# **L2: Speech production and perception**

Anatomy of the speech organs Models of speech production Anatomy of the ear Auditory psychophysics

# Anatomy of the speech organs

# The speech organs can be broadly divided into three groups

- <u>Lungs</u>: serve as a "power supply" and provides airflow to the larynx
- <u>Vocal chords (Larynx)</u>: modulate the airflow into either a <u>periodic</u> sequence of puffs or a <u>noisy</u> airflow source
  - A third type of source is <u>impulsive</u>
  - Exercise, say the word "shop" and determine where each sound occurs
- <u>Vocal tract</u>: converts modulated airflow into spectrally "colored" signal



# The vocal tract

# The vocal tract can further be divided into

- <u>Velum (soft palate)</u>: controls airflow through the nasal cavity. In its open position is used for "nasals" (i.e., [n], [m]).
- <u>Hard palate</u>: hard surface at the roof of the mouth. When tongue is pressed against it, leads to consonants
- <u>Tongue</u>: Away from the palate produces vowels; close to or pressing the palate leads to consonants
- <u>Teeth</u>: used to brace the tongue for certain consonants
- <u>Lips</u>: can be rounded or spread to shape consonant quality, or closed completely to produce certain consonants (i.e., [p], [b], [m])





# The vocal folds

# Two masses of flesh, ligament and muscle across the larynx

- Fixed at the front of the larynx but free to move at the back and sides
- Can be in one of three primary states
  - <u>Breathing</u>: Glottis is wide, muscles are relaxed, and air flows with minimal obstruction
  - <u>Voicing</u>: vocal folds are tense and are brought up together. Pressure builds up behind, leading to an oscillatory opening of the folds (<u>video</u>)
  - <u>Unvoiced</u>: similar to breathing state, but folds are closer, which leads to turbulences (i.e. aspiration, as in the sound [h] in '<u>h</u>e') or whispering



http://academic.kellogg.edu/herbrandsonc/bio201\_mckinl ey/f25-5b\_vocal\_folds\_lary\_c.jpg



http://biorobotics.harvard.edu/research/heather2.gif

## **Other (minor) forms of voicing include**

- Hoarse voice: voicing period (pitch) jitters, as what results from laryngitis or a cold
- Breathy voice: aspiration occurs simultaneously while voicing (audio)
- Creaky voice: vocal folds are very tense and only a portion oscillates.
   Result is a harsh sounding voice (<u>audio</u>)
- Vocal fry: folds are very relaxed, which leads to secondary glottal pulses (video)
- Diplophonic: secondary pulses occur, but during the closed phase



# **Models of speech production**

# Acoustic theory of speech production

- Speech occurs when a source signal passing through the glottis is modified by the vocal tract acting as a filter
- Models of this kind are generally known as *source-filter* models
- Using the theory of linear time invariant (LTI) systems, the overall process can be modeled in the z-domain (see lecture 4) as

Y(z) = U(z)P(z)O(z)R(z)

- where U(z) is the glottal <u>source</u>, and P(z), O(z), R(z) are the transfer functions at the pharynx, oral cavity and lips
- which can be simplified as

Y(z) = U(z)V(z)R(z)

 by combining P(z) and O(z) into a single vocal-tract transfer function, which represents the <u>filter</u> component of the model



# The physics of sounds

#### **Resonant systems**

- Consider the mass spring shown below
  - If you displace the mass, the system will try to return to its rest position
  - In the process, it will lead to oscillations around the rest position
  - Due to frictions, the mass will eventually settle onto the rest position
- Now consider a periodic forcing function being applied
  - At a certain frequency  $f_R$ , the size of the oscillations will increase over time rather than decrease
  - Eventually, and in the absence of other factors, the system will break
  - Frequency  $f_R$  is known as the resonant frequency of the system

$$f_{R} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

# **The Tacoma Narrows Bridge**



## **Travelling and standing waves**

- Consider a person holding a rope fixed to a wall on the opposite end
  - The person gives a jerk to the rope, and as a result a wave forms and starts travelling down the rope
  - When the rope reaches the wall, it is reflected and begins to travel back towards the person
  - When it reaches the person, the wave is reflected back towards the wall
  - This process goes on until all energy in the rope dissipates



#### Now consider the person performs a repetitive movement

- The forward and backward wave will interfere, which may lead to full cancellation (if the two waves are in anti-phase)
- At some frequencies, the reflected wave will reinforce the forward wave, and the rope settles into a fixed pattern
- The resulting wave will appear not to be moving at all (a standing wave)
- Thus the rope acts as a resonator: it amplifies some waves and attenuates others





http://www.cccc.edu/instruction/slympany/ELN/236/ Mod7/loet01-07-06new.gif

- What determines the behavior of the system?
  - The frequency of the oscillations is determined entirely by the hand
  - The rate of travel of the wave is determined entirely by the rope
  - Boundary conditions: whether the rope is fixed or free at each end.
- What is the relationship with the speech signal?
  - The hand acts as the source (the glottal pulses)
  - The rope acts as the filter (the vocal tract)

## **Acoustic waves**

- Properties of sound waves traveling in a tube (i.e., vocal tract) are similar to those moving down a rope
  - The effect of a sound source causes air particles to move back and forth, so the wave spreads from the source
    - In some areas, particles come close together (compression) whereas in others they move further apart (rarefaction).
  - One difference is that sound waves are longitudinal whereas those in a rope are transverse, but otherwise the same mathematical model can be used for both systems



[Taylor, 2009]

## Acoustic reflection and tube models

- As with the rope, boundary conditions in the tube will determine how acoustic waves are reflected at the end of the tube
  - At certain frequencies, determined by the length of the tube and the speed of sound, the backward and forward waves will reinforce each other and cause resonances
- We can model the volume velocity (e.g., particle velocity × area) at position x and time t as:



$$u(x,t) = u^{+}(t - x/c) - u^{-}(t + x/c)$$

- where  $u^+(t)$  and  $u^-(t)$  are the forward- and backward-travelling waves, and c is the speed of sound
- And the pressure becomes

$$p(x,t) = \frac{\rho c}{A} (u^+(t - x/c) + u^-(t + x/c))$$

- where  $\rho c/A$  is the characteristic <u>impedance</u> of the tube
- Notice how in this case the two waves add up as they meet at point x

- If the area of the tube remains constant, the wave propagates through the tube
- However, if the area changes, then the impedance changes, which causes reflection, which in turn leads to standing waves, which then cause resonances
- Thus, the impedance pattern on the tube determines the resonance properties of the model



http://www.livingcontrolsystems.com/fests chrift/nevin\_files/image015.jpg

- The vocal tract can then be modeled as a series of short uniform tubes connected in series
  - By increasing the number of tubes, the vocal tract can be modeled with arbitrary accuracy
  - As we will see in linear predictive coding (lecture 7), a tube model with N sections leads to N/2 resonances, so in practice only a few tube sections are needed to model the main formants in the speech signal



http://www.gregandmel.net/burnett\_thesis/2\_3.ht7.jpg



# Anatomy of the ear

# There are two major components in auditory system

- The peripheral auditory organs (the ear)
  - Converts sounds pressure into mechanical vibration patterns, which then are transformed into neuron firings
- The auditory nervous system (the brain)
  - Extracts perceptual information in various stages
- We will focus on the peripheral auditory organ

# The ear can be further divided into

- Outer ear:
  - Encompasses the pinna (outer cartilage), auditory canal, and eardrum
  - Transforms sound pressure into vibrations
- Middle ear:
  - Consists of three bones: malleus, incus and stapes
  - Transport eardrum vibrations to the inner ear
- Inner ear:
  - Consists of the cochlea
  - Transforms vibrations into spike trains at the basilar membrane



http://www.bissy.scot.nhs.uk/master\_code/pilsinl/042.gif

# The cochlea

- A tube coiled in a snake-shaped spiral
- Inside filled with gelatinous fluid
- Running along its length is the basilar membrane
- Along the BM are located approx. 10,000 inner hair cells

# Signal transduction

- Vibrations of the eardrum cause movement in the oval window
- This causes a compression sound wave in the cochlear fluid
- This causes vertical vibration of basilar membrane
- This causes deflections in the inner hair cells, which then fire

# **Frequency tuning**

- BM is stiff/thin at basal end (stapes), but compliant/massive at apex
- Thus, traveling waves peak at different positions along BM
- As a result, BM can be modeled as a filter bank (video)



hlea\_with\_basilar\_membrane.png



http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/sound/cochimp.html



[Rabiner & Schafer, 2007]

# **Auditory psychophysics**

# Psychoacoustics is concerned with quantitative modeling of human auditory perception

- How does the ear respond to different intensities and frequencies?
- How well does it focus on a sound of interest in the presence of interfering sounds?



# **Thresholds**

http://msis.jsc.nasa.gov/images/Section04/Image126.gif

- The ear is capable of hearing sounds in the range of <u>16Hz to 18kHz</u>
- Intensity is measured in terms of sound pressure levels (SPL) in units of decibels (dB)
- Hearing threshold: Minimum intensity at which a sound is perceived
  - Sounds below 1kHz or above 5kHz have increasingly higher thresholds
  - Threshold is nearly constant across most speech frequencies (700Hz-7kHz)

#### **SPL and loudness**

- As with other sensory systems (seeing, smelling), auditory sensations increase logarithmically with the intensity of the stimulus
- The relation between sound pressure *p*, sound intensity *I* and loudness
   S follows Steven's power law

 $S \propto p^{0.6} \propto I^{0.3}$ 

- where the unit of S is the sone, and the proportionality constant implied by the equation is frequency dependent
- The ear is most sensitive to tones around 4kHz
  - Each loudness contour corresponds to a unit of a phons (the SPL in dB of a 1kHz tone)



## Masking

- A phenomenon whereby the perception of a sound is obscured by the presence of another (i.e., the latter raises the threshold of the former)
- Masking is the major non-linear phenomenon that prevents treating the perception of speech sounds as a summation of responses

# Two types of masking phenomena

- Frequency masking
  - A lower frequency sound generally masks a higher frequency one
  - Leads to the concept of critical bands (next)
- Temporal masking
  - Sounds delayed wrt one another can cause masking of either sound
  - Pre-masking tends to last 5ms; post-masking can last up to 50-300ms

**Frequency** masking

#### **Temporal masking**



http://homepage.mac.com/marc.heijligers/audio/ipod/compression/e ncoding/encoding.html

Introduction to Speech Processing | Ricardo Gutierrez-Osuna | CSE@TAMU

# **Critical bands**

- For a given frequency, the critical band is the smallest band of frequencies around it which activate the same part of the BM
  - Critical bandwidths correspond to about 1.5 mm spacing along the BM
  - This suggests that a set of 24 bandpass filters (with increasing bandwidth with frequency) would model the BM well
- If a signal and masker are presented simultaneously, only the masker frequencies within the CB contribute to masking of the signal
  - The amount of masking is equal to the total energy of the masker within the CB of the probe



#### How can you test a critical band experimentally?

- Take a band-limited noise signal with a center frequency of 2 kHz, and play it alongside a sinusoidal 2 kHz tone
- Make the tone very quiet relative to the noise
  - You will not be able to detect the tone because the noise signal will mask it
  - Now, turn up the level of the tone until you can hear it and write down its level
- Increase the bandwidth of the noise (w/o turning up its level) and repeat
  - You'll find that your threshold for detecting the tone will be higher
  - In other words, if the bandwidth of the masking signal is increased, you have to turn up the tone more in order to be able to hear it

#### - Increase the bandwidth and do the experiment over and over

- As you increase the bandwidth of the masker, the detection threshold of the tone will increase up to a certain bandwidth. Then it won't increase any more!
- This means that, for a given frequency, once you get far enough away in frequency, the noise does not contribute to the masking of the tone
- The bandwidth at which the threshold for the detection of the tone stops increasing is the critical bandwidth

http://www.tonmeister.ca/main/textbook/node331.html

# Two perceptual scales have been derived from critical bands

- Bark scale
  - Relates acoustic frequency to perceptual frequency resolution
  - One Bark equals one critical band

$$z = 13tan^{-1}\left(0.76\frac{f}{kHz}\right) + 3.5tan^{-1}\left(\frac{f}{7.5kHz}\right)$$



- Mel scale (more on lecture 9)
  - Linear mapping up to 1 *kHz*, then logarithmic at higher frequencies

$$m = 2595 \log_{10}(1 + f/700)$$



## **Pitch perception**

- Like loudness, pitch is a subjective attribute, in this case related to the fundamental frequency (F0) of a periodic signal
- The relationship between pitch and F0 is non linear and can be described by the Mel scale

