

ACOUSTIC ABSEMENT IN DETAIL: QUANTIFYING ACOUSTIC DIFFERENCES ACROSS TIME-SERIES REPRESENTATIONS OF SPEECH DATA

Matthew C. Kelley

Department of Linguistics, University of Washington
mattck@uw.edu

ABSTRACT

The speech signal is a consummate example of time-series data. The acoustics of the signal change over time, sometimes dramatically. Yet, the most common type of comparison we perform in phonetics is between instantaneous acoustic measurements, such as formant values. In the present paper, I discuss the concept of absement as a quantification of differences between two time-series. I then provide an experimental example of absement applied to phonetic analysis for human and/or computer speech recognition. The experiment is a template-based speech recognition task, using dynamic time warping to compare the acoustics between recordings of isolated words. A recognition accuracy of 57.9% was achieved. The results of the experiment are discussed in terms of using absement as a tool, as well as the implications of using acoustics-only models of spoken word recognition with the word as the smallest discrete linguistic unit.

Keywords: spoken word recognition, speech technology, acoustics, acoustic absement

1. INTRODUCTION

The field of phonetics is replete with time-series and sequential data. Whether analyzing a waveform, spectrogram, or transcription, there is a natural and prescribed order to the sub-elements of the sequence—e.g., samples, spectra, or segments, respectively. Despite the sequential nature of so many of the types of data that we analyze, we often factor out time-bound aspects and instead focus on instantaneous measurements of a quantity, such as formant values or intensity at a given point in time. This choice is certainly convenient, and it is all but mandated by many of the statistical methods we employ in speech science.

Nevertheless, the field stands to benefit from incorporating more methods of analysis that can account for time-series data. In the present paper,

I focus on the quantity of absement as a concrete example of a measurement that reflects the temporal nature of speech data. In the present paper, I present a simplified speech recognition experiment using dynamic time warping. This task itself is a classical example of early speech recognition techniques, and the purpose is to demonstrate a use for absement for phonetic analysis. However, it also bears some relation to models of spoken word recognition, which I will also discuss.

1.1. Theoretical background

Before formally introducing absement, it is necessary to discuss distance. Distance itself is a familiar notion, often quantifying how far apart two objects are in physical space. An analogous example from phonetics would be how far apart two formant values are from each other. There are infinite methods to calculate distance, but in mechanics, distance is defined as the magnitude of a displacement vector, which is the same as the formula for Euclidean distance. Euclidean distance itself is well-attested in phonetics, such as when comparing the centroids of an F1-by-F2 space for two vowel categories [1]. Formally, the Euclidean distance d between two vectors x and y of length k is

$$(1) \quad d(x, y) = \|x - y\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^k |\chi_i - \psi_i|^2},$$

where χ_i and ψ_i are the scalar elements within x and y at index i , respectively.

If the distance between two objects is summed or integrated over time, the result is a quantity referred to in [2] and [3] as “absement” [ˈæbsəmənt], a blend of *absence* and *displacement*. This is the time-distance product form of absement, though a time-displacement product form also exists [2]. Absement is a measure of prolonged distance. For time-series data, absement can be thought of as how well two objects matched each other over time.

A high absence value could be caused by two objects being apart over a long period of time, a moment of extreme distance, or a combination thereof. Formally, the absence between two time-series X and Y is

$$(2) \quad a(X, Y) = \int_0^T d(x_t, y_t) dt,$$

where x_t and y_t are vectors representing the value of X and Y at time t , and T is the total length of time over which absence is being calculated.

Absence naturally accounts for the acoustic events that happen over a span of time, in a way that an instantaneous measure cannot. We do employ methods in phonetics that work well with time-series like the Fourier transform. But, these methods are often used to obtain an instantaneous measurement like a formant or fundamental frequency, rather than as the actual object of analysis. Tools like absence provide an opportunity to incorporate more of the time-varying nature of speech into our formal analyses.

1.2. Dynamic time warping as absence

Perhaps the most common calculation of absence in phonetics has been dynamic time warping. Dynamic time warping is a function that compares two time-series and yields an overall difference or cost value. When the comparison is performed, distance is calculated between each pairwise combination of time steps in the two signals. Then, dynamic programming is used to find a nonlinear warping path indicating which time steps should be compared between the two signals to minimize the overall computed difference between them. This discrete sum over time is roughly analogous to a rectangle method of approximation to the Riemann integral of distance. An example of the distance values calculated over time between *afternoons* and *affection* with dynamic time warping is shown in Figure 1.

The nonlinear warping path is crucial for several reasons. First, it allows for time series of different lengths to be compared, and the durations of any two productions are rarely the same. Second, it allows elasticity in the comparisons, which is important since word and segment durations vary between different productions in speech without resulting in wildly different percepts. Finally, this process allows for similar regions of each signal to be compared, permitting, for example, vowels in one signal to be compared to vowels in the other, and not necessarily to consonants.

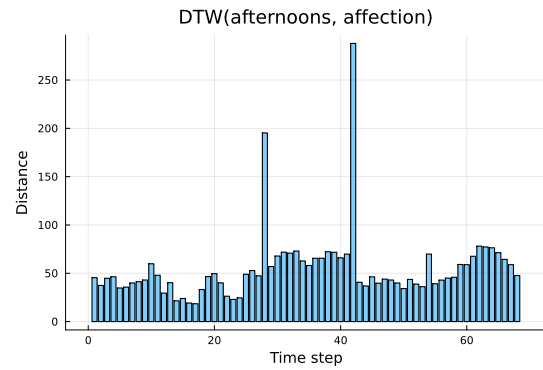


Figure 1: Distance values over time calculated from dynamic time warping between *afternoons* and *affection*. When a time point in *afternoons* was stretched over multiple time points in *affection*, those values were summed. Summing the area contained in each column will yield the dynamic time warping cost qua absence.

The shortcoming, however, is that the nonlinear warping path somewhat perturbs the natural analogy to absence from mechanics. While dynamic time warping does sum distance over time, the movement through time is not linear or uniform, and some moments in time would have multiple distance measurements associated with them. Regardless, I maintain that it is useful to refer to the output of dynamic time warping as absence to differentiate it from distance between two instantaneous measurements.

Dynamic time warping as absence has found recent explicit use in spoken word recognition [4], and previous research has also employed dynamic time warping without invoking absence [5]. Dynamic time warping dates back to the 1970s [6, 7], when it was developed to serve as the computational engine undergirding template-based automatic speech recognition. The field of automatic speech recognition has by and large moved away from dynamic time warping, first to hidden Markov models paired with Gaussian mixtures, of which dynamic time warping is a special case [8]. Modern speech recognition makes prevalent use of deep neural network models. Yet dynamic time warping has persisted as a useful method in data science [9, 10] and cognitive science [11, 12].

2. METHODS

The speech recognition experiment takes the form of an isolated word recognition task. The task is performed over a lexicon of 1,000 words and serves to demonstrate how absence can be a useful concept in phonetics.

2.1. Materials

The audio data came from the Massive Auditory Lexical Decision (MALD) project from Tucker et al. [13]. The project comprises responses to over 26,000 different English words in an auditory lexical decision task. The stimuli for the initial experiment were from a young male speaker of Canadian English who was trained in phonetics. Two other speakers were also recorded for auditory stimuli. These speakers were a young female speaker and an older male speaker of Canadian English. More recording information is given in [13].

I randomly sampled 1,000 of the words from the project that were recorded by all speakers. I converted each recording to a mel frequency cepstral coefficient (MFCC)-by-time representation using `MFCC.jl v0.3.3` [14] in `Julia v1.8.2` [15]. The window length was 25 ms with an advance of 10 ms. 13 coefficients were calculated, and the first coefficient was replaced with log energy, as is standard in automatic speech recognition.

I then used dynamic barycenter averaging [16] to create an average between the young female speaker and the older male speaker's recordings for each word. The averaging was performed using the phonetic sequence averaging interface in `Phonetics.jl v0.1.2` [17], which relies on `DynamicAxisWarping.jl v0.4.12` [18]. In the averaging process, I randomly selected which of the two recordings of each word would serve as the basic template for the initial average sequence in the dynamic barycenter averaging process.

The MFCC representation of the young male speaker was used to simulate a listener hearing someone speaking. The averages between the younger female and older male speakers' word productions were used as a set of acoustic templates that the listener would discriminate between based on the incoming acoustic signal. That is, the averaged productions were used as an acoustic representation of a small lexicon. I note that "representation" here is used in a general sense of one thing that stands in for another, and not necessarily as a cognitive model of language. Dynamic time warping in this sense can be approximately thought of as quantifying how different the spectrograms are between the young male speaker's productions and the spectrograms averaged between the young female and older male speakers' productions.

2.2. Analysis

Absement between each of the young male speaker's recordings and each of the average recordings was calculated using dynamic time warping with `DynamicAxisWarping.jl`. The distance function was Euclidean distance, and no warping radius was used. It is important to recall that absement can be increased both by duration and distance. While it is reasonable for duration to affect the absement value to some degree in spoken word recognition, the dynamic time warping calculation is such that shorter words tend to have smaller absement values on average, which biases recognition to short words.

To overcome this undesirable behavior, some of the length discrepancy must be factored out. However, care must be used when performing this kind of factorization because simply dividing by the length in time transforms the absement value into average distance, which is no longer absement *per se*. This relationship is analogous to how dividing distance by time yields average speed. A manual search of scaling functions suggested that dividing the absement values by the square root of the length of the averaged template helped normalize away some of the undesirable effect of duration on the absement values without completely destroying the ability to interpret the values as absement.

The scaled absement values for each word were then sorted, and the top ten words in the lexicon with the lowest absement values for a given word were recorded. The word with the lowest absement value was taken as the word that was ultimately recognized given the acoustic input.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Of the 1,000 words compared, 57.9% were identified correctly based on the scaled absement values, and 87.9% were in the top ten. These results compare favorably to some recent models of spoken word recognition using naive discriminative learning. Arnold et al. [19] reported an accuracy of 25.2% on a 1,000 word recognition task, and Shafei-Bajestan and Baayen [20] reported an average best accuracy of 11.72% correct on their various tasks for clean speech.

The higher recognition accuracy in the present data must be considered with some caveats. The main limitation is that a 1,000 word lexicon is too limited to be a good reflection of a proficient speaker's knowledge. Additionally, as more words are introduced into the lexicon, the accuracy will almost assuredly fall. Discrimination tasks generally become harder when there are more

items to discriminate between, due to the curse of dimensionality. Indeed, both naive discriminative learning models used a much fuller set of over 10,000 lexemes in their lexicons, regardless of task. Their lexicons were also based on corpora of connected conversational speech, so they were ultimately performing a harder task than the one I performed here.

Regardless of any potential inflation in the accuracy I reported, I want to highlight that it would be much more difficult to recognize words using comparisons of instantaneous measurements. An acoustic measurement taken at a specific point in time is an infinitesimal portion of the acoustic signal and is insufficient to account for the communicative purpose of speech. Previous research has highlighted the need to situate phonetic measurements and cues in the communicative system they are used in [21, 22], discriminating between different words (or forms) and their associated meanings as in [23]. Incorporating tools like absement into our methodologies is one way to better account for the temporal structure of the speech signal.

It is also important to note that the model I have presented in the present paper does not make use of any sublexical unit like a segment, phone, or phoneme. The only possible sublexical units in the method I used are subsets of the MFCC matrices that represent the words in the lexicon. In the context of the present paper, I do not wish to interpret this as either evidence for or against the ontological or psychological reality of traditional sublexical units in linguistics. However, some previous models of spoken word recognition have proposed eschewing these types of units in favor of wholesale spoken word discrimination based solely on acoustic information [19, 20, 23, 24].

I do think that it will be worthwhile to explore this type of spoken word recognition model further. But, we should also keep in mind that this type of word recognition directly from acoustic data hails from a venerable idea from the early days of modern speech technology. It has also been reiterated at various points throughout the field's history. Exemplar theory models based on whole-word acoustics are one example [25]. Goldinger [26] also argued that many linguistic units measured in speech perception tasks emerge based on experimental task. Making explicit use of absement between acoustic representations may help push these lines of thinking forward to either present more convincing accounts of or eliminate certain hypotheses about spoken word recognition.

Absement is a general concept and can be applied across a wide variety of tasks. It could, for example, be used to quantify the differences between vowel formant trajectories. It has indeed already seen similar such use via dynamic time warping on pitch contours [27]. Virtually any comparison between a series of acoustic measurements made over time is amenable to being treated with absement.

There is also more to be said about the use of dynamic time warping to instantiate and measure acoustic absement between two words. Because dynamic time warping has a propensity to allow duration to have an outsized effect on the output value, and because it can have certain time points repeat in the warping path, it is an imperfect representation of the concept of absement. The resolution I used here of scaling the absement values for better recognition accuracy is tantamount to having a constant weight function within the integral of distance. It may be worth exploring more sophisticated weight functions in the future or finding algorithms for calculating absement that do not require weighting.

The code used to perform the analysis and a table of the results is available as supplementary material at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7823844> or on GitHub at https://github.com/maetshju/absement_in_detail_code.

4. CONCLUSION

Absement is not an entirely new concept in phonetics. However, having a label for the type of time-series comparisons I have exhibited in the present paper should make working with this concept easier. Such a label may also nudge the idea of time-series analysis closer to the fore of our minds. Although, I am sure that none among us in phonetics truly need reminding of the time-varying nature of speech.

5. REFERENCES

- [1] T. Kendall and V. Fridland, "Variation in perception and production of mid front vowels in the U.S. Southern Vowel Shift," *Journal of Phonetics*, vol. 40, no. 2, pp. 289–306, Mar. 2012.
- [2] S. Mann, R. Janzen, and M. Post, "Hydraulophone design considerations: Absement, displacement, and velocity-sensitive music keyboard in which each key is a water jet," in *Proceedings of the 14th ACM International Conference on Multimedia*, ser. MM '06. New York, NY, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, Oct. 2006, pp. 519–528.
- [3] S. Mann, M. L. Hao, M. Tsai, M. Hafezi, A. Azad, and F. Keramatimoezabadi, "Effectiveness

- of Integral Kinesiology Feedback for Fitness-Based Games,” in *2018 IEEE Games, Entertainment, Media Conference (GEM)*, Aug. 2018, pp. 1–9.
- [4] M. C. Kelley and B. V. Tucker, “Using acoustic distance and acoustic absence to quantify lexical competition,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, vol. 151, no. 2, pp. 1367–1379, Feb. 2022.
- [5] R. Bennett, K. Tang, and J. A. Sian, “Statistical and acoustic effects on the perception of stop consonants in Kaqchikel (Mayan),” *Laboratory Phonology: Journal of the Association for Laboratory Phonology*, vol. 9, no. 1, p. 9, May 2018.
- [6] H. Sakoe and S. Chiba, “A similarity evaluation of speech patterns by dynamic programming,” in *Nat. Meeting of Institute of Electronic Communications Engineers of Japan*, 1970, p. 136.
- [7] —, “Dynamic programming algorithm optimization for spoken word recognition,” *IEEE Transactions on Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing*, vol. 26, no. 1, pp. 43–49, Feb. 1978.
- [8] B.-H. Juang, “On the Hidden Markov Model and Dynamic Time Warping for Speech Recognition—A Unified View,” *AT&T Bell Laboratories Technical Journal*, vol. 63, no. 7, pp. 1213–1243, 1984.
- [9] T. Rakthanmanon, B. Campana, A. Mueen, G. Batista, B. Westover, Q. Zhu, J. Zakaria, and E. Keogh, “Searching and mining trillions of time series subsequences under dynamic time warping,” in *Proceedings of the 18th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*, ser. KDD ’12. New York, NY, USA: Association for Computing Machinery, Aug. 2012, pp. 262–270.
- [10] R. Wu and E. J. Keogh, “FastDTW is Approximate and Generally Slower Than the Algorithm it Approximates,” *IEEE Transactions on Knowledge and Data Engineering*, vol. 34, no. 8, pp. 3779–3785, Aug. 2022.
- [11] T. Schatz, N. H. Feldman, S. Goldwater, X.-N. Cao, and E. Dupoux, “Early phonetic learning without phonetic categories: Insights from large-scale simulations on realistic input,” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, vol. 118, no. 7, p. e2001844118, Feb. 2021.
- [12] J. Millet and E. Dunbar, “Do self-supervised speech models develop human-like perception biases?” in *Proceedings of the 60th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*. Dublin, Ireland: Association for Computational Linguistics, May 2022, pp. 7591–7605.
- [13] B. V. Tucker, D. Brenner, D. K. Danielson, M. C. Kelley, F. Nenadić, and M. Sims, “The Massive Auditory Lexical Decision (MALD) database,” *Behavior Research Methods*, vol. 51, no. 3, pp. 1187–1204, Jun. 2019.
- [14] D. van Leeuwen, “MFCC.jl,” 2022. [Online]. Available: <https://github.com/JuliaDSP/MFCC.jl>
- [15] J. Bezanson, A. Edelman, S. Karpinski, and V. Shah, “Julia: A Fresh Approach to Numerical Computing,” *SIAM Review*, vol. 59, no. 1, pp. 65–98, Jan. 2017.
- [16] F. Petitjean, A. Ketterlin, and P. Gançarski, “A global averaging method for dynamic time warping, with applications to clustering,” *Pattern Recognition*, vol. 44, no. 3, pp. 678–693, Mar. 2011.
- [17] M. C. Kelley, “Phonetics.jl,” 2022. [Online]. Available: <https://github.com/maetshju/Phonetics.jl>
- [18] F. Bagge Carlson, “DynamicAxisWarping.jl,” 2022. [Online]. Available: <https://github.com/baggepinnen/DynamicAxisWarping.jl>
- [19] D. Arnold, F. Tomasek, K. Sering, F. Lopez, and R. H. Baayen, “Words from spontaneous conversational speech can be recognized with human-like accuracy by an error-driven learning algorithm that discriminates between meanings straight from smart acoustic features, bypassing the phoneme as recognition unit,” *PLOS ONE*, vol. 12, no. 4, p. e0174623, Apr. 2017.
- [20] E. Shafaei-Bajestan and R. H. Baayen, “Wide learning for auditory comprehension,” in *Interspeech 2018*. ISCA, Sep. 2018, pp. 966–970.
- [21] C. Redmon and A. Jongman, “From interfaces to system embedding: Phonetic contrasts in the lexicon,” Nov. 2022.
- [22] C. H. Redmon, “Lexical acoustics: Linking phonetic systems to the higher-order units they encode,” Ph.D. dissertation, University of Kansas, 2020.
- [23] R. H. Baayen, Y.-Y. Chuang, E. Shafaei-Bajestan, and J. P. Blevins, “The discriminative lexicon: A unified computational model for the lexicon and lexical processing in comprehension and production grounded not in (de)composition but in linear discriminative learning,” *Complexity*, vol. 2019, 2019.
- [24] E. Shafaei-Bajestan, M. Moradipour-Tari, P. Uhrig, and R. H. Baayen, “LDL-AURIS: A computational model, grounded in error-driven learning, for the comprehension of single spoken words,” *Language, Cognition and Neuroscience*, vol. 0, no. 0, pp. 1–28, Jul. 2021.
- [25] K. Johnson, “The auditory/perceptual basis for speech segmentation,” Ohio State University Department of Linguistics, Working Paper, Jul. 1997.
- [26] S. D. Goldinger and T. Azuma, “Puzzle-solving science: The Quixotic quest for units in speech perception,” *Journal of Phonetics*, vol. 31, no. 3, pp. 305–320, Jul. 2003.
- [27] D. R. McCloy, “Prosody, intelligibility and familiarity in speech perception,” Ph.D. dissertation, University of Washington, Jul. 2013.