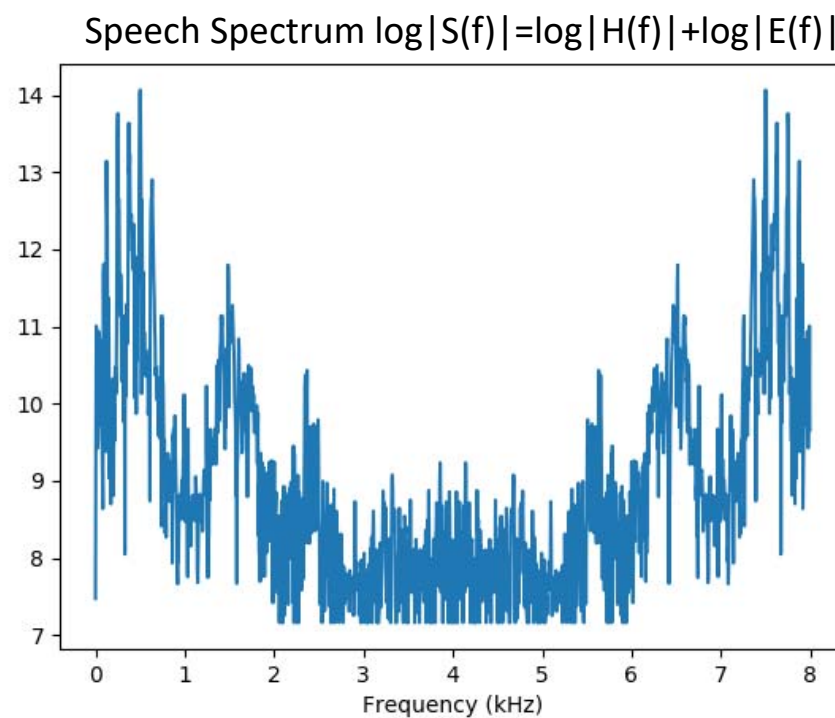
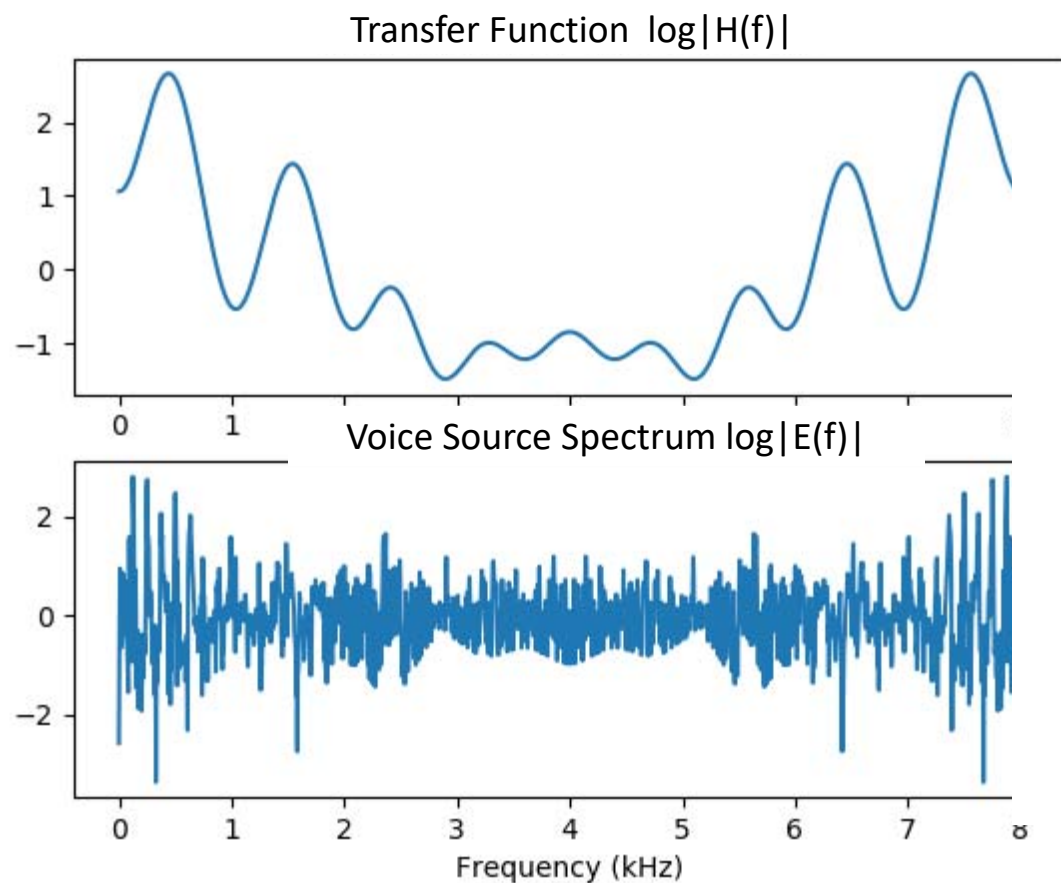
- The Fourier transform of speech is therefore the product of excitation times transfer function:

$$S(f) = H(f)E(f)$$

...engineers usually compute Fourier transform using $\Omega = 2\pi f$ rather than f . You can get one from the other if you remember that $d\Omega = 2\pi df$.

- Excitation includes all of the information about voicing, frication, or burst. Transfer function includes all of the information about the vocal tract resonances, which are called “formants.”

The Source-Filter Model



Source-Filter Model: Voice Source

- The most important thing about voiced excitation is that it is periodic, with a period called the “pitch period,” T_0
- It’s reasonable to model voiced excitation as a simple sequence of impulses, one impulse every T_0 seconds:

$$e(t) = \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(t - mT_0)$$

- The Fourier transform of an impulse train is an impulse train (to prove this: use Fourier series):

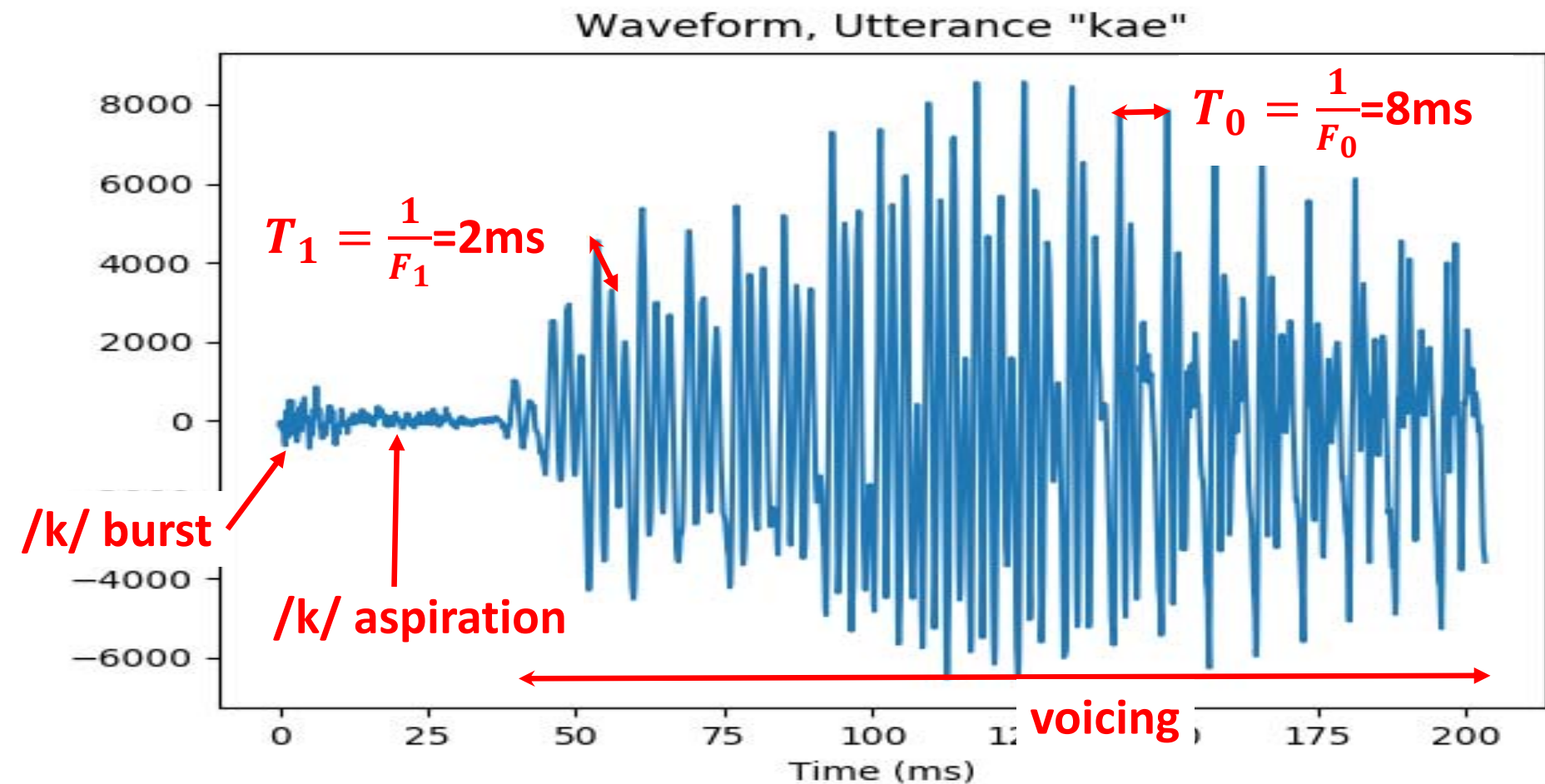
$$E(f) = \frac{1}{T_0} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(f - kF_0)$$

...where $F_0 = \frac{1}{T_0}$ is the pitch frequency. It’s the number of times per second that the vocal folds slap together.

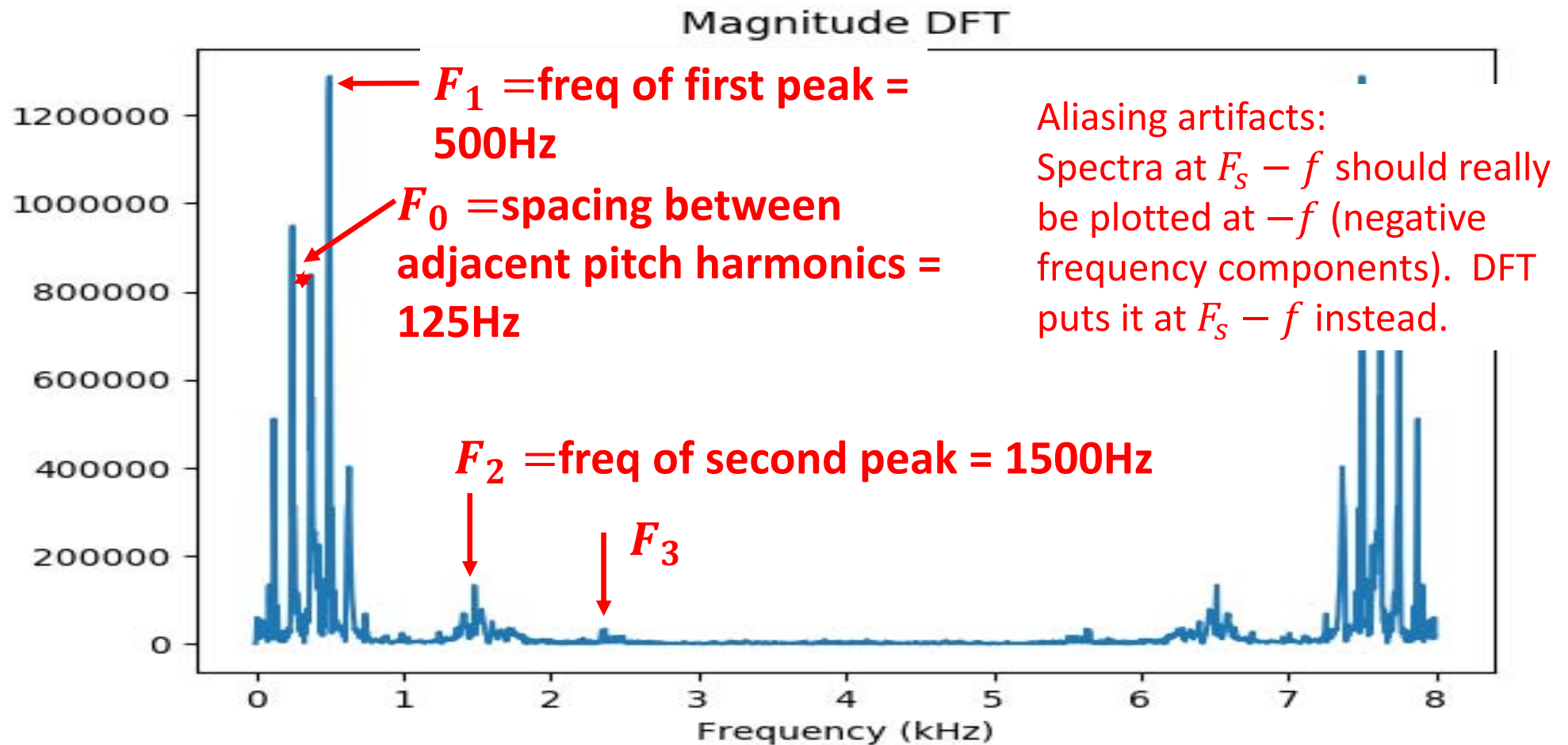
Source-Filter Model: Filter

- The vocal tract is just a tube. At most frequencies, it just passes the excitation signal with no modification at all ($H(f) = 1$).
- The important exception: the vocal tract has resonances, like a clarinet or a shower stall. These resonances are called “formant frequencies,” numbered in order: $F_1 < F_2 < F_3 < \dots$. Typically $0 < F_1 < 1000 < F_2 < 2000 < F_3 < 3000\text{Hz}$ and so on, but there are some exceptions.
- At the resonant frequencies, the resonance enhances the energy of the excitation, so the transfer function $H(f)$ is large at those frequencies, and small at other frequencies.

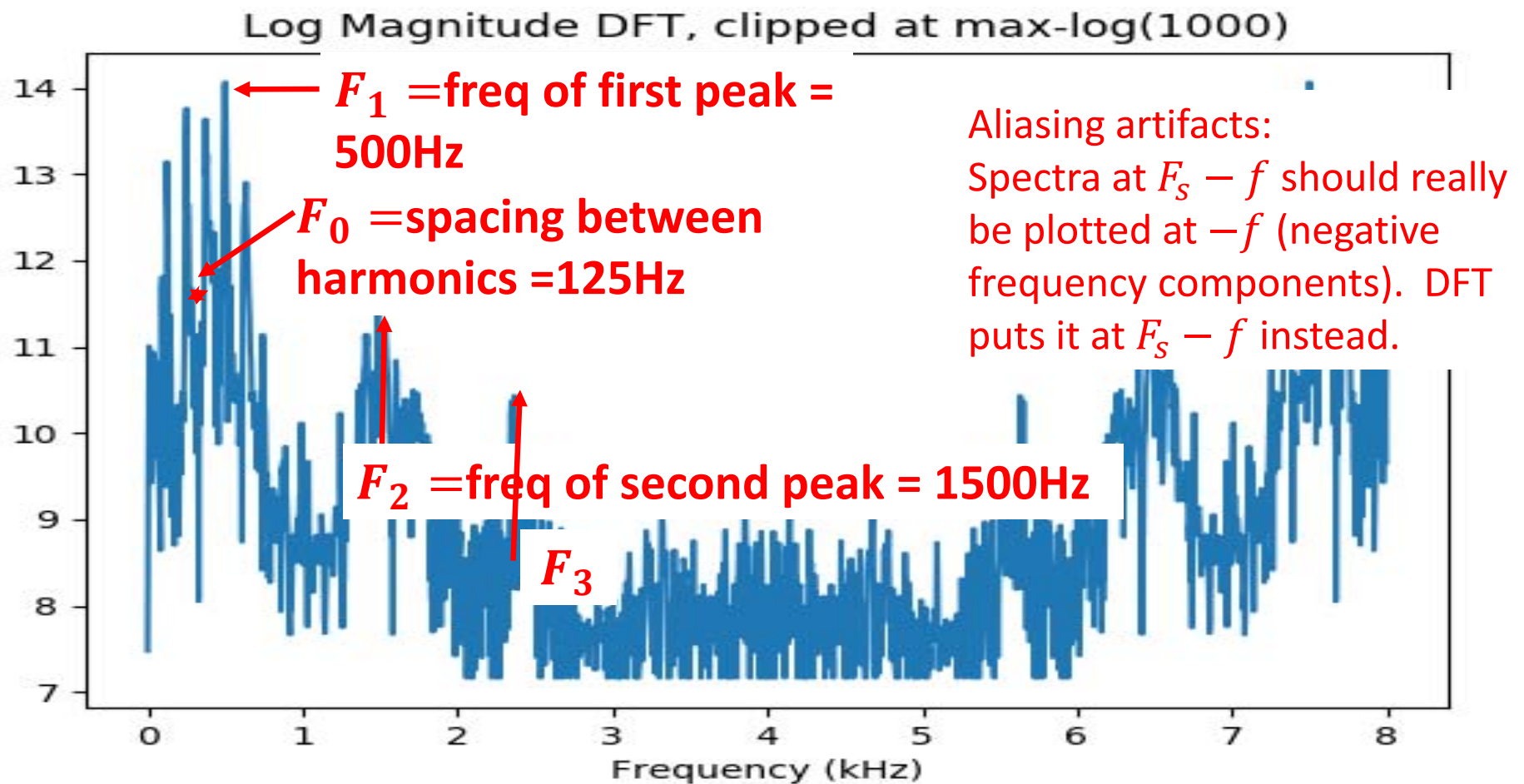
Speech signal: Time domain



Speech signal: Magnitude Fourier Transform



Speech signal: Log Magnitude Transform



Part 2: Linguistic units

Scharenborg, 2017

- Speech signal

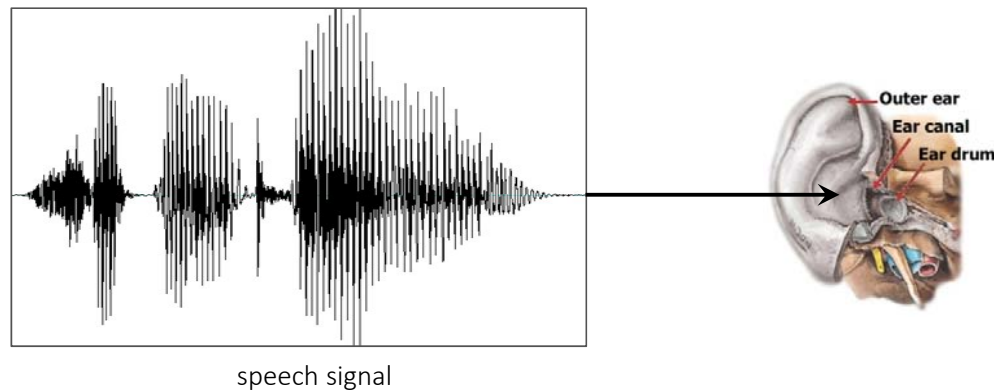
Linguistic units are:

- Phone(me)s
- Words

Linguistic units

Scharenborg, 2017

- Speech = sound
- Sound = differences in air pressure
- Air pressure waves perceived as different phone(me)s, phone(me) sequences, and (partial or multi) words
- Via eardrum, cochlea, and auditory nerve to brain



Some terminology

Scharenborg, 2017

- **Phoneme**: the smallest contrastive linguistic unit that distinguishes meaning, e.g.,
tip vs. *dip*
- **Allophone**: a variation of a phoneme, eg., *p^hot* vs. *spot*
- **Phone**: a distinct speech sound
- **Word**: the smallest distinct unit that can be uttered in isolation which has meaning

Speech sounds

Scharenborg, 2017

- Vowels: unblocked air stream
- Consonants: constricted or blocked air stream

Different sounds: Vowels

Scharenborg, 2017

- Tongue height:
 - Low: e.g., /a/
 - Mid: e.g., /e/
 - High: e.g., /i/
- Tongue advancement:
 - Front : e.g., /i/
 - Central : e.g., /ə/
 - Back : e.g., /u/
- Lip rounding:
 - Unrounded: e.g., /ɪ, ɛ, e, ə/
 - Rounded: e.g., /u, o, ɔ/
- Tense/lax:
 - Tense: e.g., /i, e, u, o, ɔ, ɑ/
 - Lax: e.g., /ɪ, ɛ, æ, ə/

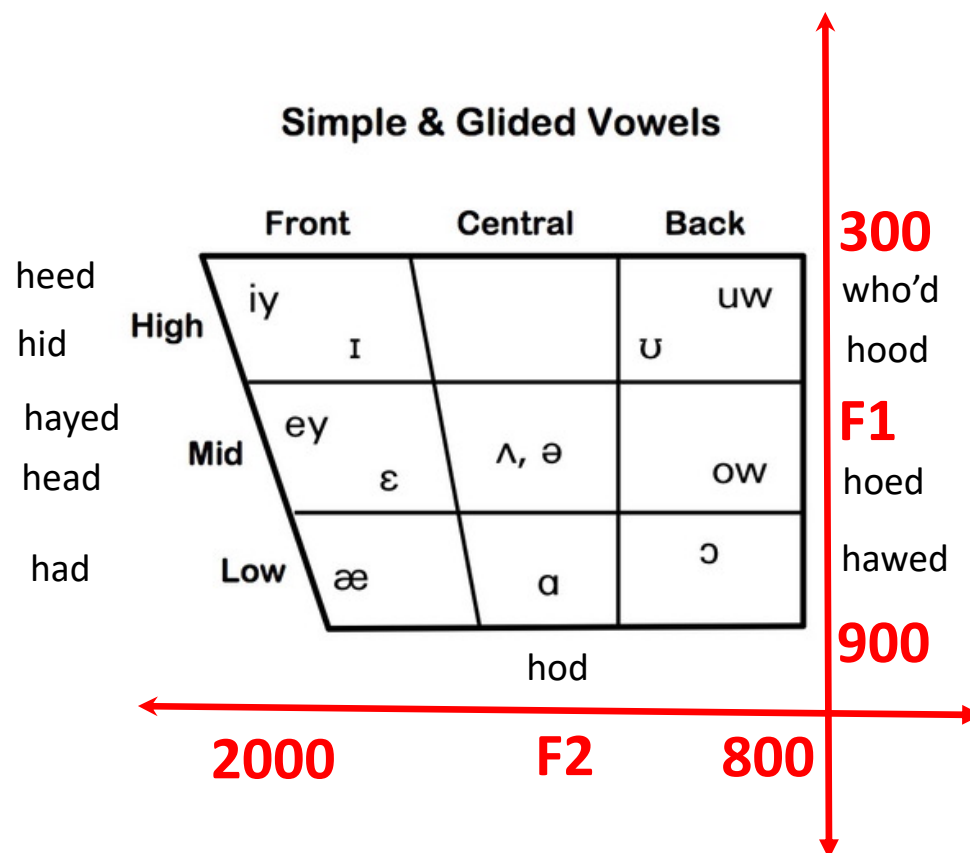
Simple & Glided Vowels

	Front	Central	Back	
heed	High iy ɪ		uw u	who'd
hid				hood
hayed	Mid ey ɛ	Λ, ə	ow o	hoed
head				
had	Low æ	ɑ	ɔ	hawed
		hod		

Different sounds: Vowels

Scharenborg, 2017

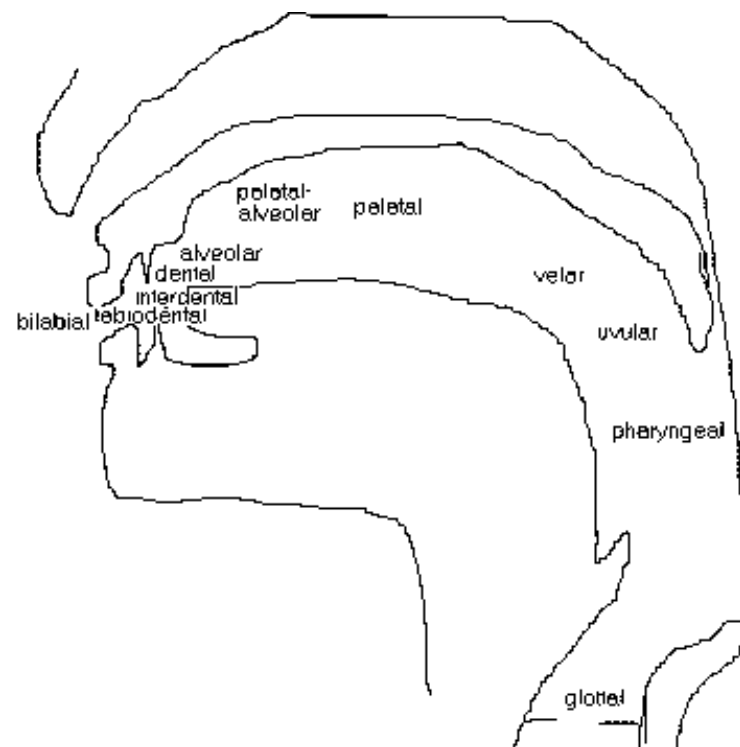
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Different sounds: Consonants

Scharenborg, 2017

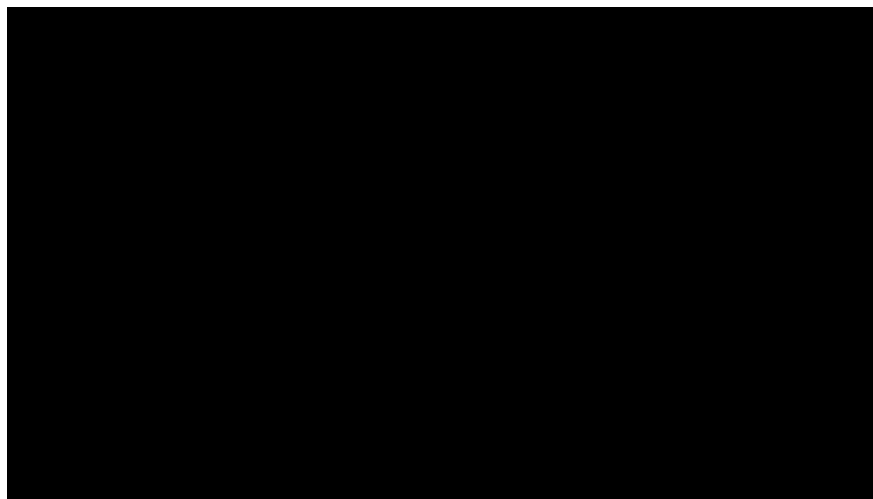
- Place of articulation
 - Where is the constriction/blocking of the air stream?
- Manner of articulation
 - Stops: /p, t, k, b, d, g/
 - Fricatives: /f, s, ʃ, v, z, ʒ/
 - Affricates: /tʃ, dʒ/
 - Approximants/Liquids: /l, r, w, j/
 - Nasals: /m, n, ŋ/
- Voicing



Speech sound production

Scharenborg, 2017

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DcNMCB-Gsn8>



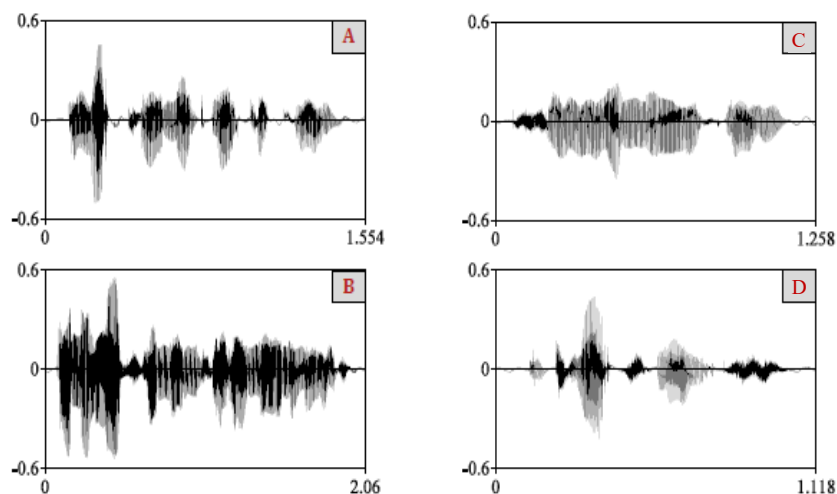
Recorded in 1962, Ken Stevens

Source: YouTube

Quiz 1: How many words are there?

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Each picture shows a waveform of a short stretch of speech:

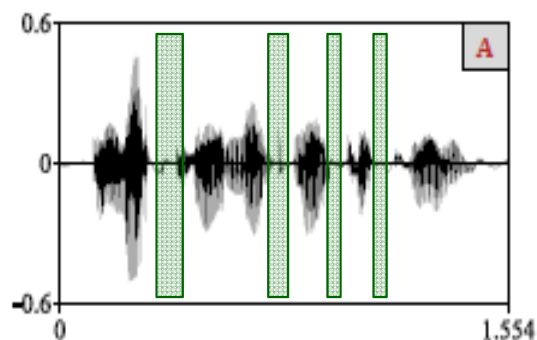


- A: Electromagnetically (1)
- B: Emma loves her mum's yellow marmelade (6)
- C: See you in the evening (5)
- D: Attachment (1)

Electromagnetically

Scharenborg, 2017

Why is it so hard to determine the number of words?

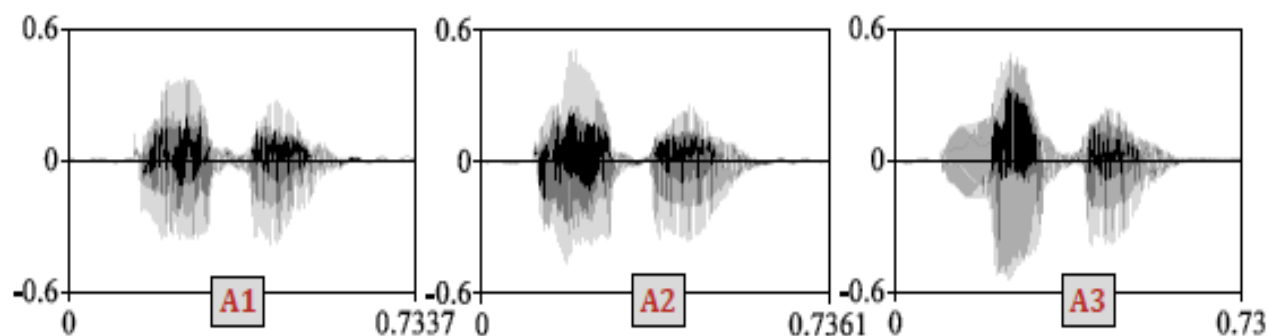


/i l ε kt romæ g nε t ɪ k ə l i/
silence ≠ word boundary

Quiz 2: Can you spot the odd one out?

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- Below are three waveforms each containing a single word:



Every time you produce a word it sounds differently

A3 (brother, brother, mother)

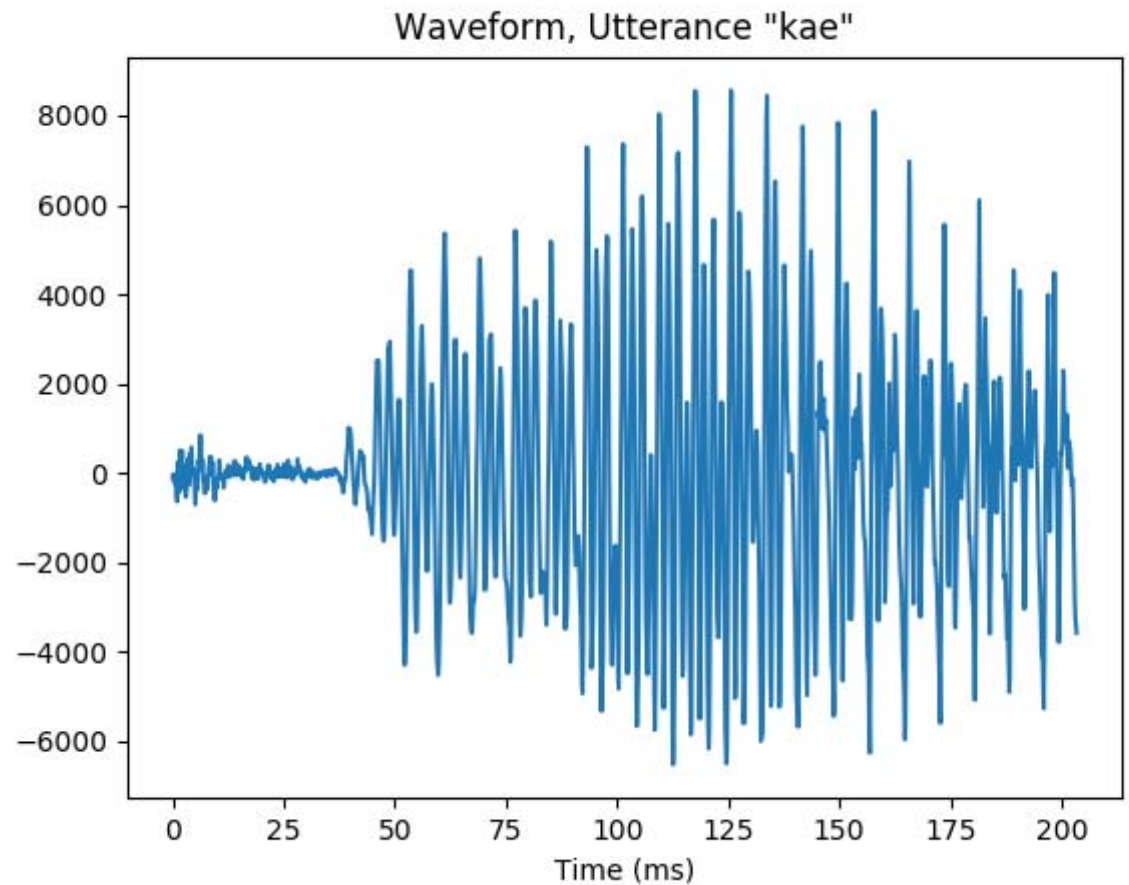
Enormous variability

Scharenborg, 2017

- Speaker differences, e.g., gender, vocal tract length, age
- Speaker idiosyncracies , e.g., lisp, creaky voice
- Accent: dialects, non-nativeness
- Coarticulation: production of a speech sound becomes more like that of a preceding/following speech sound
- Speaking style → reductions

Time domain signal: Hard to tell what he was saying

$$s(t) = h(t) * e(t)$$



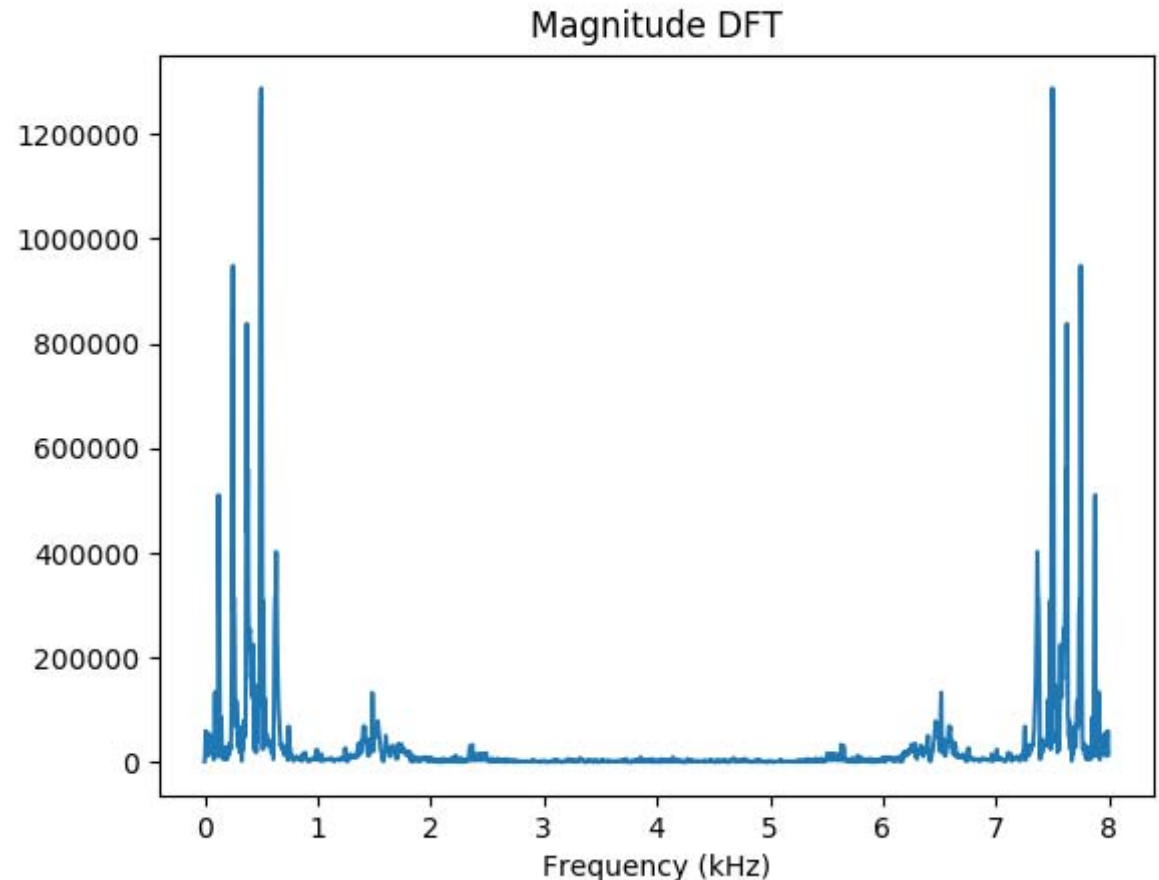
Magnitude spectrum: A little easier

$$S(f) = H(f)E(f)$$

Easier to measure
formants → easier to guess
what he's saying.

Still easy to measure
F0 → can still guess who he
is.

(Formants ≈ phone-
dependent, F0 ≈ person-
dependent, though there's
a lot of cross-talk)



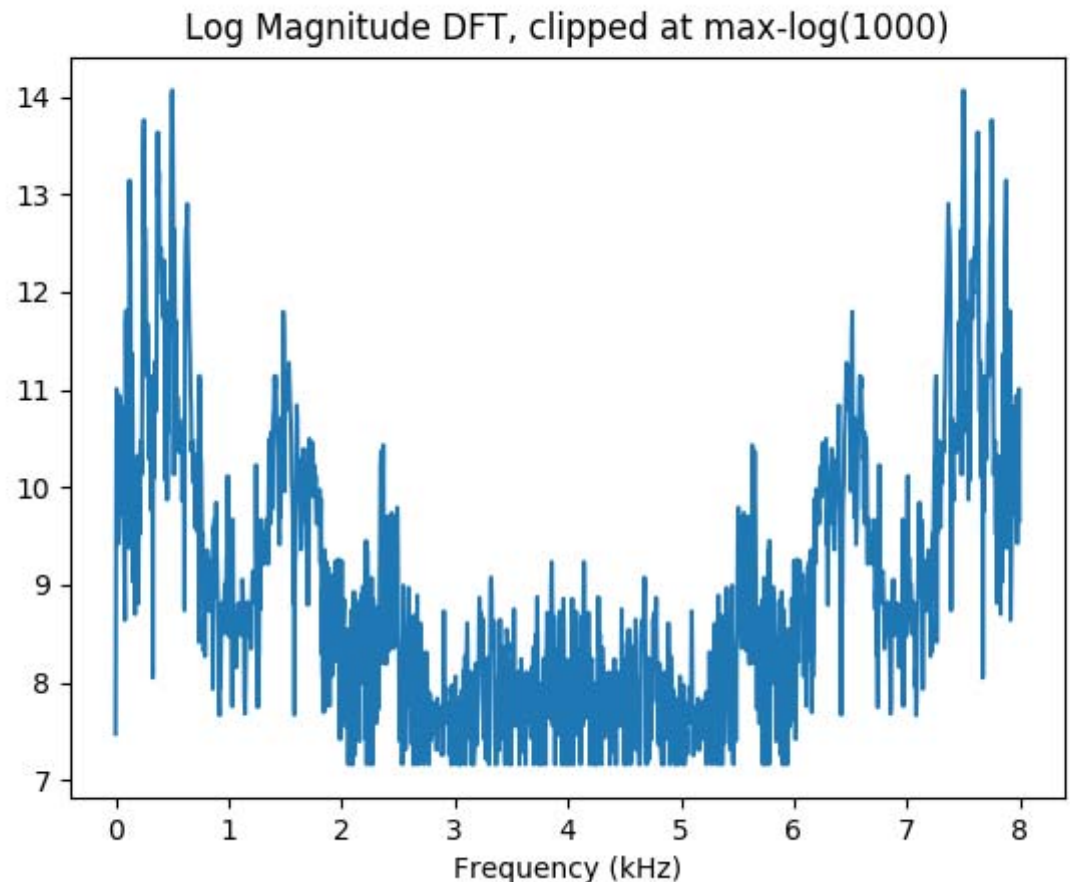
Log magnitude spectrum: A lot easier

$$\begin{aligned}\ln |S(f)| \\ &= \ln |H(f)| + \ln |E(f)|\end{aligned}$$

Easier to measure
formants \rightarrow easier to guess what
he's saying.

Still easy to measure $F_0 \rightarrow$ can
still guess who he is.

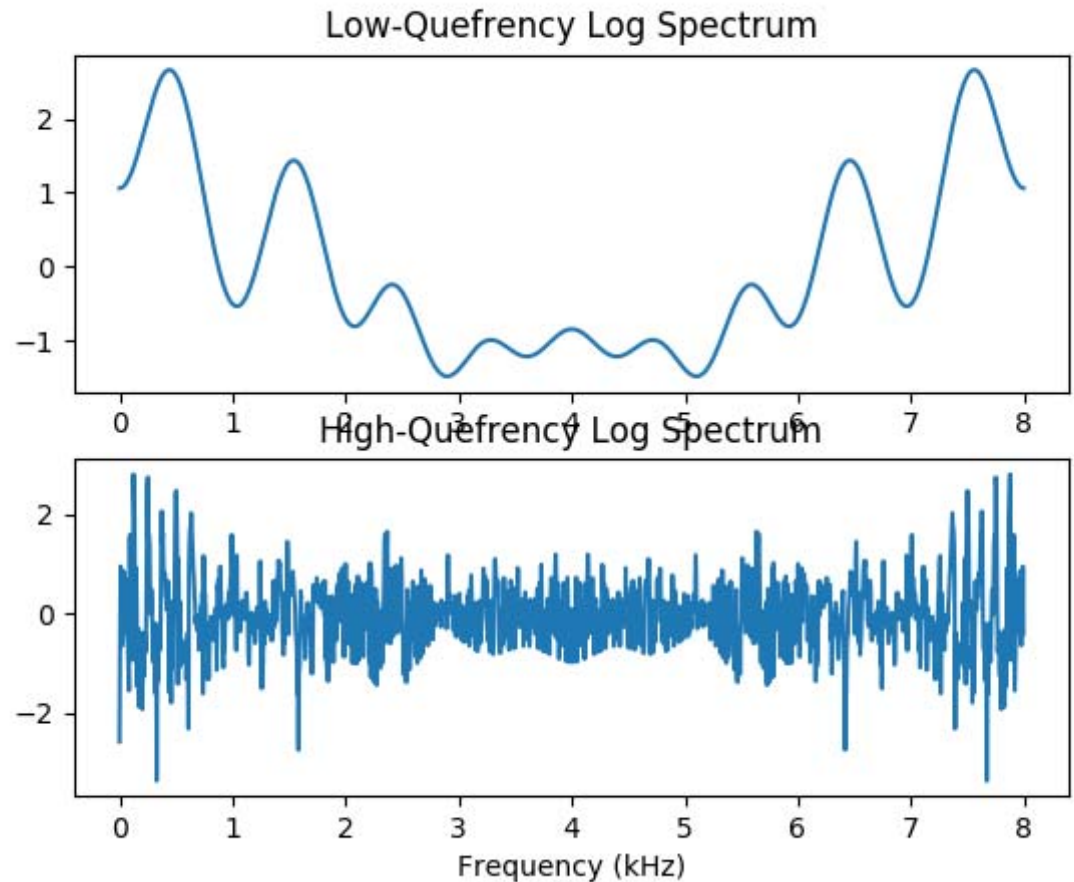
(Formants \approx phone-dependent,
 $F_0 \approx$ person-dependent, though
there's a lot of cross-talk)



Log spectrum = log filter + log excitation

$$\ln |S(f)| \\ = \ln |H(f)| + \ln |E(f)|$$

- But how can we separate the speech spectrum into the transfer function part, and the excitation part?
- Bogert, Healy & Tukey:
 - Excitation is high “quefrequency” (varies rapidly as a function of frequency)
 - Transfer function is low “quefrequency” (varies slowly as a function of frequency)



Cepstrum = inverse FFT of the log spectrum

(Bogert, Healy & Tukey, 1962)

$$\hat{s}[q] = IFFT(\ln |S(f)|)$$

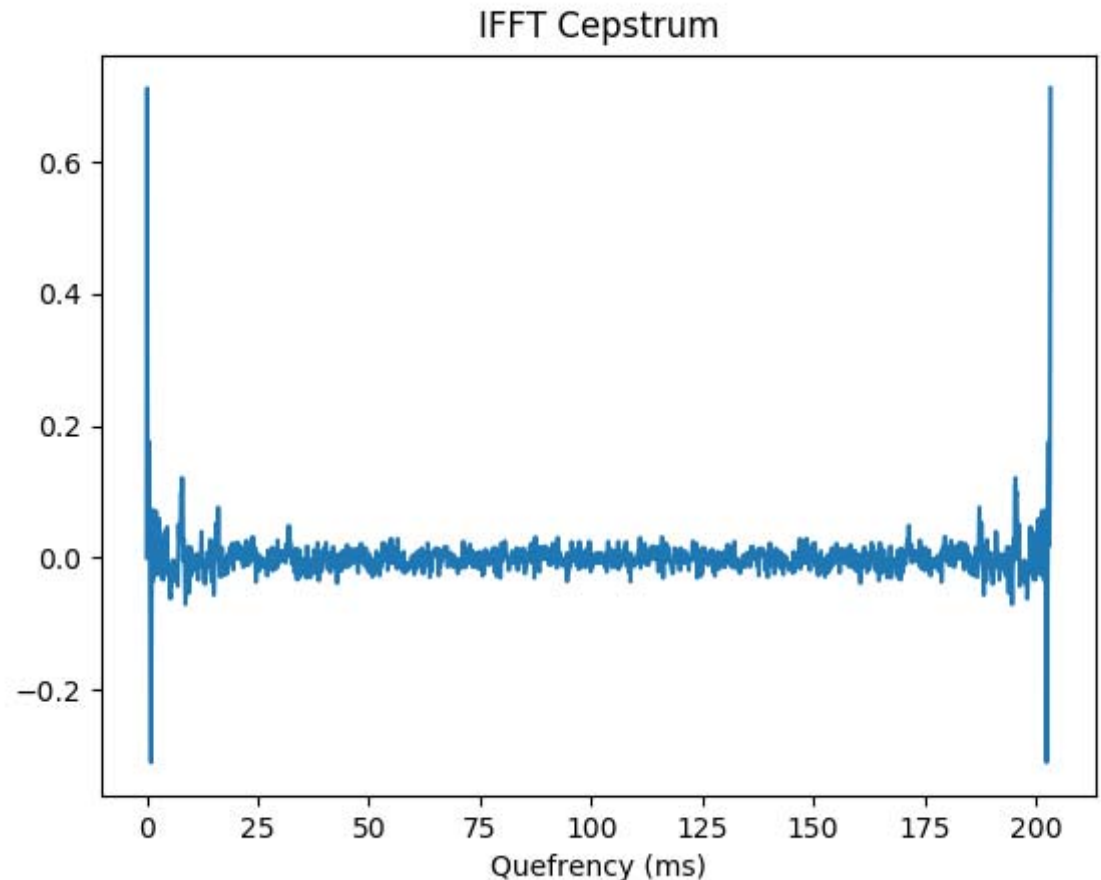
- q = quefrency. It has units of time.

- IFFT is linear, so since

$$\hat{s}[q] = \hat{h}[q] + \hat{e}[q]$$

...the transfer function and excitation are added together. All we need to do is separate two added signals.

- Transfer function and Excitation are separated into low-quefrency ($0 < q < 2\text{ms}$) and high-quefrency ($q > 2\text{ms}$) parts.



Liftering = filter(spectrum) = window(cepstrum)

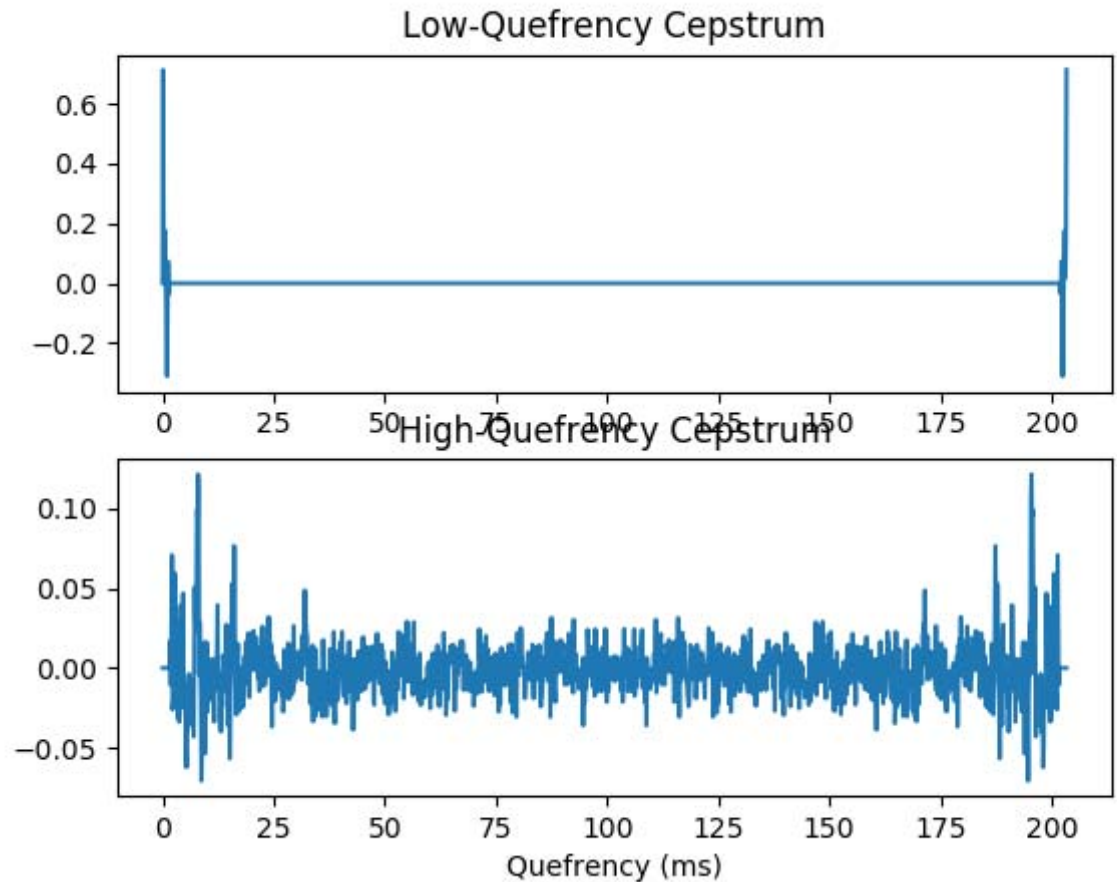
(Bogert, Healy & Tukey, 1962)

Transfer function and Excitation are separated into low-quefreny ($0 < q < 2ms$) and high-quefreny ($q > 2ms$) parts. So we can recover them by just windowing:

$$\hat{h}[q] \approx w[q]\hat{s}[q]$$

$$\hat{e}[q] \approx (1 - w[q])\hat{s}[q]$$

$$w[q] = \begin{cases} 1 & 0 < q < 2ms \\ 0 & q > 2ms \end{cases}$$



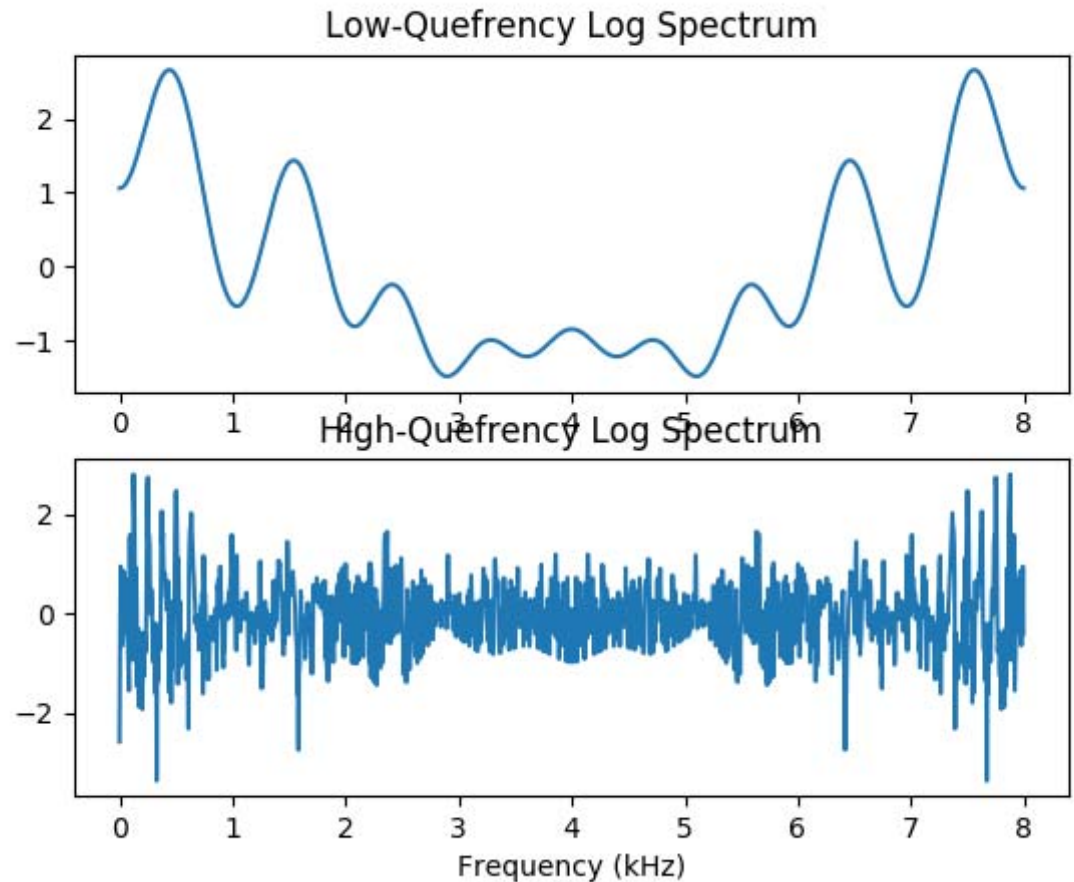
Liftering = filter(spectrum) = window(cepstrum)

(Bogert, Healy & Tukey, 1962)

Then we estimate the transfer function and excitation spectrum using the FFT:

$$\ln |H(f)| \approx FFT(\hat{h}[q])$$

$$\ln |E(f)| \approx FFT(\hat{e}[q])$$



Inverse Discrete Cosine Transform

- Log magnitude spectrum is symmetric: $\ln |S(f)| = \ln |S(-f)|$.
- In the IFFT definition, the real part is symmetric, and the imaginary part is antisymmetric. Suppose we define $S_k = \ln \left| S \left(\frac{kF_s}{N} \right) \right|$, then the definition of IFFT is

$$\hat{s}[q] = IFFT(\ln |S(f)|) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} S_k e^{j \frac{2\pi k q}{N}}$$

...but since S_k is real, $S_{N-k} = S_k$ so

$$\hat{s}[q] = \frac{S_0 - (-1)^q S_M}{2M} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^{M-1} S_k \cos \left(\frac{\pi k q}{M} \right)$$

This is called the “inverse discrete cosine transform” or IDCT. It’s half of the real symmetric IFFT of a real symmetric signal. (note $M=N/2$).

Type I DCT, IDCT, and Parseval's Theorem

$$S_k = \frac{\hat{s}[0] - (-1)^k \hat{s}[M]}{2} + \sum_{q=1}^{M-1} \hat{s}[q] \cos\left(\frac{\pi k q}{M}\right)$$

$$\hat{s}[q] = \frac{S_0 - (-1)^q S_M}{2M} + \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^{M-1} S_k \cos\left(\frac{\pi k q}{M}\right)$$

$$\hat{s}[0]^2 + \hat{s}[M]^2 + 2 \sum_{q=1}^{M-1} \hat{s}[q]^2 = \frac{1}{2M} \left(S_0^2 + S_M^2 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{M-1} S_k^2 \right)$$

Type II Discrete Cosine Transform

- Suppose we define $C_k = \ln \left| S \left(\frac{(k+0.5)F_s}{N} \right) \right|$, and $c[n] = M\hat{s}[n]$. Then

$$c[n] = \frac{N}{2} IFFT(\ln |S(f)|) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} C_k e^{j \frac{2\pi(k+0.5)n}{N}}$$

...but now $S_{N-1-k} = S_k$ so

$$c[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} C_k \cos \left(\frac{\pi(k+0.5)n}{M} \right)$$

This is called the “Type II DCT,” and it’s a lot more common than the Type I DCT because it eliminates the special handling of the $k=0$ and $k=M$ terms.

Type II DCT, IDCT, and Parseval's Theorem

$$c[n] = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} C_k \cos\left(\frac{\pi(k + 0.5)n}{M}\right)$$

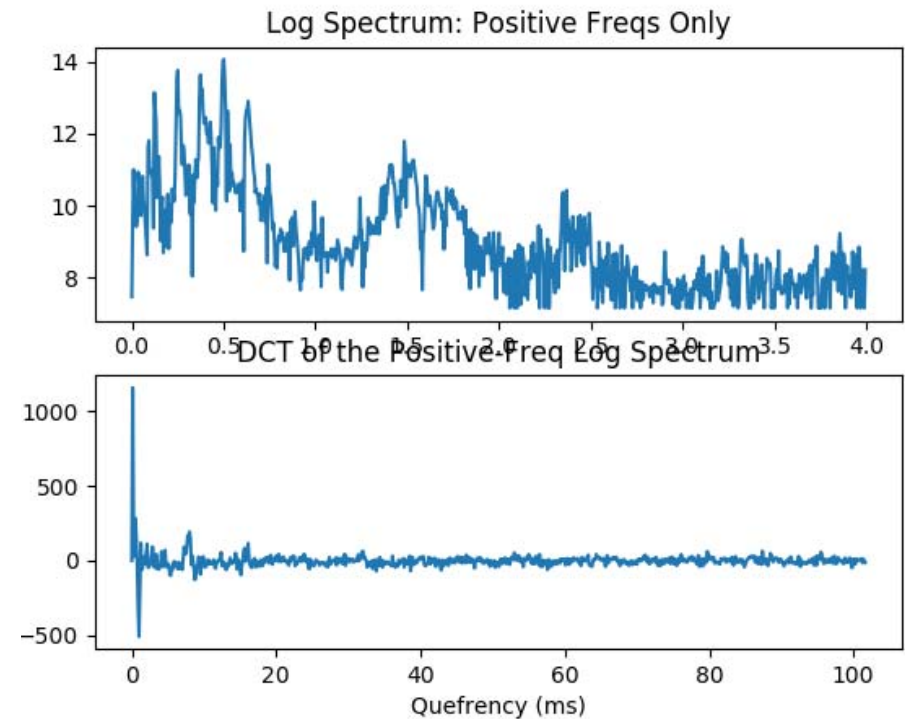
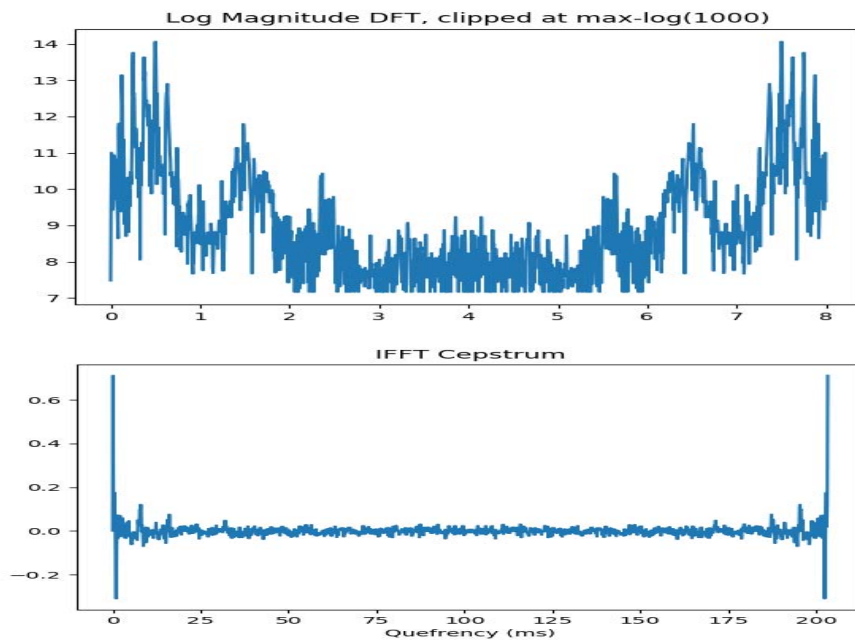
$$C_k = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M-1} c[n] \cos\left(\frac{\pi(k + 0.5)n}{M}\right)$$

$$\frac{1}{M} \left(c[0]^2 + 2 \sum_{n=1}^{M-1} c[n]^2 \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} C_k^2$$

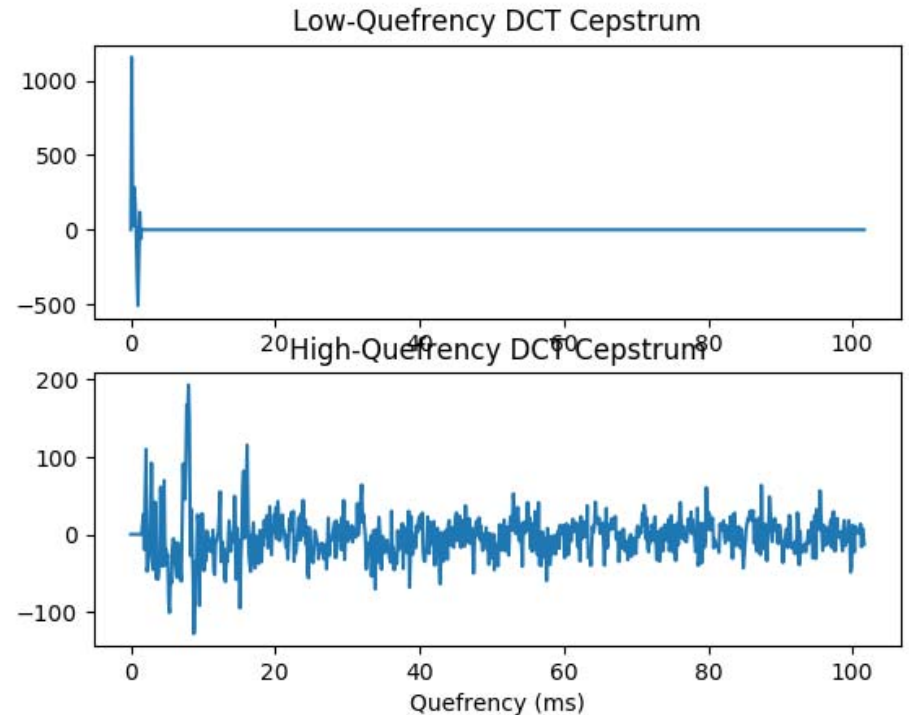
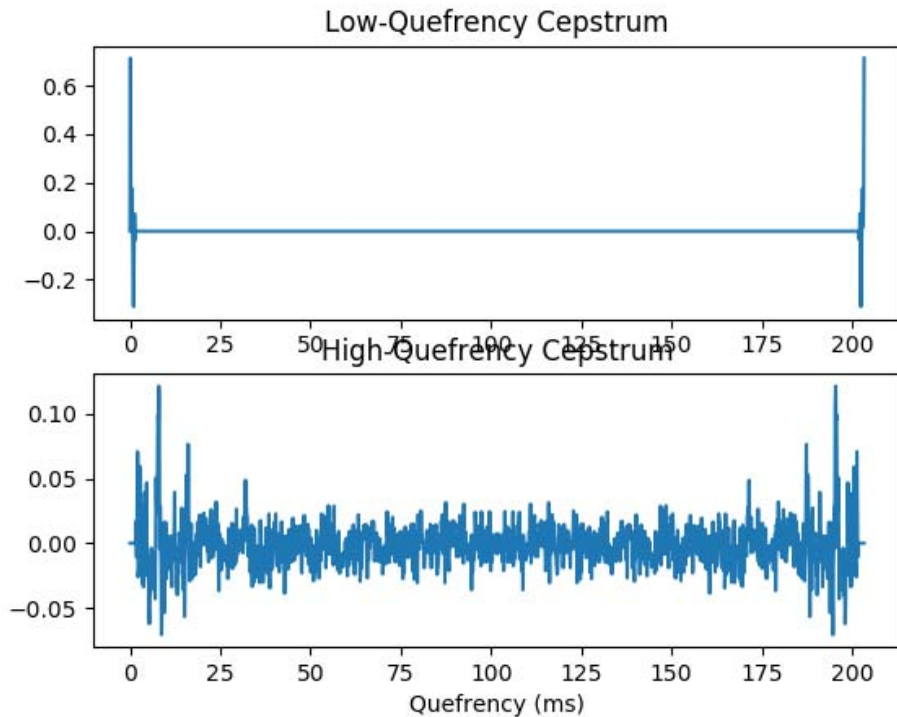
Details about type II DCT

- It was defined as $C_k = \ln \left| S \left(\frac{(k+0.5)F_s}{N} \right) \right|$, but in practice we usually just use the FFT coefficients, $C_k \approx \ln \left| S \left(\frac{kF_s}{N} \right) \right|$. This approximation has no real impact on automatic speech recognition, but it might have some impact on pitch tracking – if you're trying to find out exactly what is the pitch frequency, then shifting by $\frac{F_s}{2N}$ might matter.
- The DCT and IDCT formulas are now easy, but Parseval's theorem still has a funny extra term for $c[0]$. But it doesn't matter because...
- Remember $c[0] = \sum_{k=0}^{M-1} C_k$ is the average log magnitude of the spectrum, i.e., a measure of the loudness. Loudness can be increased by just turning up the volume on the microphone, so we probably want to treat $c[0]$ differently from all of the other $c[n]$.

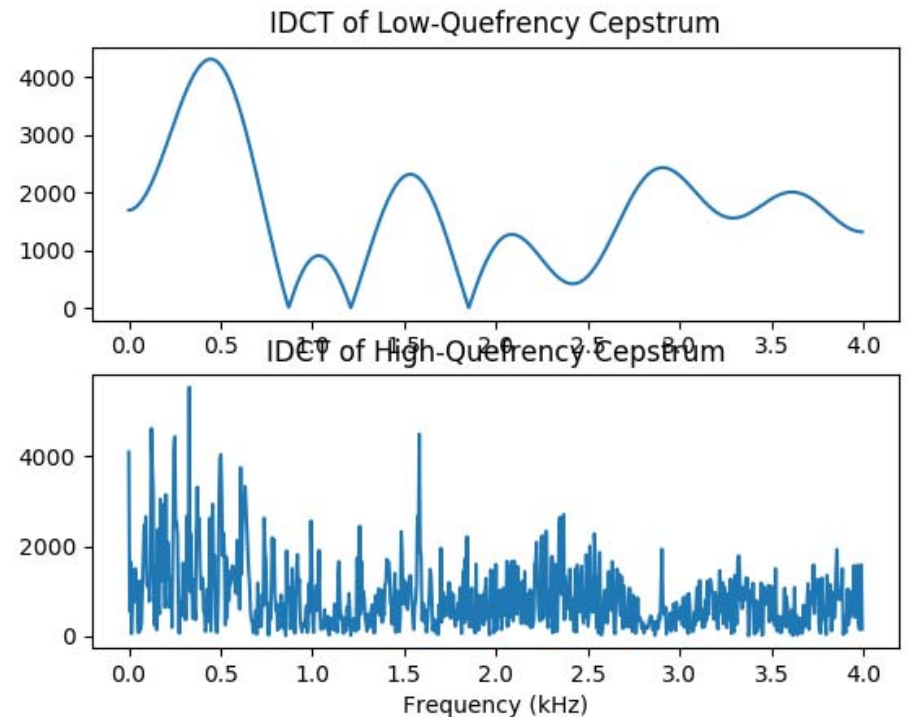
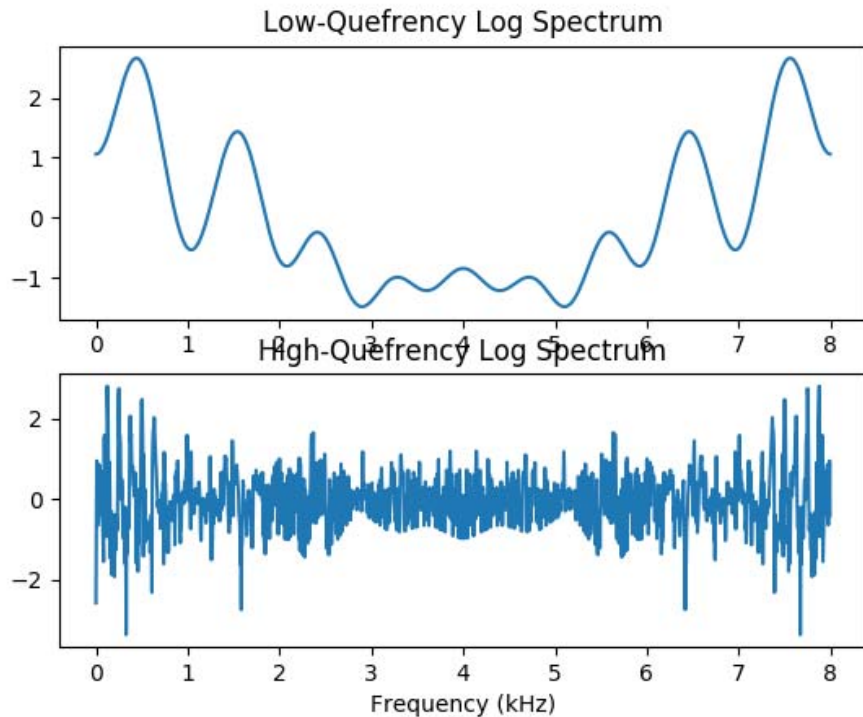
Discrete Cosine Transform = Half of the real symmetric IFFT of a real symmetric signal



Lifter = window the IFFT (left) or DCT (right) cepstrum

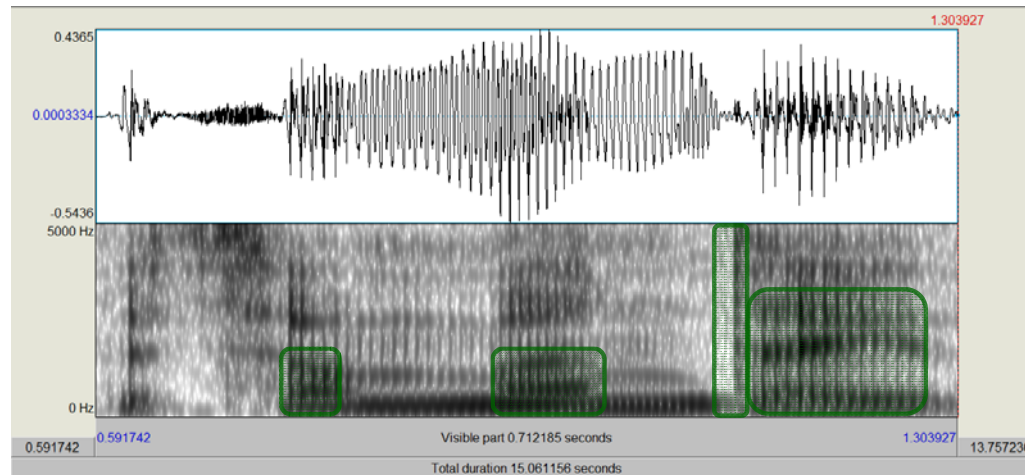


Both kinds of liftering give the same transfer function and excitation estimates



Spectrogram: $\ln(\text{energy}(\text{frequency}, \text{time}))$

Scharenborg, 2017



bu t o nM o n d a y

Spectrum lets you measure formants, so it gives some information about vowels. Timing is important to know about consonants.

Spectrogram = time on the horizontal axis, frequency on vertical axis.

Summary

- Source-filter model: $S(f) = H(f)E(f)$
 - Voiced excitation is an impulse train in time (with period = the pitch period T_0), whose Fourier transform is an impulse train in frequency (with inter-harmonic spacing equal to the pitch frequency F_0)
 - Transfer function is nearly $H(f) = 1$ at most frequencies, but with big peaks near the resonant frequencies, which are called formants
- Phones, phonemes, and allophones
- Estimating the transfer function and excitation
 - $\ln |S(f)| = \ln |H(f)| + \ln |E(f)|$
 - The transfer function is low-frequency, excitation is high-frequency
 - Cepstrum = $IFFT(\ln |S(f)|) = DCT(\ln |S(f)|)$
 - Liftering = windowing the cepstrum
 - DCT = half of the real symmetric IFFT of a real symmetric signal