# Simulating the acquisition of lexical tones from continuous dynamic input

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**Abstract:** Infants develop phonetic categories by simply being exposed to adult speech. It remains unclear, however, how they handle the extensive variability inherent to speech, and how they process multiple linguistic functions that share the same acoustic parameters. Across four neural network simulations of lexical tone acquisition, self-organizing maps were trained with continuous speech input of increasing variability. Robust tonal categorization was achieved by tracking the velocity profiles of fundamental frequency contours. This result suggests that continuous speech signal carries sufficient categorical information that can be directly processed, and that dynamic acoustic information can be used for resolving the variability problem.

© 2007 Acoustical Society of America **PACS numbers:** 43.71.An, 43.71.Ft, 43.70.Mn [JMH] **Date Received:** December 6, 2006 **Date Accepted:** February 21, 2007

## 1. Introduction

Before reaching 1 year of age, infants have developed the ability to process speech sounds specific to their native language. Infants are born with general auditory mechanisms to process all speech sounds of human languages,<sup>1,2</sup> and later show a decline in sensitivity to non-native categories while narrowing in on the native language phonetic categories.<sup>3–5</sup> This development seems to be related to their sensitivity to the statistical distribution of speech sounds, as it was recently demonstrated that 6–8-month-old infants develop discrimination sensitivity corresponding to bi-modal distribution of VOT values in the stimuli after brief training.<sup>6</sup> However, the speech input to infants is much more variable than bi-modal distributions. Speech signal is continuous and dynamic, and steady-state patterns are rare.<sup>7</sup> There is extensive contextual variability due to coarticulation<sup>8</sup> and large amount of cross-speaker variations. Moreover, there are often more than two phonetic categories along any particular acoustic/articulatory dimension, and infants do not know in advance how many of them there are in a given language. It thus remains unclear how the early perceptual system can develop phonetic categories from such highly variable acoustic input.

Here we study with unsupervised neural networks whether phonetic categories can be discovered by directly processing continuous speech signals that contain different types of variability and competing linguistic functions. We simulate the acquisition of lexical tones in Mandarin. Mandarin has four tones for distinguishing words that can be identical in segmental compositions: High (H), Rise (R), Low (L), and Fall (F), which are carried by the fundamental frequency ( $F_0$ ) of the vocal fold vibrations. Because tones typically involve a single primary acoustic dimension, namely,  $F_0$ , they are ideal for testing hypotheses about detailed mechanisms of phonetic acquisition.

The  $F_0$  values of a tone, however, vary extensively due to at least three sources (Fig. 1). First, cross-speaker variability arises from differences such as age, gender, and idiosyncrasies (e.g., Refs. 9 and 10). Second, contextual variability arises from neighboring sounds affecting



Fig. 1. Variability in tones. (a)  $F_0$  (in hertz) of 40 repetitions of the four Mandarin tones (High, Rise, Low, Fall) by one male speaker with identical preceding tone (High) and identical focal status (neutral). (b) Contextual variability:  $F_0$  of 80 repetitions of the four tones by one male speaker with different preceding tones (specified by syllable onset color) and identical focal status (neutral). (c) Contextual and speaker variability:  $F_0$  of 80 repetitions of the four tones by one female and one male speaker with different preceding tones and identical focal status. (d) Contextual, speaker, and focal variability:  $F_0$  of 80 repetitions of the four tones by one female and one male speaker with different preceding tones and variable focus (dark=on-focus, medium=neutral focus, pale=post-focus).

one another.<sup>11</sup> The  $F_0$  pattern of any tone varies extensively due to the mechanical carryover influence of the preceding tone.<sup>12</sup> For example, the  $F_0$  contour of a High tone following a Low tone somewhat resembles that of a Rise tone. Speech addressed to infants consists primarily of multiword utterances,<sup>13</sup> leading to considerable contextual variability. Finally, variability in  $F_0$  comes from its use to not only distinguish words, but also to encode information such as focus (for emphasizing part of a message), which can introduce  $F_0$  variations with magnitudes similar to those of tones.<sup>14</sup>

Despite the extensive variability, tonal perception appears early in infancy.<sup>15</sup> A key to infants' strategies may lie in the understanding of the mechanism of contextual variability; that is, despite the apparent variability, the talkers' articulatory strategy remains the same: to approach a constant tonal target starting from the syllable-initial  $F_0$  left by the tone of the preceding syllable.<sup>16</sup> Such a strategy would result in velocity profiles that directly reflect the nature of the tonal targets. Velocity profiles have been shown to reveal the dynamics of skilled actions such as jaw movements during speech.<sup>17</sup> Moreover, taking the derivative of a curve leads to the removal of all its constant term(s), eliminating any overall height differences such as those due to cross-speaker variability. Thus, our hypotheses are (a) tonal categories can be discovered by processing syllable-sized continuous pitch movement patterns and (b) the velocity of  $F_0$  (i.e., the first derivatives of  $F_0$  patterns, henceforth  $D_1$ ), better reveals the invariant properties of tones than  $F_0$ .

#### 2. Method

In four simulations, self-organizing-maps [SOMs (Ref. [18])] were presented with learning material of increasing degrees of variability to assess their impact on tonal categorization. Self-organizing networks have been useful for characterizing the mechanism underlying various language acquisition tasks (e.g., Refs. 13 and 19) and for solving statistical pattern recognition problems. Given infants' sensitivity to distributional properties of speech signals,<sup>6</sup> the SOM is ideal for modeling the perceptual learning of phonetic categories. The SOM combines a map of topologically ordered processing units with a high-dimensional input space. Each output unit is connected to the input space by an adaptive weight vector, the dimensionality of which corresponds to that of input vectors. When an input token is presented to the network, the winning unit (i.e., with the shortest Euclidean distance to the input vector) is activated, and its connection weights are moved toward the data point by the learning rule. After training, the SOM is expected to reveal the structure of the data.

In the present study, the map units were arranged in a square topology, and initial connection weight values were arbitrarily assigned to cover only a small portion of the input space. The input space was formed of a set of continuous  $F_0$  or  $D_1$  vectors. In simulation 1, the input corpus contained 1800 exemplars produced by three adult male native Mandarin speakers (data from Ref. 12). Each stimulus corresponded to the first or second syllable of the word "mama" produced with varying tones in the middle of a carrier sentence that had either high or low pretarget  $F_0$  offset and posttarget  $F_0$  onset. In simulations 2, 3, and 4, tonal exemplars were from 3840 declarative sentences produced by eight native Mandarin speakers (data from Ref. 14). Sentences were formed of a subject, verb, and object and contained five syllables, each word corresponding to one or two consonant-vowel (CV) syllable(s), where C was a sonorant (/m,n/), except when the Low tone occurred on the fourth syllable, where C was /d/. The subject and object words were disyllabic and the verb was monosyllabic. The sentences were produced in various focus conditions: (a) neutral focus, (b) focus on word 1, (c) focus on word 2, and (d) focus on word 3 [e.g., "maomi mo maomi" (kitty touches kitty)] in response to the following wh-questions: "What is Kitty doing?" "Who is stroking Kitty?," "What is Kitty doing to Kitty?," "What is Kitty stroking?"). Since the tone on the first and last syllables was kept constant to High, these syllables were removed from the input corpus. The second, third, and fourth syllables contained varying tones (H, R, L, F on the second syllable, H, R, F on the third syllable, and H, L on the fourth syllable). Simulations 2-4 thus involved stimuli produced in all possible tonal contexts and focus conditions. Simulation 2 involved 1440 exemplars produced by a single speaker, and simulation 3 used 5760 tones produced by four male speakers. Simulation 4 involved the highest amount of variability, with 11 520 tones produced by four male and four female speakers in all tonal and focus conditions.

Input tokens to the network were 20-point vectors composed of equal-distanced discrete values from syllable-sized  $F_0$  curves. The continuous  $F_0$  contour was extracted by taking the inverse of every vocal period (for the detailed  $F_0$  extraction procedure, see Ref. 14).  $F_0$  input vectors were first transformed from hertz scale to semitone scale according to

$$F_0 st = 12 \log_2 \left( F_0 hz \right) \tag{1}$$

The velocity profiles of F<sub>0</sub> were generated according to

$$D_{1i} = (F_0 s t_{i+1} - F_0 s t_i) / (T_{i+1} - T_i)$$
(2)

where *T* represents time, which yields the discrete first derivatives of  $F_0$ . Each simulation presented one network with  $F_0$  and one network with  $D_1$  to compare the performance of both parameters.  $D_1$  was expected to yield better results than  $F_0$  in all simulations, and focused syllables were expected to be categorized better than postfocused syllables.

To compare the results obtained in different simulations, the size of a map was proportional to the input corpus size by a factor of about  $\frac{1}{10}$  [e.g., 144 (12×12) units for Simulation 2 (1440 tokens)]. During training, half of the input tokens were randomly presented to the networks as whole vectors. The learning step size decreased linearly from 0.7 to 0.01. The neigh-



Fig. 2. Percent correct classification of  $F_0$  (dark bars) and  $D_1$  (pale bars) networks during simulation 4. (a) Results for tones High, Rise, Low, and Fall. (b) Results expressed as a function of focal status (on-focus, neutral focus, and post-focus).

borhood activation function included all units at the beginning, decreased exponentially, and only included the winning unit toward the end of training. The testing phase presented the training corpus and new input tokens to verify the networks' capacity to generalize to novel data. During testing, units that responded to a single category at least 68% of the time were labeled as that category. Units that responded to multiple tonal categories, none of which was dominant, were treated as noncategorical. Learning was assessed in terms of classification rate of success, i.e., the percentage of correctly classified input tokens.

To better understand the outcome of the categorization process, quantitative coloring of the trained maps was obtained by associating each tonal category with a distinct color produced with the CMYK color system (the High tone is represented by blue, i.e., a mix of cyan and magenta in the vector [1,1,0,0]; Rise=green [1,0,1,0]; Low=yellow [0,0,1,0]; Fall=red [0,1,1,0]). Each map unit was then associated to a four-dimensional vector, the values of which were specified according to the unit firing probabilities for each tonal class during testing [the fourth element K (black) was kept null]. As a consequence, units responding to a single tone are represented by a saturated color while noncategorical units are represented by "impure" colors. Learned categories are thus shown on the maps as regions of distinct colors.

#### 3. Results

Overall, the networks trained with either  $F_0$  or  $D_1$  yielded above chance level performance, but those trained with D<sub>1</sub> performed better than those trained with F<sub>0</sub>. In simulation 1 (input from different tonal contexts by three male speakers) a reasonably high rate of success was achieved for each tone with F<sub>0</sub> (H: 73%, R: 84%, L: 96%, F: 83%; mean: 84%, standard deviation: 9%), but D<sub>1</sub> yielded almost perfect categorization (H: 93%, R: 96%, L: 94%, F: 90%; mean: 93%, s.d.: 3%), replicating our previous study.<sup>20</sup> In simulation 2 (input from one speaker in different tonal contexts with variable focus, i.e., on-focus, neutral focus, and postfocus) the overall rate of success decreased relative to simulation 1 for  $F_0$  (H: 68%,R: 69%, L: 88%, F: 63%; mean: 72%, s.d.: 11%) and for D<sub>1</sub> (H: 85%, R: 81%, L: 87%, F: 84%; mean: 84%, s.d.: 3%), suggesting that focus-induced variability is more detrimental to tonal categorization than cross-speaker (within-gender) variability. Simulation 3 tested the combined impact of the aforementioned sources of variability (input was from four male speakers in different tonal contexts with variable focus). Although the performance of both networks declined, D<sub>1</sub> (H: 82%, R: 76%, L: 77%, F: 79%; mean: 79%, s.d.: 3%) still performed better than F<sub>0</sub> (H: 64%, R: 59%, L: 75%, F: 70%; mean: 67%, s.d.: 7%). Finally, the results of simulation 4 (cross-gender, contextual, and focus induced variability) are shown in Fig. 2. Both F<sub>0</sub> (mean: 70%, s.d.: 7%) and D<sub>1</sub> (mean: 78%, s.d.: 5%) declined in performance relative to previous simulations, with  $D_1$  still showing superiority. Most of the errors in simulation 4 involved postfocused elements [Fig. 2(b)]. The rate of success of the  $D_1$  network for on-focus syllables remained excellent (93%), consistent with the expectation that focused elements should be perceptually salient.





Tonal color maps of simulation 4 are shown in Fig. 3. The  $F_0$  color map [Fig. 3(a)] exhibits no clear tonal organization. Some tonal categories are distributed to multiple clusters. Activations of units during testing are uneven across the map: some units responded to many input tokens, while others to few or none (the larger a unit, the greater its firing probability). In contrast, the  $D_1$  color map [Fig. 3(b)] shows four well-separated regions—each corresponding to one tone. Activations of units are even: each responding to a comparable number of test tokens. Verification of the response patterns of units shows that most categorical units responded to tones in multiple preceding contexts [Fig. 3(c)], confirming that each region indeed forms a single category and does not break down into subclusters based on tonal contexts (e.g., no subcluster for High tones preceded by other High tones).  $D_1$  is thus much more powerful than  $F_0$  in normalizing and categorizing the Mandarin tones.

## 4. Discussion and conclusion

The results of our simulations show that, despite extensive variability due to context, speaker, and competing linguistic functions (here tones and focus), a simple inductive learning mecha-

nism can extract tonal categories directly from continuous acoustic input without any supervision or feedback, assuming that  $F_0$  contours have already been segmented into syllable-sized chunks by a separate mechanism.<sup>21</sup> We also find that velocity profiles as input for phonetic categorization are more robust than  $F_0$  contours in handling the variability and revealing the invariant underlying phonetic targets. The effectiveness of using continuous dynamic patterns as input also eliminates the need for pre-extracting any summary properties as categorical cues, as such cues, if any, seem to operate implicitly rather than explicitly in the simulated learning process. Granted, no one has yet shown that infants, or even adults, have the ability to compute velocity profiles from acoustic signal. What the results of our simulations have demonstrated is that, if they did, the benefit would be enormous. It would thus be desirable for future research to look for direct evidence of neural processing of velocity.

## Acknowledgments

Part of the results of the study were reported at the 151st meeting of the Acoustical Society of America, 2006. This work was supported by funding from SSHRC, NSERC, and FQRSC to the second author and supported in part by a NIH grant to the third author.

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