



inter-speaker pronunciation distances, which will be adopted as target of prediction using SVR in our study. This is because IPA transcription is done through phoneticians' ignorance of non-linguistic and acoustic variations involved in utterances such as differences in age, gender, channel, etc. It should be noted that the recording condition in the corpus varies from sample to sample because data collection was done voluntarily by those who had interest in joining the SAA project. To create a suitable map automatically, these non-linguistic variations have to be cancelled adequately.

Use of read speech for clustering is considered to reduce pronunciation diversity because read speech may show only "controlled" diversity. In [12], however, English sentences read by 200 Japanese university students showed a very large pronunciation diversity and in [13], a large listening test by Americans showed that the intelligibility of the individual utterances covered a very wide range. Following these facts, we considered that read speech samples can still show well how diverse WE pronunciations are.

It is well-known that pronunciation diversity is found in both the segmental and prosodic aspects. In this paper, however, we will prepare reference pronunciation distances by using IPA transcripts, meaning that prosodic diversity will be lost. We do not claim that the prosodic diversity is minor but, as was shown in [14], clustering only based on the segmental aspect seems able to show validly how diverse WE are in terms of pronunciation. Reference distances with prosodic features will be treated in a future work.

In this study, only the data with no word-level insertion or deletion were used. The audio files that had exactly 69 words were automatically detected. Some of them were found to include a very high level of background noise and/or many pauses, and we manually removed them. Finally, 370 speakers' data were used here and the number of speaker pairs is 68,265 ( $=370 \times 369 / 2$ ).

### 3. REFERENCE INTER-SPEAKER PRONUNCIATION DISTANCES

To train a pronunciation distance predictor, reference inter-speaker distances are needed, which will also be used to evaluate the trained predictor. Following [10], the reference distance between two speakers is calculated through DTW of their IPA transcripts. Since all the transcripts contain exactly the same number of words, word-level alignment is easy and we only have to treat phone-level insertions, deletions, and substitutions between a word and its counterpart.

Since DTW-based alignment of two IPA transcripts needs the distance matrix among all the existing IPA phones in the SAA, we prepared it in the following way. Here the most frequent 153 kinds of phones were extracted from the SAA, which covered 95% of all the phone instances and we asked an expert phonetician, the fifth author, to pronounce each of the 153 phones twenty times. Using the recorded data, a speaker-dependent three-state HMM was built for each phone, where each state contained a Gaussian distribution. Then, for each phone pair, the phone-to-phone distance was defined as the average of three state-to-state Bhattacharyya distances. We note here that, since the HMMs were speaker-dependent, all the distances were calculated in a matched condition. The other 5% of the phones were all with a diacritical mark. For each of them, we substituted the HMM of the same phone with no diacritical mark.

Using the distance matrix among all the kinds of phones in the SAA, word-based DTW was conducted to compare a word and its counterpart in IPA transcripts. The accumulated distance was normalized by the number of phones in the word pair and the normalized distances were summed for all the 69 words. This final distance was used as reference pronunciation distance. Detailed explanation

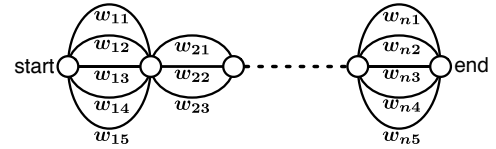


Fig. 2. An example of word-based network grammar

of our string-based DTW, such as configuration of local paths and penalty scores, is found in [14] as well as a result of bottom-up clustering of a part of the SAA speakers using IPA-based DTW.

## 4. THREE BASELINE SYSTEMS

For comparison, we built three baseline systems, two of which corresponds directly to an automated version of the reference distance calculation procedure described in Section 3. The other system was proposed and developed in our previous study [3].

### 4.1. Naïve automation of reference distance calculation

The calculation procedure is composed of two steps: 1) IPA manual transcription and 2) DTW alignment for distance calculation. In the first two baseline systems, the first process was replaced with automatic recognition of phonemes in input utterances<sup>1</sup>. Here, we used a phoneme recognizer of American English (AE) in this study. Using all the utterances of the 370 speakers as training data, monophone HMMs were trained with the WSJ-based HMMs [15] adopted as initial model. For this training, each IPA transcript was converted into its AE phoneme transcript. This conversion was done by preparing a phone-to-phoneme mapping table with special attention paid to conversion from two consecutive IPA vowels to an AE diphthong.

Since IPA transcription is based on phones and the HMMs were trained based on phonemes, even if we could have a perfect phoneme recognizer, generated transcripts have to be phonemic versions of IPA transcripts: the phoneme-based ground truth transcripts. Conversion from phones to phonemes is an abstraction process and some detailed phonetic information will be lost inevitably. Our first baseline system uses the ground truth transcripts and the pronunciation distance is calculated by comparing two phonemic transcripts based on DTW, conditions of which are the same as those in Section 3 except the local distance matrix. Here, the phoneme-to-phoneme distance matrix is prepared by using the WSJ-based HMMs [15]. Our second system uses transcripts generated from a real phoneme recognizer with word-based network grammar that can cover all the pronunciation variations found in the 370 speakers. Figure 2 shows an example of the network grammar of an  $n$ -word sentence, where  $w_{ij}$  denotes the  $i$ -th word spoken with the  $j$ -th pronunciation.

The correlation between the IPA-based inter-speaker reference distances and the phoneme-based distances obtained from the first system was 0.829, meaning that information loss exists to some degrees. The phoneme recognition accuracy of the second system was 73.5% but the correlation was found to be so low as 0.458. This clearly indicates that recognition errors are very fatal.

### 4.2. Pronunciation distance predictor developed in [3]

As told in Section 1, we need a very robust method to predict the pronunciation distance. The third author proposed a unique method of

<sup>1</sup>As far as we know, there does not exist an automatic recognizer of IPA phones with diacritical marks.

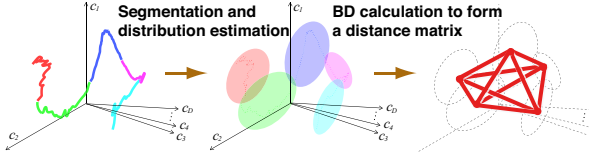


Fig. 3. Utterance structure composed only of BDs

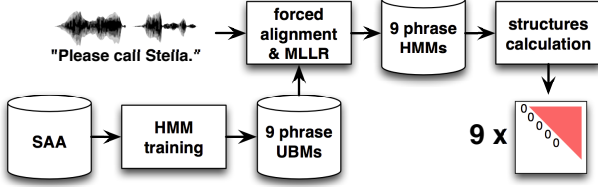


Fig. 4. Procedure to calculate the pronunciation structure

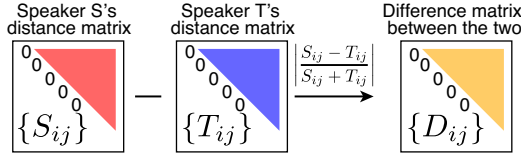


Fig. 5. Difference matrix derived from two speakers' matrices

representing speech, called speech structure, and showed that acoustic and non-linguistic variations involved in speech can become effectively unseen in the representation [4, 5, 6, 7]. This proposal was done being inspired by Jakobson's structural phonology [16] and infants' sensitivity to distributional properties of sounds [17, 18]. The speech structure is invariant against any kind of continuous and convertible transform and this invariance is due to the transform-invariance of  $f$ -divergence [6], which is calculated as

$$f_{\text{div}}(p_1, p_2) = \int_{\mathcal{X}} p_2(x) g\left(\frac{p_1(x)}{p_2(x)}\right) dx, \quad (1)$$

where  $p_1(x)$  and  $p_2(x)$  are density functions of two distributions on measurable space  $\mathcal{X}$ .  $g(t)$  is a convex function for  $t > 0$ . If we take  $\sqrt{t}$  as  $g(t)$ ,  $-\log(f_{\text{div}})$  becomes the Bhattacharyya distance (BD).

Figure 3 shows schematically the procedure of representing an utterance only by BDs. The utterance is a sequence of vectors and it is converted into a sequence of distributions. Here, any speech event is characterized as distribution. Then, the BD is calculated between any distribution pair and the resulting BD-based distance matrix is invariant speech structure. When this representation is applied to pronunciation analysis, it is called pronunciation structure [5, 7]. In [3], the SAA paragraph was divided into 9 phrases and the pronunciation structure was extracted from each phrase read by each speaker. Figure 4 shows the detailed procedure to calculate the pronunciation structure, where the Universal Background Model (UBM) was trained as HMM for each phrase by using all the 370 speakers. Here, the number of states of the HMM of a phrase is  $3N$ , where  $N$  is the number of phonemes of that phrase. The UBM was adapted to each speaker separately with MLLR adaptation (#classes = 32). By calculating the averaged BD between every pair of the phoneme instance HMMs in each phrase HMM, 9 phrase-based distance matrices were obtained for each speaker. Here, the  $i$ -th phoneme instance HMM in a phrase HMM is the three-state HMM spanning from the  $(3i-2)$ -th state to the  $3i$ -th state of that phrase HMM. As illustrated in Figure 5, from a distance matrix of speaker  $S$  and that of  $T$ , we derived a difference matrix  $D$  to represent the differences between them. Here,  $i$  and  $j$  are phoneme instance indexes and  $1 \leq i, j \leq 221$ .

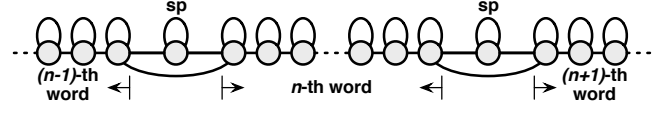


Fig. 6. Explicit modeling of inter-word short pauses

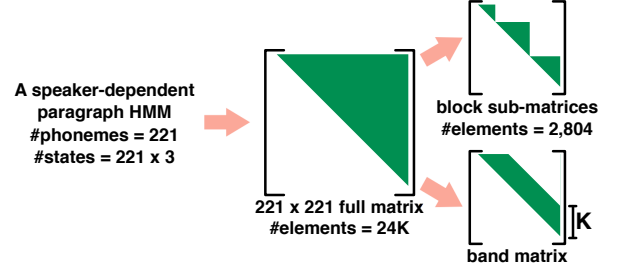


Fig. 7. Paragraph-based full matrix and its band matrix

$$D_{ij} = \left| \frac{S_{ij} - T_{ij}}{S_{ij} + T_{ij}} \right|, \text{ where } i < j, \quad (2)$$

$\{D_{ij}\}$  were obtained for each phrase and all the  $\{D_{ij}\}$  were used as input features in SVR to predict the pronunciation distance. The total number of the features was 2,804 and the  $\epsilon$ -SVR in LIBSVM [19] was used with the radial basis function kernel of  $K(x_1, x_2) = \exp(-\gamma|x_1 - x_2|^2)$ . Experiments showed that the correlation between the IPA-based distances and the predicted ones was 0.805.

## 5. PROPOSED METHODS AND EXPERIMENTS

To improve the correlation, we did the following examinations. As for detailed conditions including acoustic analysis conditions, we followed those adopted in [3]. Acoustic features used in pronunciation structure analysis were MFCC-based features. 68,265 speaker pairs of the SAA were sorted by the order of IPA-based reference distances and they were divided into two groups of even-numbered pairs and odd-numbered pairs. For training a predictor and testing it, 2-fold cross-validation was done using these two groups.

### 5.1. Explicit modeling of inter-word short pauses (sp)

Since many speakers of the SAA are non-native speakers, inter-word pauses are often found but they were not explicitly treated in [3]. Then, as shown in Figure 6, by using the WSJ-based monophone HMMs [15], the initial model of a phrase UBM was prepared so that a sp model always existed between consecutive words. When calculating 9 distance matrices, the distances from/to the sp model were omitted. The correlation was slightly raised from 0.805 to 0.811.

### 5.2. MAP-based adaptation applied to UBMs

MLLR-based adaptation is known to work better than MAP-based adaptation when the amount of adaptation data is very small. In [3], since only a single phrase utterance was used to adapt a phrase HMM, which is a sequence of phoneme-instance HMMs, MLLR was adopted. In this section, however, we tentatively examined MAP and it was found that MAP is more effective than MLLR.

$D_{ij}$  was originally proposed in [7] and was used there for linear regression. In the framework of SVR, however, feature normalization is always done as preprocessing. Since we considered that double normalization might lose too many effective features in raw data, we used simpler definition of  $D_{ij} = |S_{ij} - T_{ij}|$  in this paper.

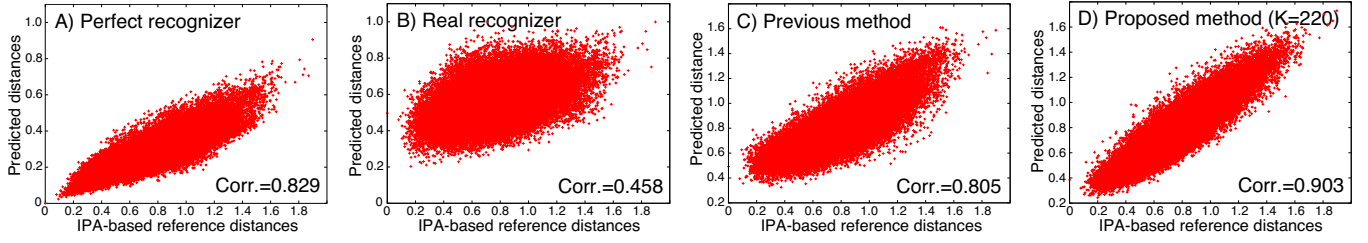


Fig. 9. Correlations between the IPA-based reference pronunciation distances and the predicted distances

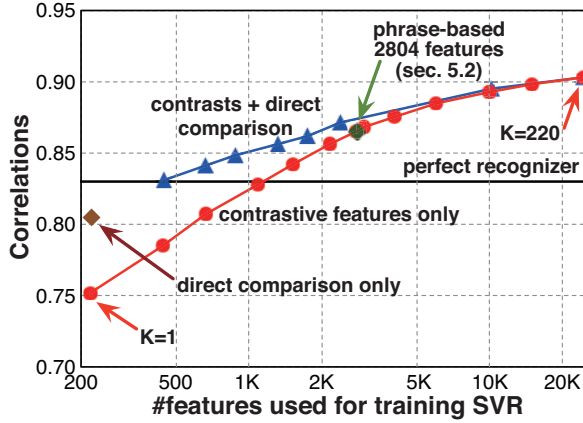


Fig. 8. Correlation improvement by increasing the band width

By using MAP with sp models and unnormalized differences, the correlation was increased up to 0.865.

### 5.3. Distance matrices calculated from paragraph HMMs

In [3], a pronunciation structure or a distance matrix was built for each of the 9 phrases. In this section, a full and paragraph HMM was examined for each speaker's data in the SAA. By using the paragraph HMM, as shown in Figure 7, a full distance matrix is obtained and a full difference matrix can be used for SVR. In [3], only block sub-matrices in the full matrix were used for SVR. Pronunciation structure is interesting because it captures only local and distant acoustic contrasts and discards absolute acoustic features at all. Then in the experiments of this paper, by using a band matrix, the band width of which is  $K$ , we investigated how distant contrasts in the full matrix can contribute to improving the prediction performance (See Figure 7). If  $K$  is 10, acoustic contrasts over 0 to 9 phonemes are used for prediction. The larger  $K$  becomes, the larger the total number of features used for prediction becomes. Since the SAA paragraph contains 221 phoneme instances,  $K \leq 220$ .

Figure 8 shows correlation improvement gained by increasing the total number of features by changing  $K$ . Here, MAP-adaptation is used with sp models and unnormalized differences. The performance in Section 5.2 was obtained using the phrase-based matrices, namely, 2,804 differential features. If we set  $K$  in the band matrix so that the total number of features is similar to 2,804, the correlation becomes very similar to what was achieved in Section 5.2.

Clearly shown in Figure 8, further increase of  $K$  can certainly raise the correlation. The maximum correlation, 0.903, was obtained with the maximum number of  $K$ , that is 220. Before the experiment, we had been interested in where the correlation peak was found but the peak was not observed at all. This maximum value is much larger than the correlation of 0.829, which was achieved by the phoneme-based ground truth distances. It is very surprising to us that so distant

acoustic contrasts, that are 220-phoneme long, are still effective to increase the performance. In [5], Multiple Stream Structure (MSS) was found to be effective in improving the performance of structure-based isolated word recognition. MSS may be able to improve the correlation further in the current task.

Figure 9 shows four correlations of A) perfect phoneme recognizer, B) real phoneme recognizer, C) our previous method [3], and D) our proposed method ( $K=220$ ). In comparison to C), a large improvement is achieved in the proposed method.

### 5.4. Use of acoustic distances obtained by direct comparison

We investigated the effectiveness of using acoustic distances obtained by direct and absolute comparison. Since a paragraph HMM is a sequence of 221 phoneme instance HMMs, we can get 221 phoneme-based BDs between a speaker's paragraph HMM and another speaker's. These 221 BDs can be used as additional features to our original feature set based on pronunciation structure analysis. The correlation by using the new 221 features only was 0.805, which is higher than that obtained by using 220 contrastive features ( $K=1$  in Figure 8). In pronunciation structure, by increasing  $K$ , the number of effective features is easily increased. In direct comparison, however, 221 is the maximum number. In this sense, contrastive and relational features are very suitable for discriminative models. Figure 8 also shows the effectiveness of the new features when they are combined to the contrastive features. They are effective when  $K$  is small but they seem ineffective at all when  $K$  is large enough.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

This paper proposed an improved method to predict inter-speaker pronunciation distances only by using speech samples. Our proposal is based on combining pronunciation structure analysis for feature extraction and support vector regression for prediction. Experiments showed that our method can show a better performance than the performance obtained by using the phoneme-based ground truth distances and string-based DTW. However, all the examinations were feature-based and, as for regression model, a simple one of SVR with a well-known kernel function was used. We're interested in applying more sophisticated models such as multi-kernel regression [20] and kNN-SVR [21] to our task. We can point out a drawback in the experimental condition in this paper. The experiments were carried out in a speaker-pair-open mode and every speaker was found both in training and testing data. Strictly speaking, the proposed method has to be examined in a speaker-open mode. We can say, however, that we gained a remarkable improvement and if researchers of WE are satisfied with the current performance, it would be better to move forward to collecting data from a larger number of speakers internationally. For that, we have already developed the  $\beta$ -version of an i-OS application for easier collection. We're not sure whether collection from 1.5 billions of speakers is an achievable goal but we're interested in drawing the individual-basis map of WE pronunciations.

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