SPEECH - SYNTHESIS IN REAL-TIME

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BY MICROPROCESSOR CONTROL

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Engineering.

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McGill University;

Montreal, Canada.

March, 1979.

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ABSTRACT

A system for speech synthesis, based on microprocessor control in real-time, was developed for experimental work which is small enough to form the basis of a talking terminal. The equipment accepts as input a phonetic string composed of standard ASCII characters and converts these into intermittent, continuous or connected speech. Real-time operation permits the use of less than 3000 bytes of memory. Features are provided to yary the fundamental frequency during synthesis, initiate whispering, or obtain a parameter listing for analysis. Stressed speech is obtained through the use of lower case characters. The equipment is simple to use and produces intelligible speech.

Acoustic, numeric and visual methods used to evaluate performance are described. Perceptual confusion matrices are provided which illustrate areas where improvement in hardware could be made. The computer program for synthesis is given along with explanation and manner of use.

RESUME

Un système de synthèse de la parole, reposant sur une commande en temps réel par microprocesseur, a été conçu à des fins expérimentales et est de taille suffisamment petite pour servir de point de départ à un terminal parlant. En entrée, le dispositif accepte une séquence phonétique de caractères normalisés ASCII qu'il convertit en une lecture intermittente, continue ou cohérente. Son fonctionnement en temps réel permet l'emploi de moins de 3000 octects de mémoire. Il est possible de faire varier la fréquence fondamentale au cours de la synthèse, de réaliser une lecture à voix basse ou de produire un listage de paramètres en vue de leur analyse.

Il est possible d'obtenir un rendu vocal avec l'accent tonique grâce à l'usage, en entrée, de caractères en minuscules. L'équipment est simple d'emploi et fournit une lecture compréhensible.

On décrit également des méthods acoustiques, numériques et visuelles employées pour évaluer la qualité de fonctionnement du système. On présente des matrices reflètant les confusions de perception, permettant d'illustrer les domaines dans lesquels une amélioration du matériel serait possible. On décrit enfin le programme machine réalisant la synthèse ainsi que des explications relatives à son mode d'utilisation.

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PREFACE

This thesis presents a description of the development of a self-contained speech synthesis system capable of use either as a talking peripheral or as a tool for perceptual studies. Work on this thesis commenced January 1978 while the author was enrolled in a speech communications course (304-689B) at McGill. Subsequently, Professor Douglas O'Shaughnessy agreed to become thesis director.

111

Software development was undertaken at the McGill University computer facilities on one of their IBM 370 systems. Acoustical analysis of synthetic speech was made at L'Institute National de la Recharche Scientifique-Télécommunications using specially designed programs for spectral analysis and plotting.

Sections of the synthesis strategy are based on Holmes (1964) and Nooteboom (1973). Formant frequencies used in synthesis were originally obtained from the works of Rabiner (1968) and Klatt (1977) but it was found that substantial modifications were required for optimum results with the synthesizer in use.

In the author's opinion, the configuration of the system and the software developed for it constitute new and original work. The scope of this investigation is primarily concerned with the development of hardware, system software, as well as presentation of some experimental results. Hevertheless, some background on speech synthesis techniques and brief mention of major contributions to this field seem desirable and

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and are covered in the first three chapters. The last three chapters describe the hardware and software of the developmental system and the results of perceptual experiments to determine effectiveness of the synthesis strategy.

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It is hoped that this thesis will encourage further interest in a subject which will undoubtedly become of major significance in manmachine interfaces of the future. A recent book by Rabiner and Schafer (1978) is an excellent introduction to this field.

The author wishes to acknowledge the very considerable support and assistance given by Professor Douglas O'Shaughnessy in the preparation of this work. Mention should be made of the various members of my family and friends who patiently took part in perceptual experiments. Financial support from a 1978 NcGill Graduate Faculty Summer Research Fellowship was greatly appreciated.

iv

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT		<i>*</i> 0 **	i .
RESUME		*	i i
PREFACE	I	.t	iii
TABLE OF C	CONTENTS	• . •	v
LIST OF II	LUSTRATION	IS . 1	vii
LIST OF TH	BLES		, ' x ′
CHAPTER	I	INTRODUCTION	_ 1
	1.1	Background	1
	1.2	The Characteristics of Speech	- 2
	1.3	Articulation of Linguistic Units	6
	1.4	Perception of Speech	13
CHAPTER	II	METHODS OF SYNTHESIS	18
	2.i	Synthesis-by-Analysis	20
,	2.1.1	Terminal Analog Synthesis	21
	2.1.2	Linear Prediction	22
	~ 2.1.3	Vocal Tract Analog	26
	2.1.4	The Articulatory Model	27
	2.2	Synthesis-by-Rule	28
CHAPTER	III	MAJOR CONTRIBUTIONS TO SPIECH SYNTHESIS BY RULE	. 31
	3.1	Kelly and Gerstman	31

 3.1
 Kelly and Gerstman
 31

 3.2
 Holmes
 32

 3.3
 Rabiner
 35

 3.4
 Ainsworth
 37

 3.5
 Klatt
 39

 3.6
 The Keele System
 41

Y

C

N.

\$

Page

	•			
•	CHAPTER	IV	HARDWARE	47
		° 4.1	Systems Configuration	\$ 47
	,	4.2	The Synthesizer	49
		4.2.1	General Description	49
		4.2,2	Signals and Timing	52
	CHAPTER	v	SOFTNARE	56
		5.1	Synthesis Strategy	56
		5.1.1	Vowels and Liquids	63
	,	5.1.2	Fricatives	64
	· •	5.1.3	Nasals	65
		5.1.4	Aspirants	66 .
		5.1.5	Stops	, 66
		5.1.6	Diphthongs and Affricates	67,
	•	5.2	Software Description	69
	CHAPTER	VI	RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS	83
		6.1	Evaluation Criteria	83
		6.1.1	Acoustic Feedback	83
		6.1.2	Numeric Feedback	84
		6.1.3	Visual Feedback	84
-FC		6.2	Experimental Results	85
Sec. €.	•	6.2.1	Intelligibility Tests	85
ч	`	6.2.2	Spectrographic Analysis	88
•		6.2.3	Acoustic Waveforms	109
	•	6.2.4	Limitations of the System	118
		6.3	Recommendations and Comments	. 119
	BIBLIOGRAPH	IY	•	122
1	APPENDIX	λ	PROGRAM LISTING	127
	APPENDIX	B	INTERRUPT ROUTINE LISTENING	140
	APPENDIX	с	PHONENE LOOK-UP TABLE	142

C

•

Páge

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Fig	ure	1	A Typical Glottal Waveform	`4
1	ت •	2	Speech Specturogram	5
		3	, The Vovel Stringle	~ 7
1	-	4	Classification of Vowels in Terms of Amount of Tension, Position and Height of Tongue	'n
		5	Classification of Consonants in Terms of Voic- ing, Place and Nanner of Articulation	ï 1
- 1		6 1	Stevens and Halle Nodel for the Perception and Generation of Speech	. 14
1	n -	7	First and Second Forment Transitions in Stops and Masals	17
1	•	8	Block Diagram of Dudley's Vocoder	19
,		9	L.P.C. All-Pole Nodel	25
. L . I		10	The Klatt Synthesizer	40
1	•	11	Processes of the Keele Text Synthesiser	42
	•	12	Minimum System Configuration	48
	6 R '	13	Block Diagram of CT-1 Speech Synthesizer	50
[^] e	-	14	Resonator Fraquencias vs. Control Data	54
١	•	15	Sample of Inputs for Mormal Operation and Momeric Peedback	58
,	•	16	Progression of a Parameter Through Time	62
, (17	Shann and Winder Manuschatel at Set	

vii °

7	•	[m	9	-	•		, , , , , , , , , , , ,	e á	·		۵ ۲ '۱	1 ⁶ m 7 5 1	ч7 ,	- 9
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	· , ·		(e)	'. %	•		a) 16	3			•	,		81
<u> </u>	e	•	(£)	•	•	•	₩ [°]					3	*	82 .
	۰. ۲.	19	(a)	Spec	trog	cam o	e Synt	theti	c Spec	ich,	i	a	د د	90 1
	`,	*	(b)	-, #	~			¶-±		•	مر	•		91
	3 4		(c)	, •	¢	۵ •		•	, ⁶	•		•		92 ·
ŧ	ſ,	ଟ	(à)	Ŵ	L					• •	و	1	r	* 93
	•		{ •}					• •	1	• * *		• ,		94
	·	,	(£)		· 80	•	° * ,	•	•	• r	¢ 1	, -		95
			(ġ)	, ,	· · ·	·	•	نھ ھ	-, 1	•	• ,		·, · , · •	96
		1 	(h) , .	, .	,	•		• •	•	•		ب	f p	97
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	r t	(T)	- W	•	, `	** • • ₩*		ļ	8	,	•	,	98
, /	. . .	•	()	· · · · ·	•		نافع	, 9 7	-	• `.e. (s.) `.e.(`.''	- 4 - 4	7 1	*	/ .99
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	,	≈1. 	(m) .	. 	*	- 				1 	مر ¹ ۲ ۵ بر ده ۲	, , , ,	1	102
	· · · .		(n)		,			1 - 1 			1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1			103
-		يني ۲ . دستر د تر د	(0)								0		ند به ^م در ۲۰ م ۲۰ م ۲۰ م ۲۰ م	101
که ۲۰۰۰ ۲۰۰۰ ۲۰			(1)		2'. ' 									
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		(c)	•	w	W	a 🗰	# / ``	-	112
		(ð)		*	Ħ	•	. •		113
	~	(e)	ii A			•	*	4 ¹	, 114
ł		(f)			₩.	" #			115
*	с, *	(g)	•	¥	• *	• •	ب چ		116
<i>د</i> ،	с с	(h)	•		•	-	,• é		° 117

	,	· · ·	
Table	1	English Segmentals	10
*	2	Analysis of Errors in Phonemic Translation	45
•	3	Analysis of Errors in Assignment of Stress	. 45
N	4	Control Parameters	53
•	5	Command Summary of Software	5 9
•	6	Structure of Phoneine Table	60
•	7	Vowel and Diphthong Confusion Matrix	86
•	8 ,	Consonant Confusion Matrix	86

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CHAPTER I

1.1 Background

Originally speech related research was directed to narrow band encoding and decoding using vocoders. However, by the late 1960's or early 1970's, the telecommunications industry found it less expensive to expand bandwidth and interest in narrow band communications declined. Such use is now limited to a few satellite communications systems and methods of scrambling speech.

Despite a decline in the need for narrow band transmission equipment, there are other very important reasons for the study of speech synthesis. For example, speech synthesis has become a very valuable tool for research into phonology and perception. In the field of speech recognition, synthesis is used with great effect to determine those features which carry the greatest information. Currently, computer generated speech is forging powerful links for future man-machine communications.

Some of the more recent applications of speech synthesis are an automated weather bureau for general aviation (Thordarson 1977) and several military applications (Beek 1977). Earlier work includes a cockpit man-machine interface for air-ground communications (Hilborn 1972), a reading machine for the blind (Allen 1973), and computer-generated wiring instructions for telephone exchanges (Flanagan 1972). The possibilities of man-machine interface are enormous and will eventually dictate the need for much work of a fundamental nature. At the present time, there seems to be a real need for an inexpensive system for speech synthesis which has inherent flexibility for use as a research tool. This is the reason and motivation in undertaking the development of a practical speech synthesis system.

It is appropriate at this time to review some of the characteristics, categories and perceptual concepts of speech. This will provide a useful introduction and background for developing subsequent chapters.

1.2 The Characteristics of Speech

Speech is composed of voiced and unvoiced sound in conjunction with periods of silence. Other important characteristics which are used in analysis are the fundamental frequency, the formant frequencies and loudness.

Voiced sounds are produced when the vocal cords at the opening of the larynx form a flexible obstruction to the air flow. Air forced through the larynx by the lungs cause these cords to vibrate and chop the air flow at a repetition rate of between 50 and 500 Hz. This rate is known as the fundamental frequency. Nominally, a male will have a fundamental frequency of 130 Hz and a female speaker; approximately 200 Hz. The volume velocity of air above the vocal cords when plotted against time, produces a triangular shaped waveform (Figure 1) that decreases 12 dB/octave in amplitude (with frequency ω as $1/\omega^2$). These bursts of air escape through the vocal tract which acts as a resonator and determines their spectra. The type of resonances are dependent on the vocal tract cavity and constructions formed by the tongue and the lips. Concentrations of energy in the spectrum due to resonances are clearly visible as dark bands in spectrograms (Figure 2) and are called formants. The first three are typically located at 500, 1500 and 2500 Hz. Finally due to radiation from the mouth, there is a 6 dB/octave rise in level for frequencies up to 5000 Hz.

Unvoiced sounds are caused by air flow through an orifice such as the teeth or a narrowing in the vocal tract. A constriction of this nature produces a Bernoulli pressure that causes a hissing sound. Pops and clicks caused by the tongue, teeth or lips are also unvoiced sounds. Although the entire vocal tract shapes the spectrum of these sounds, effectively it is only that part of the tract after the point of narrowing. The sound spectrum can also be shaped by a protrusion of the lips especially when the narrowing is across the teeth. (Sounds as S in seat, or SH in sheet.) In general, the spectra of unvoiced sounds are above 1500 Hz and are non-periodic.

Formants play a very important role in the production of

If vowels are plotted with respect to the first and woond for-

vowels





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mant frequencies, they will generate what is known as a vowel triangle (Figure 3). The lax or lenis vowels (ε, I, U) are characterized by little movement from the neutral position of the vocal tract and fall close to the center of the vowel triangle. Tense or fortis vowels occur further from the center. A rough correspondence exists between the first two formant frequencies and the positioning of the tongue (i.e., low Fl tongue high; high Fl tongue low, low F2 tongue back and high F2 tongue forward). Although formants are a characteristic of consonants as well as vowels, they are not generally as well defined. The first three formant frequencies are normally sufficient for individual recognition of either vowels or consonants.

Loudness of speech plays a part in determining intonation, rhythm and to some extent cues phonetic recognition. Two different sounds, for example /i/ and /a/ at the same intensity, will yield different loudness. For short periods of time (less than half a second) an increase in the duration of a sound causes an increase in loudness and is particularly noticeable when dealing with plosives. Unfortunately, the loudness of speech has not been well correlated with intensity and this results in difficulty of measurement.

1.3 Articulation of Linguistic Units

The basic linguistic unit with its own distinguishable sound is called a phoneme. These do not distinguish any concept or object by





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themselves. Phonemes can be categorized as segmental as opposed to suprasegmentals (prosodemes) which carry prosodic information such as stress, pitch or pause. Table 1 lists English language segmentals and examples according to the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and the Arpabet.

Speech sounds are generally classed in accordance to the extent the vocal tract is closed. Vowels, for example, are produced with little constriction in the vocal tract. Consonants are characterized by a definite constriction in the air stream.

Vowels can be described in terms of the shape of the tongue, the position of the highest part of the tongue (front, central or back), the height of the tongue, the tenseness of the muscles of the tongue, the position of the lips and the degree to which the nasal passages are open. Vowels are always voiced in the English language. Figure 4 illustrates the classification of vowels with respect to tongue position and tenseness. A diphthong is a special case of a vowel which involves the smooth but rapid transition from one vowel position to another.

Consonants can be related to laryngeal activity (voiced or voiceless sounds), amount of tension (tense or lax articulators), position of maximum constriction in the vocal tract (point of articulation), and the sound producing mechanism (manner of articulation).

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Because of a constriction in the air stream, consonants always contain unvoiced energy but not necessarily voiced energy. The presence of voicing is in fact a main factor in differentiating/b, d or g /from /p, t or k /. Otherwise, these are identical in place and manner of articulation (Figure 5).

Plosives are recognizable for the use of tension although other consonants may have this type of articulation to a lesser degree. In general, consonants produced by strong articulation are classed as "fortis" whereas those with less articulation are designated "lenis". Fortis consonants tend to be voiceless and aspirated whereas lenis consonants tend to be voiced and unaspirated.

Points of articulation are defined in terms of the upper and lower articulators (Dresher 1972). It should be noted, however, that it is common to find intermediate points of articulation. The classifications given below are sufficiently precise to accurately describe this function.

LABIAL

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> Bilabial Labiodental

Constriction formed by upper and lower lips upper teeth and lower lips

APICAL

Dental Alveolar Retroflex upper teeth and apex of tongue alveolae and apex of tongue apex of tongue turned back such that underside of tip is near the palate.

INDIA	I. ENGLIS	CL OBOLEONA MARS	¢.
Symbol Used	ARPABET	IPA Symbol	Typical Mord
Vowels			
IY	IY	i	beet
IH	IH	I	bit
EH	EH	ε,	bet
AE	ae .	#)	bat
λλ	λλ	ير 🗛 ا	box
AH	AH	A	but
XO *	NO	3	bought
UN .	UW	11	boot
UH	UH	U	book
ER	BR	5	bird
Liquids	•-	• (· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
WW	W	V	wet
WH	WE	W	which
XX	Y	j	/ yet
RR	R	r	rent
¥ LL	L	1	let .
Fricatives	-	· ·	fin
FF .	F	f	vat
VV	V ,	i V	thin
78	TH	` 0 3	that
TE	DH		sat
SS	* S		
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SH	SE		azure
, 2H	21	5	arm a
Nasals		-	mat '
	N	1	mat
· MN	-	n	nap sing
NG	NG .	ग	
Aspirant HH	н	h '	help
	4	44	
Stops BB	B	Ъ	bat
	Ð	đ	dog
DD GG [/]	G	• • • •	got
PP	P	í p	pot
TT .	Ť	t	tot
KK	ĸ	k	, cot
Diphthongs "	4	-	ar and
MIY	or	•I	boy
ALLY	àý.	. aī	hite
KHLY	TE		biit.
NOW	OW	00	boat
AAUW	AN	aU	bout
Affricates	.	• •	
CH	CH	t	chin
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. ENGLISH 'SEGNENTALS

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Height of Tongue	Tension	Posit Front	ion of To Center	ngue j Back
High "	tense lax	i I		u ∞ U
Nid	tense lax	e E	•	° •
Low		•	-	a

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Figure 4. Classification of Yowels in terms of amount of tension, position, and height of tongue.



Figure 5. Classification of Consomants in terms of Volcing, Figure

Constriction formed by

The alveolae in the far front of the palate with the front of the tongue.

the front of the palate and the front. of the tongue.

the back of palate with the back of

the velum and the back of the tongue

the extreme back of the velum or uvula

DORSAL

GLOTTAL

Palatal

Prepalatal

Velar Dvular

the vocal cords.

and the back of the tongue.

The manner of articulation describes the extent of constriction in the vocal tract. Fricatives, plosives (or stops), laterals, glides and nasals form the various categories.

the tongue

Fricatives are produced by forcing air through a narrow opening resulting in a rushing sound (frication). Fricatives can differ both in terms of place of articulation and in voicing.

Plosives are formed by completely blocking the air flow temporarily. This causes a short period of silence, roughly 100 msec followed by a burst of noise as the air rushes out from the narrow opening. Depending on the time it takes for the onset of voicing (VOT-voice onset time), the plosive is determined to be voiced or unvoiced. Generally, the burst of noise is of longer duration in unvoiced plosives.

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Alveopalatal

TATION

Semi-vowels which consist of laterals and glides are consonants with vowel-like properties. These are always followed or preceded by a vowel and are produced by first positioning the vocal tract in a vowel-like manner and then rapidly changing it to the position required by the following vowel.

Nasals are produced in opening the nasal passages by lowering the soft palate and in closing the oral passages at different points of articulation.

1.4 Perception of Speech

Perception is the process by which the brain interprets audio information received through the aural process. Design of an appropriate set of rules for speech synthesis must include recognition of the influence of perception.

A number of models for speech perception have been reviewed by Cooper (1972). Perhaps the most eloquent is that developed by Stevens and Halle (1967). This model (Figure 6) postulates that acoustic information undergoes spectral analysis, pitch and acoustic feature extraction. Spectral and pitch information are temporarily stored over a period of several syllables. A preliminary analysis is made on extracted acoustic features and results in the production of phonetic segments and features used by a control section. The control function has access to the phone-

ARTICULATORY GENERATIVE articulatory RULES -MECHANISM sound out commands Δ TRANSLATION quesi spectral & decision 4 pitch information CONTROL COMPARATOR A spectral ♣ pitch information TEMPORARY AUDITORY 4 dete from STORE MECANISM 1 sound in prior analysis PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS_ 9 acoustic features

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्राच्य स्ट्री tic structure of past utterances. On the basis of these two inputs, the control section makes an educated guess at the phonetic segment. A generative rule system, normally used for speech production uses the guess to originate the necessary articulator movements for production of that phonetic segment. These movements are, however, short-circuited to another section which generates the spectral content of the guess. This information is compared with the stored spectral information and the result fed back to the control centre which can adjust its guess until the error is very small.

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Perception can either be categorical or continuous. Categorical perception occurs when a small acoustic change can result in a large perceptual change. A small acoustic change in continuous perception, however, results in a small perceptual change. Typically stop consonants fall into the categorical classification whereas vowels are continuous.

Continuous perception is subject to context effects. This is very apparent in vowels, especially when they are close to the categorical boundary. As an example, a sound close to the boundary between /i/ and /I/ is heard as /i/ if preceded by /I/ and will be perceived as /I/ if preceded by /i/. Formant and fundamental frequencies vary widely for sman, women and children. Lieberman (1973) postulated that a set of calibrating signals (the wowels /i/, /a/, /u/, or the glides /j/, /v/) determines the length and size of the speaker's wocal tract

and are necessary to assign the acoustic signal to the correct phoneme.

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(理)

Categorical perception is contingent on several acoustic cues. Cooper et al (1952), using the Haskin Laboratory's patternplayback device, investigated stop and nasal consonants. Voicedunvoiced pairs /b,p//d,t//g,k/ were discovered to differ systematically in VOT, and in the transitions of the first formant frequency. When the stops /b, d, g/ are followed by a vowel, they differ in second formant transitions. This also applies for unvoiced stops and nasals (Figure 7).

The duration of silence in stops aids in the perception of voicing/unvoicing. The word 'rabid', for example, becomes 'rapid' as the period of silence is increased from 20 msec to 60-80 msec. The duration of the formant transitions also aids perception. Short transitions result in hearing stops (/b/ or /d/) ~ whereas medium transitions give /w/ or /j/. Longer transitions appear as /u/ or /i/.

In unvoiced stops, the relative frequency position of the noise burst cues perception. A high frequency noise burst results in /t/ whereas a low noise burst results in /p/. When the noise burst is level with or slightly above the second formant frequency, a /k/ is heard.



- STYLIZED AFTER THE HASKING LABS PATTERN- PLAYBACK FIGURES - -

FIGURE 7 FIRST AND SECOND FORMANT TRANSITIONS

 \mathbf{C}

IN STOPS AND NASALS

CHAPTER II

METHODS OF SYNTHESIS

The earliest forms of speech synthesis were acousticalmechanical in nature (von Kempelen 1791, Wheatstone 1830, Gabriel 1879, ref. Mattingly 1968). These machines modeled the human vocal tract and were true analog equipment. Typically the vocal and nasal tracts were represented by bellows and resonators of the correct size and shape. When used by a skilled operator, these machines could be made to produce vowels, nasals, various words and even connected speech (Mattingly 1968). This early work had a significant influence on modern research particularly on vocal tract analog synthesis and articulatory models.

The transition from mechanical analogues to electrical ones began in 1937-1938 with the development of the Voder. Just prior to this a vocoder was developed (Dudley 1939) which performed a crude spectral analysis. The vocoder used filters covering 250-3000 Hz and a circuit to measure the fundamental frequency (Figure 8). Output from the fundamental frequency detection circuit controlled a buzz circuit at the receiver or synthesizer section. If the amplitude was sufficiently small, it failed to activate that circuit and a hiss generator was substituted. The receiver section consisted of a set of filters corresponding to those of the transmitter-analyzer driven by the buzz or hiss generators. Output from the transmitter's filters which were then summed to produce the speech.



Dudley's Voder (demonstrated at the 1939 and 1940 World Fairs) was essentially the receiver section of the vocoder modified for manual operation. Dudley's vocoder differed from the previous work in two main aspects. Firstly, the model considered speech as an acoustical not articulatory function and secondly, synthesis was produced by electrical methods.

Development of the spectrogram and the Haskins pattern playback device in the 1940's, precipitated a more serious analysis of speech. Analysis-synthesis soon became an important tool in the understanding of the basic features of speech. Speech could now be broken down into a number of key elements and then re-synthesized according to those particular parameters.

Synthesis by rule is a method of production of artificial speech by formulation from a set of rules or algorithms. The ultimate objective of synthesis by rule is to generate natural sounding speech with a minimum input, and if possible, directly from a written text. However, it was not until the advent of the digital computer in the late 1950's that progress in this field was possible. Since then, the computer has become an essential tool in speech research.

2.1 Synthesis-by-Analysis

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Synthesis of speech by analysis concerns the extraction of efficient parameters by which good synthetic speech can be produced. B

modelling a particular set of parameters, speech can be reproduced with reasonable accuracy. The obvious limitation to this process is that any new vocabulary must be preceded by more analysis. Nonetheless, the early work in this field is extremely important because it provides understanding of the spectral contours of speech as well as electrical methods for reproduction.

2.1.1 Terminal Analog Synthesis

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Terminal-analogs (Flanagan 1957) model the vocal tract in terms of its input and output characteristics. A source-filter decomposition (Fant 1960) takes place separating the sources of sound and the vocal tract. This decomposition, common to most synthesis models, assumes no source-vocal tract interaction and represents speech as a source spectrum, shaped by a vocal tract transfer function. Spectral characteristics are generated by resonant and antiresonant circuits arranged in series or parallel configurations. Early synthesizers were constructed along these lines using analog filters. However, once computers became readily available, filter simulation became the primary method of synthesizing speech.

Terminal analog synthesizers are often classified by the type of architecture used in the configuration of their formant filters. In a series configuration, the formant filters are connected in cascade, whereas a parallel model will have these filters connected in a shunt arrangement.

Both parallel and serial synthesizers have their advantages and disadvantages. Serial synthesis does not require the amplitudes of each resonance to be specified. This is highly desirable in synthesis by rule because of the simplification of the algorithms. Serial configurations also give much better production of vowel sounds. A parallel configuration, however, propagates noise additively resulting in a better signal to noise ratio. Since consonants frequently require emphasis on the higher frequencies, the ability to control the amplitudes of each formant individually in parallel synthesis is very useful. Errors in formant tracking occurring in parallel synthesis do not alter the amplitudes of those formants that are following a correct trajectory and are therefore less troublesome. One of the disadvantages of the parallel synthesis is the introduction of zeros falling between resonances. If perceptible, they distort the synthesis giving it a reverberant quality. The zeros do, however, provide low frequency emphasis.

Parameters for synthesis are obtained by spectral analysis of speech as derived by sonographs or fast Fourier transforms (FFT). The specifications generally used are formant frequencies, and their bandwidths or amplitudes.

2.1.2 Linear Prediction

The object of linear prediction coding (LPC) analysis is to redict the output signal solely on the basis of linear combinations of

past input and output data. Insofar as analysis-synthesis systems are concerned, the linear predictive methodology appears to be the best available to date. Fundamentally, linear predictive coding models the $\frac{1}{2}$ vocal tract and then searches for appropriate parameters on the basis of least square error.

The coefficients used in LPC analysis are varied. They can be representative of the impulse response of a vocal tract filter, autocorrelation of the signal, spectrum, cepstrum, poles and zeros of the filter, or reflection coefficients (Makhoul 1975). Of these, the most frequently used are impulse response and reflection coefficients.

As an example of the processes involved in LPC analysis, - consider the all pole model (Figure 9). (The output signal is a linear combination of past output values and the present input:

$$x (n) = \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_k x (n-k) + \lambda U (n) \text{ where } x (n) \text{ is the}$$

present output, U (n) the present input and a the LPC coefficients.

Taking transforms of both sides

$$x(z) = x(z) (\sum_{k=1}^{P} a_k z^{-k}) + \lambda U(z)$$

The transfer function H (z) then becomes:

$$H(z) = \frac{x(z)}{V(z)} = \frac{1}{p}$$

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(an all pole transfer function.)

Frequently the input is unknown and the output is based

solely on past samples:

$$\mathbf{x} (\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{k=1}^{p} \mathbf{a}_{k} \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{n}-\mathbf{k})$$

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The error between samples is then given by

e(n) = x(n) - x(n)

(also known as a residual)

The a_k 's are then chosen to minimize the total squared error E, i.e., to solve $\frac{\partial E}{\partial a_k} = 0$ where $E = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} e^2$ (m).

The advantages of LPC analysis-synthesis lie in the very accurate estimates of the features of speech. It is also reasonably fast and robust, i.e., it is tolerant to noise and the distortions of speech typical in telephone line transmission. LPC frequently is used because it offers the capability of direct analysis and a means of, obtaining accurate coefficients. For example, LPC is a precise way of plotting formant frequencies and trajectories. Until fairly recently, LPC was not used directly in synthesis-by-rule. The development of an integrated LPC synthesizer chip (TMC 0280) by Texas Instruments (Wiggins and Brantingham 1978) will undoubtedly have a significant influence on future applications. For the first time; it is now possible to obtain a low cost device which can be used in real time for speech synthesis.


2.1.3 Vocal Tract Analog

The vocal tract can be modelled by a series of hard walled tubes, each connected end to end with differing cross sections in such a way as to create a quantized version of a vocal tract. Thus it is possible to describe the volume velocities or pressures within the vocal tract by Webster's horn equation with appropriate boundary conditions (Mermelstein 1973).

By utilizing the duality which exists between acoustical and electrical systems (i.e., representing volume velocity by current, and pressure by voltage, etc.), it is possible to represent the vocal tract by a series of RLC networks. Early attempts to produce vocal tract analog synthesizers were constructed on these concepts. With the advent of computer simulation, it is now possible to synthesize connected speech (i.e., meaningful words).

The main problem with vocal tract analog synthesis is that of obtaining appropriate control data (i.e., cross sectional area, etc.). In the past, x-ray cinegraphy and palatography were used. The quality of speech produced by this methodology was intelligible and human-sounding but involved considerable effort in adjusting the model for optimum results. When LPC analysis became available, these methods were dropped because of obvious health hazards or inconvenience to the subject under test. The LPC technology enables analysis to be based directly upon speech rather than examination of yocal tract dimensions.

2.1.4 The Articulatory Model

The articulatory model for speech synthesis is one in which the parameters which determine output are based on tongue position, lip protrusion and other physiological factors.

Coker's model (1967) transformed the physiological parameters into formant frequencies and then used a formant synthesizer to complete the task. This was accomplished by classification of each sound in terms of the target configuration and velocities of the articulators. These parameters were then used in specifying an area function from which the formant frequencies could be extracted.

Ishizaka and Flanagan (1972) developed a laryngeal and vocal tract analog system. The laryngeal model was based on the symmetry of the vocal cords, representing them by two separate horizontally movable masses. This laryngeal model when used in conjunction with a vocal tract analog is one of the few that does not assume the excitation source to be independent of the vocal tract. Although this representation was useful for evaluation and understanding some physiological data, it tended to complicate other areas. The main problem seemed to be an inability to obtain proper control information. In general, articulatory movements are rather complex and are more appealing to a phonetician than anyone engaged in speech synthesis.

2.2 Synthesis-by-Rule

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Speech synthesis by rule is a rather broad description of various approaches to synthetic generation of speech where rules of algorithms are used. It can be considered as the production of recognizable artificial speech by transforming a written representation of the utterance into a continuous acoustic output. Nost synthesis systems are categorized by the manner in which the utterance to be generated is represented. Phonetic synthesizers, for example, operate on a phonetic representation of speech whereas text synthesizers rely on an orthographic representation of speech (i.e., printed text), translating it into phonetics and then utilizing phonetic synthesis to generate utterances. The two most important objectives of speech synthesis-by-rule lie first in attaining natural-sounding speech and second, in generation of this speech from a minimal input (ideally from written text or phonetic transcription).

Achievement of natural speech requires a high phonetic quality, voice quality and good prosodic content. Phonetic quality, to a large extent, determines intelligibility and is primarily dependent on formant and spectral composition. Most synthesis-by-rule systems are based upon description of formant trajectory. These descriptions range from simple linear interpolation between steady state sounds to complex fitting. Parameter transitions occur in any synthesis system and rules for generating them are quite complex. Reasonably good results have been obtained for phonetic quality by using various rules and synthesis models. The resulting speech, however, usually sounds very mechanical and cannot be im-

proved without careful attention to voicing. Voice quality is a very important factor in improving the quality of synthetic speech, since it is the best method to eliminate what might be termed "mechanical speech" properties, Correct use of voicing can also generate speech characteristics of either sex and even age groupings. Several rules for improving naturalness and voice quality are presented by Sapozhkov (1972). One method involves modifying the hardware such that the aspiration source is bandpass filtered between 30 and 70 Hz. This is then used to modulate amplitude and frequency of the voicing source. At the present time rules governing voice quality are generally inadequate and suggest the need of a better understanding of the glottal waveforms.

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Prosodic content is determined by the duration of formant transitions and timing in general. For example, the length of some consonants are dependent on the position occupied in a word (initial, medial or final). Stressed vowels are longer than unstressed vowels. Moreover, the context in which a sound is made determines its length as well as its position in the breath group. Thus the rules governing duration are complex. Considerable progress has been made in the development of rules governing prosodic quality by Umeda (1972). However, more work would seem to be required in the assignment of sound durations if the objectives of natural speech are to be met.

Phonetic synthesis systems rely on phonetic strings with special marks or modifiers as input. Between the written text and the phonetic string, some form of decision making must take place which inter

prets the whole sentence. A simple example of this problem is illustrated by the use of the word "lead". Obviously the process of sentence analysis is not simple and becomes increasingly complex as vocabulary is expanded. Analysis coupled with phonetic synthesis is termed text

The English language is constantly changing and there is little hope of ever compiling a complete lexicon for analysis. Fortunately, most English words have an internal structure consisting of units called morphs which can be used to compile a lexicon one magnitude smaller than the number of words. Thus it appears reasonable that a morph lexicon would be an ideal basis for representing the majority of the words. Adjustments for morphophonemic and lexical stress would be required to synthesize speech from unrestricted text (Allen 1976).

Development of a text synthesizer capable of handling a reasonable vocabulary is a formidable task involving storage of a large amount of data. It is likely that use of text synthesis will be limited due to cost factors. A phonetic synthesizer, on the other hand, is much simpler, low cost and ideally suited for small systems.

CHAPTER III

MAJOR CONTRIBUTIONS TO SPEECH SYNTHESIS-BY-RULE

A review of some of the major contributions to the field of artificial speech generation is helpful in identifying and understanding earlier concepts which are incorporated in the synthesis strategy developed in this thesis. Many of the problems encountered in early work were due to the computational speed of the computers available at that time. In this respect, the use of a microprocessor and its inherent speed limitations are similar.

3.1 Kelly and Gerstman

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The first attempt to use a computer in synthesizing speech by rule was by J.L. Kelly and L.J. Gerstman (1961). The computer (IBM 7090) was used to calculate the necessary parameters for synthesis from a phonetic input by using a set of relatively simple rules. A serialsynthesizer was used and controlled by 9 parameters, frication (the hiss amplitude), voicing (the buzz amplitude), the fundamental frequency (pitch) and the center frequencies and bandwidths of three formants. The program input consisted of a deck of punched cards. Each card contained a symbol corresponding to the required phoneme, a stress mark, or, modifications in stored values for circumstances that the rules were not equipped to handle. Each phoneme had thirteen associated parameters. These represented the duration of the initial transition, the duration of the steady-state, the nine required synthesis parameters during steady-state, the duration of the final transition and whether or not the

phoneme was a vowel or a consonant.

The duration between the steady-state part of adjacent phonemes was the sum of the final and initial transitions. The parameters for consonant-to-vowel transitions followed a smooth convex path, vowelto-consonant transitions a concave path, consonant-to-consonant and vowel-to-vowel transitions followed a straight line. During the steadystate, the parameters are held constant. If a stress mark is included in the input deck, another parameter table is used that incorporates the necessary durations and change to other parameters that are characteristic of stressed vowels.

The results of this synthesizing strategy are debatable. It is capable of generating clear and intelligible speech only after a great deal of ad-hoc changes to many of the stored values. The great contribution of Kelly and Gerstman was the use of a computer which permitted the rules of synthesis to be altered, tested and improved. This formed a basis for ruch of the more recent investigations.

3.2 Holmes

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The second use of a computer in synthesis-by-rule was undertaken by J.W. Holmes et al (1964). In this system, the computer was used to prepare a paper tape of control parameters for the synthesizer. Input to the program consisted of phonetic symbols, fundamental frequency values, and auxiliary modifier characters. The program did not run in well-time and its only purpose was to prepare the punched tape for future use by the

synthesizer.

The system is based on a parallel-terminal analog synthesizer consisting of five bandpass filters, a voicing source and a hiss source. Three of the formant filters have separate amplitude controls and may be driven from either source. The fourth filter (fixed at 3500 Hz) used only during voiced passages, shares a common amplitude control with the fifth filter (broadband from 3400-4000 Hz) used only during aspiration. The output from all five filters are summed together to form synthesized The voicing source has a fundamental frequency (FO) ranging sound. from 50 to 250 Hz in 31 levels arranged to be roughly logarithmic. The first formant (F1) consists of 30 levels each spread 30 Hz from 130 to 1030 Hz. The second formant frequency (F2) has 30 levels spaced 60 Hz varying from 760 to 2560 Hz. The third (F3) also has 30 levels spaced 60 Hz but ranges from 1540 to 3340 Hz. Amplitude controls are quantized into 31 levels. Thirty of these are spaced 1.75 dB. The other level is used to disconnect the filter. The synthesizer is controlled by a punched tape containing all the necessary parameters in 10 msec intervals.

The phonetic elements used by the program correspond roughly to the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Because of difficulties in synthesizing stop consonants, several sub-phonetics were incorporated (i.e. silence, noise burst etc.). All the parameter values, except SW (voicing/aspiration) and FO, are determined for an initial transition, a steady state period, and subsequently the final transition. Steady state values are stored in a table along with corresponding phonemes. Both initial and final transitions are computed on the basis of adjacent phonemes. The table also contains a rank between+1 and 31 assigned to

each phoneme in addition to three parameters governing transitions typical of the unstressed phoneme. These parameters (internal transitions, external transitions, and fixed contribution) represent the duration of the transition for the dominant phoneme, the duration of the adjacent phoneme and the steady-state duration respectively.

If the rank of the phoneme is higher than that of adjacent phonemes, then the transitions are characteristic of that phoneme. Should the rank be lower than either of adjacent phonemes, the phoneme with the highest rank determines the behaviour of the transitions. Generally, stop consonants have the highest rank, vowels the lowest, nasals and fricatives falling somewhere in between. If the ranks are equal, the first phoneme is dominant.

Transitions are based upon linear interpolation of parameters stored in the phoneme table. Fundamental frequency values are entered by hand from spectrographic data. Should the table parameters need to be adjusted on a temporary basis, a set of special modifier characters is incorporated.

The results obtained from this synthesizer and synthesis strategy are reported to be quite acceptable and capable of generating very realistic sounding speech but only when the text input is carefully edited. Problems associated with this technique stem from the lack of rules governing stress or intonation, which necessitates transcription of FO values from spectrograms and alteration of the duration of stress phonemes.

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3.3 Rabiner

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The research work by Rabiner (1968) is of great importance to the development of speech synthesis by rule. As in previous examples, a computer is used to control a terminal analog synthesizer. The synthesizer is of the series type with one parallel side branch for the unvoiced component of fricatives. Static phoneme characteristics are determined as in other systems according to lookup table. The method involves considerable computation rendering it incapable of real-time processing.

Considerable effort went into obtaining an accurate representation of the formant transitions. A solution to a second order, critically damped differential equation was selected because it gave a good fit to experimental data and required only one time constant for solution. General motion for a formant with initial position Ai, to a formant with final position Af and an initial formant velocity Vi is described by the following equation,

 $x(t) = Af + (Ai - Af) \exp(-\frac{t}{\tau}) + [Vi + \frac{(Ai - Af)}{\tau}]t \exp(-\frac{t}{\tau})$

for $t \ge 0$.

Each formant can nove from its present steady state value to the next at different rates. This necessitates the formation of a time constant (T) for each formant per pair of phonemes. There are approximately 40 phonemes in English, yielding 1560 possible combinations of phoneme pairs. With three formants, this means some 4680 possible time constants need

to be sorted and stored. By various approximations the number of time constants to be specified was reduced by one order of magnitude.

As each formant progresses towards its target value, its motion is specified by the differential equation. When all the formants are within frequency bands around their respective targets, the program determines if the phoneme to be generated is to be stressed. If it is to be stressed, then the duration of that phoneme is lengthened to correspond to the value stored in a table of stressed phonemes. As soon as the stressed duration has been generated, normal motion towards the next phoneme continues. If the phoneme were not stressed, then normal motion resumes immediately.

The remaining synthesizer control parameters are 'time locked' to the formant motion. The amplitude controls change linearly at predetermined rates, approximately one time constant (τ) after motion towards the new target value is initiated. Nasal and fricative poles start to move as soon as new formant target values are defined. The poles and zeros move in a linear fashion towards their targets and reach them as soon as the amplitude controls are switched. For nasals the first formant bandwidth is increased from 50 Hz to 100 Hz, 50 msec. before and after the nasal. For non-nasals, the nasal pole-zero pair are set to 1400 Hz where they will supposedly cancel. Unless the synthesizer is constructed using digital technology, it is doubtful that this claim would be met. For non-fricative sounds, the fricative pole-zero pair are set to 1500 Hz.

The fundamental frequency model is based on work done by

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Lieberman. This work is founded upon the breath group. For the first 300 msecs of the breath group, the fundamental frequency rises quickly to about 125 Hz, whereupon it remains constant until the last 300 msec. when it falls off rapidly. If the breath group is a simple interrogative sentence (yes-no question) in the last 175 msec FO rises 60 Hz. A stressed vowel would lead to a peak in FO for roughly 500 msec.

The results of this synthesis strategy were excellent. The amount of calculations required, however, make it impractical for realtime synthesis. It is, nevertheless, one of the best attempts at accurate modelling of human speech to date.

3.4 Ainsworth

Further modifications of the Holmes synthesizer were made by W.A. Ainsworth (1972) at the University of Keele. In this concept the values of the first formant frequency (Pl) were changed from 130-1030 Hz to 230-1030 Hz and another filter (FN) was incorporated with a range of 100-400 Hz for nasal resonances. Otherwise the synthesizer was identical.

The real improvement over the Holmes synthesizer was that Ainsworth designed the system to be controlled by a PDP-8 computer in real time.

Although the Holmes and Ainsworth synthesizers are virtually identical, the synthesis rules differ considerably. This is pastially due to the constraints of operating in real-time. The concept of a

phoneme having a 'rank' was eliminated by Ainsworth and only two parameters T1 and T2 determine the motion of transitions. These represent the duration of the steady-state and transitional parts of the corresponding phoneme respectively. An attempt at generating a set of rules for the fundamental frequency (PO) contours was made. This is based upon the isochronous foot theory (Ainsworth, 1972), where it is assumed that the duration of breath groups are constant. Stress marks are incorporated and positioned after each stressed syllable. The intervals of time between stress marks are then determined in the program. Should two marks appear within an interval of time, roughly 400 msec, then the duration (T1) of the last stressed phoneme is lengthened until the time between stress marks are equivalent to the threshold of 400 msec. Fundamental frequency was also varied in accordance to the stress marks. It can rise linearly to a peak during a stressed syllable and then fall away linearly to a minimum approximately halfway between stressed syllables. This methodology necessitates a buffer to store all the control parameters until such a time as the first stress mark is found (at which time the FO values are inserted into the buffer). This results in a 250-500 msec delay before the system starts to synthesize speech. The synthesizer when controlled by a PDP-8 and 4 K core is capable of storing the controlled program, the phonene lookup table and a buffer of sufficient length to store about 3.4 seconds of speech.

The results of this particular synthesizing scheme are relatively good and eliminate the need to search for fundamental fre-, quencies from spectrograms as was the case with the Helmes synthesizer.

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Although the speech is not natural sounding, it is reputed to be much easier to listen to than monotonic utterances.

3.5 Klatt

Several hybrid devices have been designed which take advantage of both series and parallel configurations (Kayto et al 1971, Ochiai et al 1972, and Klatt 1972). This synthesizer and its later modifications (Klatt 1976, 1977) are arranged in such a way that it can change from series to parallel configuration during synthesis. (A block diagram is shown in Figure 10). This means that vowels can be generated as a series network and consonants on a parallel configuration without difficulty. The synthesizer is simulated on a general purpose computer. Second order digital resonators are required with some twenty control parameters determining the output. Advantages of an entire software implementation are considerable. Calibration is not required, stability is assured and control of signal-to-noise ratio is available.

The synthesis strategy of the Klatt system is uncomplicated but the rules are quite complex. Each new phonetic symbol determines a target value for each parameter by table look-up. These target values are then modified according to the preceding or following phonetic symbols and stress or durational patterns. Transition time between target values is also determined by adjacent phonemes. Transitions are obtained from linear interpolation or half-cosine contours. The rules take into account



FIGURE SYNTHESIZER KLATT 10

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such factors as stress, segment duration, fundamental frequency variations, segmental insertions, deletions and substitutions. Although the results obtained from this system are good, the synthesizer simulation and complex rules prevent real-time synthesis.

3.6 The Keele System

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A simple text synthesis word processing system was developed in England at the University of Keele (Ainsworth 1973). In this study, the orthographic text is transcribed onto paper tape and fed to an inexpensive minicomputer (PDP-8) where appropriate control parameters for a terminal analog synthesizer are generated.

The synthesis process involves four major states (Figure 11). These are breath group segmentation, phonemic translation, assignment of stress and parameter calculation.

Breath group segmentation boundaries are established by reading a character string into a buffer and assigning boundaries at one of the following identifiers (whichever comes first):

- 1) at a punctuation mark
- 2) preceding a conjunction
- 3) between a noun and verb phrase
- 4) before a prepositional phrase
- 5) before a noun Darase.

The character string up to this identifier is transferred.

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Figure 11. Processes of the Keele text synthesizer.

onward for further processing. The remaining characters are shifted down as part of the next breath group. If none of the above boundaries are found, the full buffer rounded to the next word boundary is designated as one breath group. Best results obtained are for a 50 character buffer, where boundary assignment is correct 80% of the time.

The letter-to-sound rules are based upon a table listing each letter and its common phonetic translation along with any conditions necessary for that phonemic pronunciation. e.g.,

(ough)t	-	101
b (ough)	-	/a U/ '
t(ough)	-	/ A £/
c (ough)		/) <u>f</u> /

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Common exceptions are stored in a lexicon. Where translation of a letter proves to be ambiguous and where context cannot be resolved, the most common or neutral phoneme is inserted.

According to Ainsworth, vowels are the most difficult to translate, with the letter 'O' the worst of all. Consonant errors are usually substitution of a voiced phoneme for unvoiced phonemes, e.g., confusion of /2/ and /6/.

Any remaining errors are unstressed vowels which are caused primarily by letters with similar context, e.g.,

 $h(ea)rt = / \frac{a}{2} / \frac{$

r(ea)lity 1 in/ gr(ea)t Æ i/ m(ea)t / 1 /

It seems odd, therefore, that these words would not be stored in a lexicon along with other exceptions. Table 2 lists Ainsworth's error analysis of phonemic translation of several source words.

Words that are usually unstressed, i.e., articles, prepositions, conjuctions, etc. are stored in memory along with a list of prefixes.

Words stored in memory are left unstressed. Those words not stored in memory but with prefixes belonging to the stored list have the second syllable stressed. For words not in memory and with the prefix not stored, the first syllable only is stressed.

Table 3 lists errors incurred by mis-assignment of stress for text, bisyllabic words, trisyllabic and longer words.

Where a phoneme is preceded by an identical phomeme, the second is deleted and if a word ends in a vowel with the next word starting with a vowel, a glide is inserted. The remaining speech processing is performed by a synthesis by rule program as described earlier.

According to Ainsworth, the system worked well, especially the letter-to-sound rules employed. On the average, a seven word sentence will only contain one phonetic error. When tested on uninformed listenefs, results of between 50 and 90 percent intelligibility were obtained. Problems arise, however, when a cluster of errors causes the listeners

	ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN PHONEMIC TRANSLATION			
Source	Error (percent)	Stressed vowels (percent)	Unstressed vowels (percent)	Consonants (percent)
Textbook	84	4.5%	2.28	1,3%
Novel	114	6.8%	3.01	1.28
Newspaper	114	. / 6.98	3.18	1.0%



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TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN ASSIGNMENT OF STRESS

Source	Error (percent)
Textbook	10%
Bisyllabic words only	174
Trisyllabic words only	314
all longer words	441

*Note 90% of text was monosyllabic.

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to lose track for a few sentences. Apparently the onus is placed on the listener to concentrate on the utterance to determine its meaning. In all, this system is very encouraging in the sense that synthesis was performed on a small computer with rather limited facilities. Improvements in the rules assigning stress and increasing the existing lexicon could lead to a highly acceptable system.

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CHAPTER IV

HARDMARE

4.1 Systems Configuration

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The development of the phonetic synthesizer described herein is based on the use of an MC 6800 microprocessor with MIKBUG firmware. The complete system has available 16 K RAM, 2 K ROM including monitor and floppy disc programs. Peripherals such as Model 33 Teletype, Volker Craig 303A CRT, Control Data Vucom 1, associated magnetic tape drive, PerSci disc and Computalker Consultants CT-1 synthesizer completed the system.

The program was initially assembled using a SWTPc editorassembler but was later re-assembled using the Motorola M68SAM crossassembler. This was executed on the development system described previously. Program de-bugging was undertaken using the Motorola decodedisassembler (C. R. Bilbe M6800 user group library **#** 56) with manual insertion and deletion of breakpoints.

Since the design objective for hardware was visualized as a self contained voice synthesizer and not as a minicomputer adaptation, memory and input-output facilities were minimized. The final system configuration can be constructed on one circuit card and if used in conjunction with the CT-1 synthesizer, the total system can be housed in an enclosure $30 \ge 20 \ge 5$ cm. including the power supply. The systems configuration is shown in Figure 12.



FIGURE 12 MINIMUM SYSTEM CONFIGURATION

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4.2 The Synthesizer

4.2.1 General Description

A number of options are open in the selection of a synthesizer. For example, a synthesizer can either be designed and constructed with the attendant problems of stability of filter networks or a unit can be purchased and modified as necessary. These considerations are well covered by Cohen and Massaro (1976).

Currently there are several commercial synthesizers available. Of those studied, the Swedish equipment made by FONEMA (Model OVE 111d) has the most versatile features but is a relatively expensive device. The VOTRAX manufactured by the Federal Screw Works is a pre-programmed synthesizer with fixed phonemes and thus could not be used. A relatively new synthesizer has recently been introduced by Computalker Consultants (Model CT-1) which appears to have the desirable features and is attractively priced. It was, therefore, decided that the Model CT-1 would be used as the synthesizer and modified if necessary.

The synthesizer is similar in organization to that of Klatt (1972) in that series networks and parallel side branches are arranged into nasal, frication and formant networks. From an architectural standpoint, the CT-1 synthesizer closely resembles a simplified version of the OVE 111d by Fonema. The block diagram of the CT-1 synthesizer is shown in Figure 13.



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There are two sources of sound in the CT-1 synthesizer. These are the voicing and noise sources. The voicing source frequency is controlled by an input FO and its level by a signal AV. The voicing waveform has to be carefully shaped to model the glottal pulse and associated spectral slope of -12 dB octave. The noise source level is controlled by AH and AF and its spectrum is essentially flat in the audio spectrum.

The formant network consists of three variable filters in series. These are excited by either voicing or noise sources, or both. Voicing level is controlled by AV and aspiration level by AH. Formant filters F1, F2, and F3 are controlled in frequency only.

The frication branch consists of a single variable resonator driven by the noise source with level control AF. Centre frequency of the filter is controlled by FF.

Nasal effects are created by a wide-band resonator with its centre frequency fixed at 1400 Hz. This side branch imparts a broad formant to the output which is common to nasal sounds. The resonator is driven by a voicing source in such a way that the input cannot exceed the voicing component of the formant network.

Output from the three branches (nasal, formant and frication) are added together to form speech output. Control of the various parameters is obtained by application of 8 bits of data to each of the 10 address positions. The received data is converted to the appropriate analogue signals within the unit. A list of control parameters, function, address and range is shown in Table 4.

4.2.2 Signals and Timing

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The Model CT-1 is optimized for an S100 bus and operation with an 8080 microprocessor system and uses only 8 address lines. It was therefore necessary to modify the synthesizer to interface with the bus system used on the 6800 microprocessor. The following description gives a brief outline of signals required by the synthesizer and the methods of interface.

Of the eight address lines used by the synthesizer, the first four (A0-A3) select the specific parameter to be updated. The last four (A4-A7) are compared to a DIP switch and partially enable transfer of data from the computer to the synthesizer. Data transfer occurs when signals SOUT and \overrightarrow{PWR} are in their active states (high and low respectively) and A4-A7 are valid. Two additional signals \overrightarrow{EXTCLR} and \overrightarrow{POC} are used to inhibit synthesis by disconnecting the audio output whenever either is low.

Because the processor treats the synthesizer as write only memory, the eight bit data bus can be either unidirectional or bidirectional. In the development system, the computer bidirectional bus is split into

TABLE 4

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CONTROL PARAMETERS

Address	Mnemonic	Name	Approx. Range
A3 A0	r N	•	
0000	AV	Voicing Amplitude (dB)	40 .
0001	PO	Voicing Frequency (Hz)	73 .4-463
0010	Pl	First Formant Frequency (Hz)	174.9-1452
0011	F2	Second Formant Frequency (Hz)	524.2-4356
0100	P 3	Third.Formant Frequency (Hz)	1704-5508
0101	АН	Aspiration Amplitude (dB)	40
0110	AF	Frication Amplitude (dB)	12
0111	FF	Frication Frequency (Hz)	1706-14160
1000	ÅN	Nasal Amplitude (dB)	40
1001)	, o	
1010		available as analogue voltages	8
	•	- not used by synthesizer	
1011			4
1100	J		•
1 1 0 1)	not used	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$
1110	}	not used	/8
1111	SW	Audio On / Off Switch	
		- 1 J	



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URE 14 RESONATOR FREQUENCIES VS. CONTROL VALUES

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two unidirectional buses to permit use of inexpensive RAM. The data-out unidirectional bus is used but only out of convenience. The signals, SOUT, EXTCLR and FOC are tied high and FWR is generated from the NAND of $\overline{R/W}$, $\emptyset 2$ and VMA signals from the MC 6800 bus. Address bits A4-A7 are selected such that the synthesizer is addressed above existing RAM, i.e., for location 2000 Hex. A4-A6, are connected to A4-A6 of the computer, while A7 is connected to A13.

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On receipt of the correct address and write signals, the eight data bits and addresses AO-A3 presented to the synthesizer are stored in a latch. The data component is connected to an analogue voltage and directed toward the correct parameter channel according to address bits AO-A3. The analogue voltage is then retained by a sample-and-hold device for use by the analogue circuitry of the synthesizer. A minimum of 20 microseconds is allowed between individual updates in order to permit the sample-and-hold to stabilize under worst-case conditions. Furthermore, these updates should not exceed 50-100 milliseconds as the sampleand-hold will lose ability to maintain constant values.

CHAPTER V

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SOFTWARE

5.1 Synthesis Strategy

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The main objective in developing the program was to construct a set of rules for use on a 6800 microprocessor system that is capable of producing intelligible speech. It should also be flexible enough to permit basic research on speech synthesis or perception. A small scale system with limited memory is desirable because it can be developed into a self-contained voice synthesis peripheral and operate as a talking terminal. These requirements strongly suggest real-time operation to reduce the memory and eliminate the need for peripherals such as disk drives. fortunately, the slow speed of microprocessors limits computational capabilities and therefore imposes some constraints on the synthesis strategy. Consequently, rules must be developed which are essentially a compromise between those that minimize computation and yet still provide adequate intelligibility.

Natural sounding speech not only requires phonetic information but other information such as fundamental frequency contours, stress and duration patterns as well as syntactic and semantic factors. This requires a rather complex set of rules beyond the capabilities of the microprocessor system operating in real-time. Hevertheless, an attempt has been made to introduce some elements such as stress and duration which result in a more natural sounding speech. It is doubtful that this has improved intelligibility significantly, but it does make the output sound more natural. The input to the program (Pigure 15) consists of a sequence of phoneme representations and a group of secondary modifiers which are used to control pitch, duration and periods of silence. A phonetic coding scheme is used that is similar to the ARPABET (Table 1) but extended to two characters per phoneme. Other characters have been introduced to aid in editing phonetic strings or performing special functions (Table 5).

A look-up table is resident in the program and supplies information concerning each phoneme. This information is in the form of 22 bytes organized into three fixed format fields (Table 6):

The first field contains two ASCII characters which represent the phoneme. A second field contains nine parameters used to represent steady state sounds of each phoneme in isolation. The third field with the remaining eleven parameters, represents the duration of onset, transitional and steady-state parts of the phoneme.

Grouping of the timing parameters in the third field may on first glance seem arbitrary. However, changes in Fl, F2, F3 and FF occur as the articulators move from one position (and sound) to another and consequently share common timing. The parameters AV, AH, AF and AN not only rely on the positioning of the articulators but also depend on other factors such as sub-glottal pressure and volume velocity. In addition, these four parameters change independently of each other. AF

>1mmehefiy002

>50	35	Ъr,	E9	99	60	60	80	7F
>40	35	FE	52	РS	ØØ	60	80	łΞ
>60	35	řŦ.	53	B3	60	00	50	ų ų
>60	35	Р P	53	83	60	66	30	r'r'
°>60	35	F P	53	ь3	00	00	50	₽₽,
,>6Ø	35	££	53	B 3	00	60	50	rr i
>66	35	r F	53	E3	00	00	50	
>60	35	F F	53	B3	60	60	50	FF
>60	35	E E	53	83	ØИ	66	50	ř F
>6A	35	89	5A	60	60	00	80	00
>74	35	53	61	59	00	60	80	00
>7Ę	35	7D	63	AC	66	00	50	00
>SU	35	1E	69	AD	ØØ	00	50	00
>50	35	7 E	63	AD	ØØ	ØØ	50	60
>96	35	7E	68	AL	øe	60	50	60
> ४0	35	7 E	68	AD	60	60	4 0	00
>80	35	7E	68	AD	60	66	80	00
>30	35	7 E	65	AÐ	ØØ	00	50	60-
>96	35		77	Сч	60	00	30	00
>80	35	35	56	E3	ØØ	66	56	60
>30	35	54	72	# II.	00	60	30	66
>50	35	85	9 6	r r	00	60	50	90
>90	35	55	96	r r`	00	00	80	00
>90	35	d D	76	Ĩ.Ľ	60	00	30	00
>60	35	d 5	96	F P	ųи	00	80	ØØ
>80	35	85	96	FF	ØØ	00	80	00
>80	ر 35	65	96	f F	Ø0	00	\$ 0	00
>52	35	94	BA	18	60	00	50	00
>94	35	A3	DE	31	00	00	80	00
>8 F	35°		65	4A	00	00	80	60
>40	35	Cl	26	63	00	00	80	60
270		Dø	44	7°C	60	60	30	66
>90	35	DØ	41	90	66	00	80	0 0
\$90	35	Dø	4E	50	60	68	80	66
`>96	35	ЪЮ	4£	80	00	00	80	60
>>90	35	DØ	4 E	60	60	60	56	60
>00	35	80	80	80	60	60	80	60
>00	35	30	80	80	ØØ	ØØ	56	60
>06	35	50	80	80	60	UĽ	50	60
>AV	F.	F1	FŻ	F3	AH	A#	#F	AN
			***	-	a t i n	ah -		

(HEXADECIMAL NOTATION)

FIGURE 15 SAMPLE OF INPUTS FOR NORMAL OPERATION

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AND NUMERIC FEEDBACK

Frame Time: 10 msec.

TABLE 5

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COMMAND SUMMARY OF SOFTWARE

'CNTRL O'	BACK SPACE/CURSOR LEFT, DELETE LAST CHAR
e 🕶 Y 👘	REPEAT LAST STRING
•+•	END OF LINE, GENERATES CR/LF
.e.	PUNCH A TAPE OF LAST STRING
'CR'	END OF STRING

"#" <cr></cr>	Initiate Whispering
*\$ * <cr></cr>	INITIATE VOICING (DEPAULT)
' E ' <cr></cr>	INITIATE PRINT OPTION
(* * * < CR>	INITIATE SYNTHESIS (DEFAULT)
'ESC' <cr></cr>	RETURN TO MONITOR (MIKBUG)
*** <cr></cr>	CLEARS SYNTHESIZERS PARAMETERS
'/' <cr></cr>	CAUSES THE FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCY TO INCREASE
'\' <cr></cr>	CAUSES THE FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCY TO DECREASE
' ' <cr></cr>	SETS UP A TIME DELAY BETWEEN WORDS

NOTES:

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<CR> INDICATES A CARRIAGE RETURN
ALL COMMANDS SHOWN POLLOWED BY A <CR> MAY BE USED
IN THE STRING AND EXECUTED AS SYNTHESIS PROGRESSES
UPPER CASE CHARACTERS ARE UNSTRESSED

LOWER CASE CHARACTERS ARE STRESSED

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TABLE 6

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	i L	STRUCTURE (of phoneme table
Byte	<u>Field</u>	Mnemonic	Function
1	1	Ll	First Character of Phoneme Label
2	1	L2	Second Character of Phoneme Label
3	2	AV	Voicing Amplitude
4	, 2	FO	Voicing Frequency
- 5	2	Fl	First Formant Frequency
6	2	F2	Second Formant Frequency
7	2	P3	Third Formant Frequency
8	2	AH	Aspiration Amplitude
9	2	AF	Frication Amplitude
10	, 2	FF	Frication Frequency
11	2	AN	Nasal Amplitude
12	3	Tl	Total Duration of Phoneme
13	· 3	T2	Onset Time for F1, F2, F3, and FF
14	3	T3	Transition Time for Fl, F2, F3, and FF
15	з,	T4	Onset Time for AV
16	3	T 5	Transition Time for AV
17	3	T6	Onset Time for AH
18	3	T7	Transition Time for AH
19	3	T8	Onset Time for FO . 3
, 20	3	T9	Transition Time for FO
21	3	710	Onset Time for AF, and AM
22	3	T 11 ·	Transition Time for AF, and AM
and AN, however, can be grouped together since frication is excluded in the synthesis of nasals and vice-versa.

Basically, the program operates as follows: A phonetic command string is deposited in a buffer. The phonetic information is later sequentially read from this buffer as synthesis progresses. Editing of the phonetic string is provided for by backspacing from an input terminal and correcting the error. Provisions for accepting paper or magnetic tape input are also incorporated in the software. The carriage return is interpreted as the end of the string, therefore the character '+' is used to generate a carriage return and line feed for those machines that do not generate them automatically.

Receipt of carriage return causes the synthesis to begin by reading the first phoneme in the buffer and comparing it with field 1 of each entry in the data table. If the phoneme is not found in the table, an error message to this effect is generated and synthesis resumes on the Should a match occur, the steady state and timing parameters next phoneme. of fields two and three are sorted and stored in several buffers. These are arranged such that each steady state parameter is assigned three time These are the onset time, transition time, and total phoneme intervals. duration (Figure 16). The onset is that period of time at the beginningof the phoneme that the parameter sent to the synthesizer remains at its previous value. The transition time is the duration of the linear change from the past value to the new steady state value. Transitions



are generated by linear interpolation. The phoneme duration is the total time allotted the phoneme and in effect, determines the duration of the steady state value of the parameter in question.

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In this manner, it is possible to produce most of the sounds of speech. The rules of synthesis appear in the data tables and are explained for the following categories:

5.1.1 Vowels and Liquids

Vowels and liquids are the easiest sounds to synthesize since both are always voiced with clear, sharply defined formant structures. Vowels contain higher acoustic power than consonants because during their utterance, there are no constrictions in the vocal tract. Both vowels and liquids can be identified according to their formant frequency location and length of formant transitions. Vowels have short formant transitions and a lengthy steady state. Liquids, on the other hand, have lengthy formant transitions and a relatively short steady state.

These sounds are produced by the voicing source and formant network of the synthesizer. Liquids such as /WM//YY/ terminate as soon as the formants finish their transitions whereas /RR/ and /LL/ are completed only after remaining in the steady state for some time. Although vowels have similar characteristics to the latter liquids, they are divided into categories of long and short vowels. Portis vowels, /AM/./AM/.

/AO/, /ER/, /IY/ and /UW/ dwell in the steady state longer than lenis vowels, /EH/,/IH/ and /UH/. Information re formant frequencies and timing is given in the Phoneme Table in Appendix C.

5.1.2 Pricatives

Pricatives are characterized by the occurrence of sustained noise. They are produced by forcing air through a constriction in the vocal tract which produces a turbulence that acts as the noise source. The vocal tract ahead of this constriction forms resonances in the noise spectra while the cavity behind causes anti-resonances. The latter restricts the noise component of the fricative spectra to above 2 KHz.

The specific cut-off frequency of the fricative spectra is largely determined by the location of the constriction and consequently is important in identification of phonemes. In voiced fricatives, the vocal cords are set in vibration and the resulting spectra contains weak formant structures in addition to noise. Unvoiced fricatives contain only noise.

A synthesized fricative is produced by a combination of the noise source, fricative resonator, voicing source and formant network. Unvoiced fricatives use the resonator and noise source only. Formant transitions for fricatives are much more rapid than for vowels and amplitude (AF) varies rapidly. Resonance frequencies and relative frication implitudes are given below.

Phoneme		Fricative Resonator	. Relative Amplitude
Voiced	Unvoiced	Frequency (PF)	° (AP)
2H	SH	2520 Hz	1.0
[.] 22	SS	4894 Hz	0.8
vv	FF	7289 Hz	0.6
TE	TH	14160Hz	0.6

5.1.3 Nasals

Nasals are the result of a complete closure of the vocal tract and lowering of the velum which force sound through the nasal passages. The cavity behind the constriction of the vocal tract acts as a resonator; absorption at its natural frequencies causes anti-resonances in the spectra. The nasal passages cause resonances to occur which are broader than vowels due to the increased surface area and convolutions of the nasal tract.

Spectrally speaking, nasals differ from vowels by the presence of a low frequency "voice bar" formant. Transitions of the second and third formant help determine the point of articulation and the type of nasal involved.

Nasals are synthesized by using a nasal resonator, a voicing 'source and a formant network. Formant transitions are relatively smooth and similar to vowels. Masal amplitude (AM) however, changes very abruptly from fully off to fully on causing the masal formant to appear

very suddenly. Voicing amplitude has to be reduced slightly to accommodate the effect of the parallel configuration of the nasal branch and the additional sound energy that it carries.

5.1.4 Aspirant

The aspirant /HH/ is synthesized with the voicing and noise sources in conjunction with the formant network. Relative to the following vowel, the amplitude of the aspirant is subdued. During transitions, the voicing amplitude rises to meet that of the vowel and aspiration decreases to zero.

5.1.5 Stops

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Stops are characterized by a period of silence of about 100 ms, followed by a burst of noise; for voiced stops voicing accompanies the noise burst whereas in unvoiced stops a period of about 50 ms of aspiration precedes the onset of voicing. Following the noise burst the formants change towards their new target values. The principal characteristic of stops is the rapid change in amplitudes. Timing is critical for, if the onset of voicing is too long, the formant transitions are not heard clearly and perception of the stop becomes difficult.

Synthesis of stops involve both voicing and noise generators as well as the frication resonator and formant network. The pariod of silence is synthesized with a separate 'phoneme' /QQ / which turns off both the voicing and noise sources and sets the other parameters to neutral values. The noise burst voice onset and transitions are generated by the following phoneme. For example, Sat becomes /SSAEQOTTQQ/ Figure 17 shows the six stops and their characteristics.

5.1.6 Dipthongs and Affricates

The dipthongs /OY, AY, EY, OW, AW/ are synthesized as two successive vowels, i.e., /OY = AOIY, AY = AAIY, EY = EHIY, OW = AOUM, AW = AAUM/. Their/characteristics and rules, therefore, follow those of the vowels and liquids.)

The affricates /CH/ and /JJ/ can be generated by /TTSH/ and /DDZH/ respectively. It was discovered, however, that the preceding stop is not critical to perception so long as it is voiceless and voiced respectively. For this reason, the parameters of /SH/ and /ZH/ are altered so as to have rapid transitions and changes in amplitudes. These new phonemes, /CH/ and /JJ/, give stop like qualities to /SH/ and /ZH/ and when preceded by "QQ" give better results than previous methods:



5.2 Software Description

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The starting location for the program is at 0100 hexadecimal (Reference line 94 of the listing, Appendix A) which initializes commands for clearing variables VOICE and HRDCPY, disabling the whispering and dump options. OLD DATA buffer amplitude parameters are then cleared and resonance parameter values are set to their mid-ranges. Reference Figure 18a.

Following the initialization procedure, the program proceeds to read a line from the console character-by-character and stores this in a RAM buffer. At the same time, back spacing, tape preparation, TTY formatting and re-synthesis of the last string entered are processed if special control characters are present. (The RAM buffer starts at 0500 hexadecimal). A character string prompt is printed by carriage return (C/R), a line feed (L/F), three nulls and a '>' symbol. The X register is now set to the beginning of the buffer and accumulator A is loaded with the ASCII value of any character introduced from the console. Exceptions are:-

If the character introduced by the console is a C/R then an EOT is stored in the location directed by the X register. Automatically a LF is returned to the console to show line termination (end of buffer). The program then proceeds to LINK 8 which initiates synthesis of the buffer content.

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If the input character is CNTRL 0 and the X register does not correspond to the location of the start of the buffer (0500 hex.) then the X register is decremented and a BS (back space or cursor left) is transmitted to the console and the program continues by reading another character from the console. In the situation where the X register is at 0500, the CNTRL 0 command is ignored.

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If the input character is a "+", then the prompt (C/R; LF; Nulls; >) is printed and the process returns to read another character from the console. This feature is added as a facility for those terminals which do not possess an automatic C/R and LF when the end of a line is reached. Thus entering a "+" symbol will cause a CR, LF without terminating the buffer. This permits the development of long strings.

If the character is a ""' then the program proceeds directly to LINK 8. Since this leaves the contents of the buffer undisturbed it provides a convenient means of repeating synthesis of a string. Care must be taken in the use of this control as it relies in an embedded _BOT in the string.

If the input character is a '@' and the X register corresponds to the start of the buffer, then a DC2 ASCHI character is sent to the console to activate any sutcmatic punch or tape facility. This is followed by 25 nulls, the string for synthesis, another 25 fulls, and finally a DC3 ASCHI character to deactivate the punch or tape facility.

Should a '@' be received and X register location not equal the start of the buffer, then an EOT is stored to terminate the string and then activate the punch or tape facilities.

If the input character is a 'NUL' it is ignored and the program returns to read another character. NULLS will only be used as leaders on tape functions.

All the other characters received are interpreted as part of the string and stored in the buffer as directed by the X register. After each character, the X register is automatically incremented and another character read from the console. Thus character-by-character, the phonetic string is assembled until either a C/R or a ¹⁰¹ control is received. Either condition will transfer the program to LINK 6 where the string is prepared for processing.

At LINK 8 (Reference Figure 18b) the X register is reset to the start of the buffer (0500 Hex.) and the first character is read a from the buffer. This character could either represent control data or a phoneme. These control characters change the parameters used for synthesis of phonemes and are separated from incoming information.

If the incoming character is a "/", then the variable F0 is increased by 5, (i.e., F0 = F0 + 5). This increases the fundamental frequency of all subsequent synthesis by a factor of 1.03676. The X register is then incremented and another character mead from the buffer. (Refer to Figure 18c for details of LINK 13).

If a "\" is read, the variable F0 would be decreased by 5, reducing the fundamental frequency by the factor 0.96453 (reciprocal of 1.03676). The X register is incremented and another character read from the buffer. (Refer Figure 18c Link 14).

The variable F0 provides a means of altering the fundamental frequency to something other than that stored in the look-up table. Thus by using F0 as an offset of the tabled value controls / and \will result in changes of ± 125 which will remain in effect until either is changed or a power-down situation occurs.

If the incoming character is an asterisk """, then the parameters stored in the old data buffer are cleared. Effectively this causes a period of silence equal to one interrupt cycle and is used in the synthesis of stops and occasional initialization of synthesis. The X register is again incremented, to read the next character.

If the character read is "#", then the VOICE parameter is incremented as well as the X register. Another character is then read from the buffer.

The VOICE parameter is an indicator that the passage following is to be voiced or to be whispered. Whispering is achieved by equating the aspiration and voicing amplitudes and then reducing the voicing to zero. If the character "5" is read from the buffer, then the parameter HRDCPY is incremented as is the X register and another character is read.

If the character read is a "%" then the HRDCPY is set to zero before incrementing the X register and return to read another character.

The HRDCPY variable determines if a dump of synthesis parameters will take place. The dump will list all the parameters used by the synthesizer for each interrupt cycle. When this feature is used synthesis is slowed down to accommodate the printer or terminal used. \emptyset This option has proven to be extremely valuable in developing look-up tables.

If the character "ESC" is read, then the starting location of the program is saved as the program counter such that it can be restarted easily by the MIKBUG control G and the program returns to the monitor (MIKBUG).

Finally, if the character read from the buffer is an. EOT, the end of the buffer has been reached and the program returns to its starting point (LINK 1).

Apart from the above control symbols, all other data will be processed in pairs of characters representing phonemes. The first is stored as INP1 and the X register is incremented and the next character of the inffer is read and stored as INP2. The X register which is

being used as the buffer pointer is then incremented to the next location and stored in the variable THERE.

The first character read (INP1) is then compared with the first character in the look-up table. If these are not equal, then the look-up table pointer is advanced to the next table entry where INP1 is again compared with the first characters in that entry. This continues until either a match is found or until the end of the table is reached (indicated by an asterisk). Should the latter occur an error message is generated, the X register loaded with the stored value in THERE and returned to LINK 9 where the next character will be read from the buffer.

If a match between INP1 and the first character of field one of a particular entry in the look-up table is found, then the second character read (INP2) is compared with the second character of field. If these are not equal, then the look-up table pointer is advanced to the next entry and INP1 is again compared to the first character of field 1 in that entry. If INP2 is equal to the second character of field one, however, the table contents are sorted and stored into the buffers NEW DATA, ONSET, and TRANSITION. The deltas (delta = $\frac{\text{new data - old data}}{\text{transition}}$ are then formed for each synthesis⁸ parameter and stored in DELTA.

Five buffers contain all the necessary information for synthesis. The buffer OLD DATA contains the values of the synthesis parameters for the last phoneme when its frame time was exceeded. The NEW DATA buffer contains the steady-state values of synthesis parameters for the present phoneme to be synthesized. The buffer ONSET contains the onset times for each synthesis parameter whereas TRANSITION contains the transition times for each synthesis parameter. Finally the DELTA buffer contains the step height necessary to change linearly from OLD DATA to NEW DATA within the transition time.

Once all buffers are readied, the program checks the variable VOICE. If it is non-zero, then whispering is desired and the parameter AH is made equivalent to AV then AV is cleared. If VOICE is zero, AV and AH are not changed. The offset value FO is then added to the fundamental frequency parameter. Frame time T1 is then decremented and compared to zero. If zero, the input buffer pointer is restored and the program reads the next phoneme. If T1 is non-zero, the program stops and awaits an interrupt of the first parameter.

The interrupt routine transfers the information in the OLD DATA buffer to the synthesizer. Experiments with a variable interrupt determined that a good quality of speech generation can be achieved providing the interrupt time is less than 20 ms.

On completion of the interrupt, the onset time of the first parameter is compared to zero. If non-zero, it is decremented and the pointer moved to the next parameter and its onset time is again compared to zero. If any onset time is less than or equal to zero, its transition time is compared to zero. If the transition time is less than or equal to zero, then that parameter of the buffer OLD DATA is replaced by the

one contained in NEW DATA. The pointer is then moved to the next synthesis parameter and if there are remaining parameters the next parameter onset time is again compared to zero.

In the case where the transition time is greater than zero, the appropriate delta is added to the corresponding parameters in OLD DATA and the result is compared to the value in NEW DATA (the target). The purpose of this routine is to determine if an overshoot occurs. If it doesn't, the result is stored in OLD DATA. If it does overshoot, the value of NEW DATA is stored in OLD DATA instead of the result. Determination of the overshoot criterion is complicated by the microprocessor:s interpretation of the data as being signed (i.e., -128 to 128) whereas the synthesizer assumes it is unsigned (O-256). Consequently the signs of the result, DELTA and NEW DATA are determined and thus form the basis of the decision. This routine is best described by the flow chart, reference Figure 18f.

The process continues until all the synthesis parameters have been converted. The value of the variable HRDCPY is then compared to zero. If non-zero, the parameters of the buffer OLD DATA are displayed or printed on the system console and then the frame time Tl is decremented and continues the loop. On the other hand, if HRDCPY were zero, then the frame time will be decremented immediately and then continue its loop. These cycles will continue until the frame time is zero at which time the program reads another character from the input buffer until an "EOT" is reached. This returns the program to its starting address (0100 HEX).













CHAPTER VI

RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 <u>Evaluation_Criteria</u>,

There are a number of requirements that should be met by any synthesis system. The equipment should be versatile and easy to operate. Ideally, the apparatus should incorporate features which enable acoustic, numeric and visual feedback. Facilities for adjusting and testing the effects of one or more parameters, independent of the synthesis strategy are highly desirable. The system should be flexible enough to permit experimentation with various components of speech. It should produce intelligible and if possible, natural speech. The synthesizer should have the capability of a large vocabulary and incorporate economical (minimal) message storage.

6.1.1 Acoustic Feedback

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One of the methods of evaluation is what may be termed the "listening test". Acoustic feedback is the process of listening to the results and then making modifications to improve the output. This is useful for improving vowel sounds but has very limited application where categorical perception is involved. With increased exposure to synthetic speech, comprehension increases to such an extent that the objectivity of the listener can be questioned. Therefore, in developing data for synthe-

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sis, the subjects were given very short tests and the sounds or words were rotated to prevent both listener fatigue, and eliminate the phenomenon of comprehension by exposure.

6.1.2 Numeric Feedback

The parameter dump feature referred to in the software description will activate a print-out of all parameters sent to the synthesizer each interrupt cycle for all inputs between & and * symbols. This is a very valuable aid in establishing values for all variables and a basis for observing change from one sound to a new sound. Numeric feedback was found to be particularly useful for interpolation between sounds and in establishing timing.

6.1.3 Visual Feedback (

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Spectrographic and acoustic waveforms give accurate information on frequencies, formants and amplitudes. This graphic information is very useful in verifying transitions, timing and amplitudes. Although visual observations are a powerful method of getting feedback to improve speech output, measurements tend to be time consuming and have to be restricted to specific problem areas.

Waveforms were plotted at L'Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique Télécommunications (INRS) using specialized software. Addi-

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tional spectrograms were also made on an analog machine at the McGill Department of Linguistics (Vocieprint's Sound Spectrograph Model 4691C).

6.2 <u>Experimental Results</u>

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6.2.1 Intelligibility Tests

A number of tests were performed to determine the intelligibility of the speech output of the system. These tests took the form of exposing a group of listeners to a synthesized sound and recording their responses as to what each perceived the sound to be. Listeners' responses were then plotted on what is known as a 'confusion matrix'. These display not only those sounds which are correctly understood but also sounds that are nearly correct. The position in the matrix determines the degree of comprehension of various sounds and the type of errors which are occurring. All the phonemes' were tested except /WH/ which is virtually interchangeable with /WW/.

Steady-state vowel sounds used in intelligibility tests were lengthened to approximately one second so as to give sufficient dwell time for the listener. Consonants were generated at their conversational rates. Stops, affricates and sonorants were followed by the vowel /AH/. Nasals were preceded by /IH/ and fricatives produced in isolation.

Five people were tested with vowels and diphthongs, two of them taking the tests twice. Four people took part in testing consonants



TABLE 7 VOWEL AND DIPHTHONG CONFUSION

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each taking the test once. Results of intelligibility tests are shown in Tables 7 and 8. Confusion with vowels can be attributed to the uniform one second duration of the sound. Fortis and lenis vowels are often differentiated by the duration of the sound. This indicates that a better test could be based on consonant-vowel-consonant groupings at conversational rates.

A second item which is believed to have influence is that most of the subjects used in these experiments have no prior experience in phonetics or with synthetic speech. Although they were supplied with a list of phonemes and several examples, there may have been some confusion. This could result in the selection of the first phoneme in the list that sounds similar. A supporting example would be to consider the vowels /AO/, /AA/ and /AH/ which are in the sequence of the list of phonemes supplied. It was found that /AO/ was incorrectly chosen for /AA/ 33% of the time and for /AH/ 28% of the time. Selection of /AO/ constituted the majority of errors in both cases.

The consonant confusion matrix indicates that voiced stops are a problem. The sounds /BB/, /DD/ and /GG/ are heard as /BB/ 50% of the time for /BB/, 25% for /DD/ and 38% for /GG/. The most probable cause for this is too rapid a transition time for the formants. The sound /BB/ is perceived 50% of the time as /BB/ and. 50% of the time as /FP/. This indicates a confusion between voiced and unvoiced sounds and is most likely caused by the voice onset time. There

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is a problem between the nasals /NN/ and /NG/. The sound /NN/ is chosen incorrectly as /NG/ 42% of the time and /NG/ chosen as /NN/ 33% of the time. A potential cause would be too rapid a transition of formants or possible masking of the transitions. Voiced fricatives in general are chosen correctly 45% of the time whereas unvoiced fricatives are correct 80% of the time. ... The errors tend to be scattered among the fricatives and do not indicate any specific cause.

In summary, the overall merits of the system can be represented by the articulation scores. An articulation score is the percentage of sounds heard correctly. The articulation score for consonants was determined to be 65.7%, for vowels and diphthongs 79.0%

6.2.2 Spectrographic Analysis

A series of spectrograms made on a Voiceprint analog machine are presented (Figures 19a to 19q inclusive). When interpreting this information, it should be remembered that this particular measurement apparatus has a 12 dB dynamic range. This narrow dynamic range means that low energy sounds are not visible, in particular the third formant, and makes some sounds appear better than they actually are.

Apart from lack of the third formant due to dynamic range, the vowels contain the correct spectral content (Figures 19a and 19b). Exis-

tence of the third formant and other low energy sounds were verified by sectional spectrograms (Figures 20a and 20b).

Liquids and diphthongs (Figure 19c) have the required characteristics although the transitions in the diphthongs would have been better if made slightly longer.

Unvoiced fricatives (Figures 19d and 19e) appear correct for /f/ and /s/ but /f/ and $/\theta/$ have too much low frequency noise. More accurate analysis at INRS confirms excessive low frequency noise in all unvoiced fricatives with no indication of anti-resonances (Figure 20c). A sharp cutoff causing a definite spectral gap is essential to the correct identification of the phonemes. The source of this problem was determined to be the CT-1 synthesizer and is more fully described in Limitations of the System. Voiced fricatives (Figures 19f and 19g) have the same problems associated with low frequency frication, but are not as much of a problem because of the voicing which fills in the spectral gap. The voiced fricatives, however, have a tendency toward excessive voicing, causing almost vowel-like qualities to be observed. While these fricatives are readily identifiable in an intelligibility test, in connected speech the frication has a tendency to be ignored by the listener as, static and consequently intelligibility is lessened.

Unvoiced stops are correct from a spectral standpoint (Figure 19b), whereas voiced stops (Figure 19i) have a voice onset time which is






































too long (especially /gi/) and could cause these sounds to be perceived as unvoiced stops. This could be corrected by decreasing the voicing onset parameter in the phoneme tables.

The nasal formant appears as a fixed formant centered at 1400 Hz, bandwidth 1 kHz. This masks all second formant transitions which are primarily responsible for distinguishing /NN/ from /NG/. Ideally the nasals should have a concentration of low frequency energy with mid ranges subdued and not exhibiting major resonances. Spectrally this would result in an intense low frequency formant (a voice bar) and weaker, broad formant structures.

Affricates (Figure 19k and 192) have the correct spectral content. The aspirant also exhibits the correct characteristics. The vowel /3/ in church could be slightly shorter, because of adjacent phonemes but it does not detract from intelligibility.

Following the above figures, a spectrogram of connected speech (the title of the thesis) is shown (Figures 19m to 19g).

6.2.3 Acoustic Waveforms

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Amplitude vs time (acoustic) waveforms for the corresponding spectrograms are shown (Figure 21a to Figure 21h). Those acoustic waveforms representing vowels, diphthongs, liquids and unvoiced fricatives

















agree with accepted values. The voiced fricatives (Figure 21d) are again shown as having too much voicing amplitude. Unvoiced stops (Figure 21e) have somewhat more frication than is necessary whereas the voiced stops are characterized by an excessive voice onset time (VOT).

The nasals (Figure 21g) have amplitudes that are slightly high but are otherwise satisfactory.

6.2.4 Limitations of the System .

The quality of the speech produced by the synthesis equipment described in this thesis is satisfactory but has room for improvement in a number of areas. The defects in the fricatives and nasals described earlier are quite apparent to listeners. It is unfortunate that much time was spent in trying to solve what was originally believed to be a software problem, but was in fact, a hardware defect. The problems associated with fricatives and nasals are directly related to inadequacies, in the CT-1 synthesizer.

The frication branch in the synthesizer should have incorporated a sharp variable high-pass filter and not a band-pass filter as used. A sharp filter would eliminate the low frequency frication and improve intelligibility. Ideally a high-pass filter and a low-pass filter pair could have been used creating a band-pass network. Both filters, however, should be of high order to ensure the low frequency frication at least 30 dB down below the pass band. The nasal branch resonator of the CT-1 synthesizer should not have been fixed and broadband. This causes interference with second formant trajectories and results in confusion of the sounds /NN/ and /NG/. The nasal resonator should have been constructed as a variable band-pass filter with a bandwidth of 600 Hz. Another solution would be to eliminate the nasal branch altogether and introduce control of the bandwidths of the formant filters. The formant network could then be used effectively in the synthesis of nasals.

An attempt at improving the fricatives was made by adding a fixed second-order Butterworth high-pass filter (cutoff at 1800 Hz) in series with the frication band pass filter. This gave some improvement but the problem still remained. Higher order filters are necessary to achieve the impression of the spectral gap typical of fricatives. Even this filter is at best a partial solution.

In order to remedy synthesizer faults, a major redesigning is required. Given a redesign based on the above comments, a substantial improvement can be made to the quality of the synthesized speech.

6.3 Recommendations and Comments

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The synthesis system presented is relatively easy to operate once the modified Arpabet is learned. Supra-segmentals are handled by a simple set of commands. As experimental equipment, the numeric feedback

feature provided by the parameter dump is a very powerful tool in verifying synthesis strategy or detecting software errors. The apparatus can be used to experiment with transitional or steady state sounds. Like the speech from many other synthesizers, the synthesized speech here is intelligible but does not sound natural.

The equipment memory requirement is low due to real-time operation. A scratch pad memory of 1K bytes is required for temporary storage of variables and the input buffer. The program requires only 1K bytes RAM or EPROM. The phoneme table requires an additional 1K bytes.

The software for the system is quite adaptable and functions well. Other features could have been incorporated but were found unnecessary. For example, a form of visual feedback can be provided by utilizing the four surplus analog outputs available on the CT-1 synthesizer. These signals can be fed to an oscilloscope and displayed with respect to time. A slight modification of the interrupt routine would enable simultaneous display of the F1, F2, F3, and FF or F0, AV, AH, and AF contours.

In order to operate in real-time, a number of compromises had to be made which limit the scope of the synthesis strategy. However, from the standpoint of the strategy developed, the equipment performed very well. The major limitations of the system were in the production of nasals and fricatives, caused by inadequacies in the design of the synthesizer.

Some attempt was made at rectifying this but it became apparent that a complete re-design was necessary. Two courses of action are suggested. The synthesizer can be redesigned using modified and improved filters, or a synthesizer can be constructed around a recently developed LPC chip. The latter course might result in the converse situation where it is not hardware but software that limits performance of the system.

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63

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Salut Salut	00128 00129 00130 0131 00131 0133 00132 0136 00133 0139 00134 0130	07 1FF2 87 1FF3 87 1FF4 87 1FF7	* CLEAR LDA STA STA	4 #\$90 4 \$1FF2 4 1FF3 4 \$1FF4 -A \$1FF7	LO DATA TARLE (INITIA A=128 STORE FOR F1 STORE FOR F2 STORE FOR F3 STORE FOR FF	IZATION)		· · ·	
ng Oc	00135 013F 00136 0140 00137 0143 00139 0146 00139 0146 00139 0149 00140 014C	87 1FF0 87 1FF5 87 1FF5 87 1FF5 87 1FF8 39	514 514 514 514 514 715	A \$1FF0 A \$1FF5 A \$1FF5 A \$1FF6 A \$1FF8	A=0 STORE FOR AV STORE FOR AH STORE FOR AF STORE FOR AN RETURN FROM SUBROUT		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		24 · · · · ·
Gomput	00142 0140 00143 0150 00144 0152 00145 0153 00145 0155 00147 0158 00148	27 BF 09 56 08 BD E1D1 20 87	BEG DEY LO4 JSR BR/	A #SOS	IF X=STAFT OF BUFF THEN LINK2 ELSE X=X-1 A='HS' PRINT A GOTO LINK2				· · · · · ·
Visnaity	00149 015A 00150 0150 00151 0160 03152 00153	BD EO7E 20 AF	JSA BR/	PDATAL	K="STRING" Print String Goto Link2	•	÷	·	
MeGill Uni	00154 0162 00155 0165 00155 0167 00155 0169 00155 0169 00159 0160 00159 0160 00160 0170 00160 0172 00163 0175	86 04 A7 00 86 12 80 E101 80 10 CE 0500 90 E07E 80 08	LINK6 LDA STA JSF 355 LINK6 LDA JSF 855) LINK6 A #504 A 0.X A #512 C OUTEEE NULL K #30FFER R PDATA1 R NULL	IF X=STAPT OF BUFF THEN LINK6 A=ECT STORE A D X A=DC2 PRINT 25 NULLS X=START OF BUFFEP PRINT STPING PPINT 25 NULLS	IR .		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	· · ·
· · · ·	00164 0174 00165 017C 00166 017F 00167 00169 00169 00170 0182	BD E1D1 76,0100	JSS LINKE & JME	A 43'3 CUTEEE L'INKL	A="DC3" Print A Goto Linki	· · ·	- b	¥.	
7 - 14 - 14/11/11/11/11/11/11/11/11/11/11/11/11/1	00171 0184		NULLI DEC	5 B	8=8~1	•	•		132
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601 70	0191 0193 0195	N7 00 86 04	LINK7	LDA A Sta A LDA A	#304 D•X ¥50A	A=+EOT+ STORE A @ X A=+LF+		•	• . 			•	-	
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00190 00191 00192 00193 00194 00195	01A9 01AB 01AD 01AF 01B1 0183	27 25 81 23 27 4E 81 24 81 24 81 26 81 26	1	BEQ CMP A BEQ CMP A BEQ CMP A CMP A	LINK10 4\$23 LINK16 #\$24 LINK17 #\$26 LINK18 #\$25	THEN LINKIO ELSE IF A="#" THEN LINKE6 ELSE IF A="S" THEN LINK17 ELSE IF A="6" THEN LINK18 ELSE IF A="X"	e I	ş				/Ţ	•	•
00201 00202 00203	019F 01C1 01C3	81 04 27 BC 97 08		BEQ CMP A BEQ STA A INX	LINK19 #SIB LINK18 #S04 LINK6A JNP1	THEN LINKI9 FLSE IF A='ESC' THEN LINKI5 ELSE IF A≒"EDT' THEN LINKI INPI=A X=X+I	-		, , ,	:	· ,		•	-
00205 00206 00207 00207	01C8 01C8 01C8 01C8 01C8	45 00	- 0	LDA A STA A INX STX	UNP2	LDAD A & X 1NP2=A X=X+1 THERE=X	_		Ĩ	<i></i>			,	
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03279	0221 0223 0226 0229	20 F CE 0 BD, E 7E 0	1 037 07 <u>E</u> 321	EOT	BRA LDX JSR JMP	LGOPI #EPROP PDATA1 EDTA	GOTO LOQPI X=ERROR Print Erroi X=There & (3070 LINK9		2		•		• •	•	,	•
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00297		CE I	FEO	*	LDX	-1550	X=START OF	NEW DATA	.'							·	- 1
00299 00300 00301 00302 00303 00303	0240 0242 0244 0246 0246 0247 0249	DF 1 DE 1 A6 0 08 DF 1 DE 1	972	LOOPA	STX LDX LDA A INX STX LDX	CENTX CENTR 2.X CENTR CENTR	CENTX=X X=CENTR LOAD DATA 1 X=X+1 CENTR=X X=CENTX	- a -	-	~			•				•
00306 00307 00309 00309 00310	0248 0240 024E 0250 0253 0253	08 DF 1 8C 1 27 0	9 FE9 02	1	STA A INX STX CPX BEQ BRA	0+X CENTX #\$1FE9 LOOP4A LOOP4A	STORE A D) X=X+1 CENTX=X IF X=END OF THEN LOOP44	NEW DATA	-	- •	•	*	ð , Ì	• •	-		
00313 00314 00315 00315	0257 025A 025C 025E 025E	DF 1 DE 1 A6 0 08	9 7)2	LOOP4A	STX LDX LDA A INX	#\$0000 CENTX CENTR 2+X	X=T1 CENTX=X X=CENTR LOAD A & X X=X+1	F2	-	ى ت				*	,		•
00318	0261	DE I		*	STX LOX STA A	CENTR CENTX 0,X		NG IN ITS PR	OPER LO	•	۳ ۲			:		12/2 60	`
00321 00322 00323 00324	0267 0268 026A 026D 026D	DF 1 8C 0 27 0	000B		INX STX CPX BEQ BRA	CENTX #\$0008 L00P5 L00P48	X=X+1 CENTX=X IF X=END DI THFN LOOP5 FLSE LCOP4		•		,	,		•		, , ,	Ŧ
00325	•		1	* FORM	DELTAS			-			1					•	
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SPEECH	MOTOROLA MEESAM CROSS-	ASSMBLER PAGE B	-	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
00329 0271 96 00329 0273 87 00320 0276 87 00321 0279 87 00332 0276 87 00332 0277 87 00333 0277 89 00334 0261 87 00335 0264 96 00336 0269 96	IFC2 STA A \$ IFC2 IFC3 STA A \$ IFC0 IFC4 STA A \$ IFC0 IFC7 STA A \$ IFC0 IFC7 STA A \$ IFC0 IFC0 STA A \$ IFC0 IFC5 STA A \$ IFC0	LOAD TRANSITION TIME T3 STORE FOR F1 STORE FOR F2 STORE FOR F3 STORE FOR F5 LOAD TRANSITION TIME T5 STORE FOP AV LOAD TRANSITION TIME T7 STORE FOR AH LOAD TFANSITION TIME T9	۲, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴, ۴,	- - -
	OA LDA A T11 IFC6 STA A \$1FC6 IFC8 STA A \$1FC6 IFC0 LDX #\$1FC6 20 LOOP6 LDA A \$20,x 30 LDA B \$30,x 1B STX REMP 10 STA B TEMP	A±NEW DATA B=DLD DATA PEMB=X TEMP=B		•
U 00348 0241 5F 00349 0242 90 00350 0244 C2 00351 0246 C1 00353 0244 C2 00355 0248 024 00355 0248 024 00355 0248 024 00355 0248 024 00355 0248 024 00355 0248 024 00355 0281 025 00355 0281 025 00359 0285 0285	10 SUB A TEMP FF SBC B #\$FF 12 BEQ LDDP6 18 LDA B 0.X 16 BSR DIV 18 LOA R DIV 18 LOA REMB 10 STA A \$10,X	ELSE X=REMB B=ASSOCIATED TRANSITION TIME Form A=A/B X=PEMB X=PEMB STORE A AS DELTA		°
00360 0298 27 00361 028A 20 00362 029C 43 00363 028D DE 00364 028F E0 00365 02C1 80	1FC9 CPX #\$1FC 21 BE0 L00P7 DD BRA L00P6 L00P6B COM A 1B LDX REMB 00 LDA B 0.1X 03 BSR DIV	X=X+1 9 IF X=END OF TPANSITION TIMES THEN LOOP7 ELSE LOOP6 A=-A X=REMB B=ASSOCIATED TRANSITION TIME FORM A=A/B A=-A	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	,
00366 02C3 43 00367 02C4 20 00368 00369	EA BRA LOOPE	A ~ 1	· · · ·	, "J
00370 00371 02C6 7F 00372 02C9 D7 00373 02C8 D7 00375 02C5 5F 00375 02CF 90 00376 02D1 C2 00377 02D3 C1 00376 02D1 C2 00377 02D3 C1	0011 DIV CLR CNTR 12 STA B CNTX 0011 DDT INC CNTR 12 SUB A CNTX 12 SUB A CNTX 00 SBC B #\$00 00 CMP B #\$00 00 BEG DT	CNTR=0 CNTR=8 CNTR=CNTR+1 R=0 A=A-CNTX B=SIGN DF SURTPACTION 1F RESULT POSITIVE THEN DOT ELSE A=CNTR	0	
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:	SPEECH	MOTOR	LA MABS	M CROSS-AS	SMELER PAGE 9		۵		* \
								μ	• -
	00380 0209 4A 00381 0204m39	-,	DEC	A \	A=A-1 FETURN FROM SUBROUTINE				
	00382	*'		_ \	-	-			
	00384 0208 96 1 00385 0200 87			A T2 A \$1F82	LOAD ONSET TIME 72 STORE FOR F1			•	s
	00386 0250 87		STA	A \$1F83	STORE FOR F2 STORE FOR F3		•		
i	00389 02E6 B7		STA STA LDA	A \$1F87	STORE FOR FF LCAD ONSET TIME TA				
	00390 02E9 87 00391 02EF 96	1FB0	STA	A \$1FBO	STORE FOR AV				·
	00392 02F0 B7	1FP5	STA	A \$1F85	STORE FOF AH	` •			•
R.	00393 02F3 96 00394 02F5 87	1F81	LDA STA	A \$1FB1	LCAD ONSET TIME TS STORE FOR FO		2 a	, ,	•
	003 55 02F8 96 00356 02FX 87 00357 02FD 87	IFB6	LDA Sta Sta	A SIFB6	LOAD ONSET TIME TIO STORE FOR WE STORE FOR AN	-	~	می مرتب	\$
	00358 0300 96	0E 00	LDA	A VOICE	A=VOICE		, ,		
	00400 0304 27	09	BEO	L COP8	THEN LOOPS'	Υ	4	د پ	
Į.	00401 0306 85 00402 0309 87 00403 030C 7F	IFE5	L DA STA CLR		ELSE A=AV AH=A AV=D	-			۹.
Ĺ	C0404 030F 86	IFEL LOG	IPA LOA	A \$1FE1	A=+FOT	•••	• • •		
	00405 0312 58 00406 0314 87	1PE1		AV \$1FE1	A=A+F0 +F0 +=A			•	1 *
		1F80 LD0 00	LDA		X=TOP OF CNSET TIMES		•	}	ŭ
1 ·	00409 031C 4A 00410 031D 97		DEC STA		A=A-1 T1=A IE A>=0 THEN 100010		`	• (
2	00411 031F 2E 00412 0321 DE	13 EO'		THERE	IF A>=0 THEN LOOP10 ELSE X=THERE	·		`	
	004 14 0326 3E	0190 LOC 00 LOC	AND PIO VAI PII LDA	LINK9	GOTC LINK9 Wait for interrupt LDAD A & X	• •	· · · ·	, ,	,
	00416 0329 2F .00417 0328 6A	QA'	DEC	A 0+X LOOP13 0+X	IF AC=0 THEN LOOP13 ELSE ONSET TIME DECRIME	NTED	.	λ,	Ĩ
	00418'032D 08	L00	PI2 INX		X=X+1			2	× .
	00419 032E BC 00420 0331 27		CPX BEQ BPA	#\$1F89 LODP19	IF X=\$1FB9 Then Loop19	•	Ĺ		The first same
		10 L00	PIJ LDA BLE	LOOP11 A \$10.X LOOP18	LDAD A @ X+10 IF A<=0 THEN LOOP18			× ×	· · · · · · · · ·
	00424 0339 A6		LDA	A \$40,X	ELSE A=OLD DATA A=A+DELTA				۵
	C0426 033D 2F	18	PLE IDA	LOCP17	IF AC=0 THEN LOOP17 ELSE B=NEW DATA				
	00429 0341 2F	08	BLE BLE PI4 LDA	LOOPIS	IF A<=0 THEN LOOPI5 FLSE R=DELTA 4		•	, ●	
	00430 0345 2F 00431 0347 A1	0A	BLF CMP	LOOPIE	IF BC=0 THEN LOOPI6 ELSE IF AS=NEW DATA	1		`	
	00431 0347 AL			n 3331X	LLOC IN ADANCE DATE				.
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C. C. C. C. C. K. W.	SPEECH MOTOROLA M685AM CRDSS-ASSMBLER PAGE 10 00433 0348 A7 40 LOOP15 STA A \$40'X ELSE DLD DATATA PAGE 10 00433 0348 A7 40 LOOP15 STA A \$40'X ELSE DLD DATATA PAGE 10 00433 0348 A7 40 LOOP15 STA A \$40'X ELSE DLD DATATA PAGE 10 00434 0340 6A 10 DEC \$13'X TRANSITION TIME DECPIMENTED DOC \$10'Y CLDP12 00435 0357 20 DC BRA LOOP12 GOTC LOOP12 DOTC LOOP13 00436 0351 A1 30 LOOP16 CMP A \$30'X IF A <snew data<="" td=""> 00437 0353 2F 0B BLE LOOP18 THEN LOOP15 00436 0355 20 F4 BRA LOOP14 ELSE LOOP15 00441 0358 20 E6 HAT LOOP14 ELSE LOOP14 00443 0356 A6 30 LOOP15 HAA \$40'Y A \$45'Y A \$</snew>	
MsGill University Bompetia	SYMEOL TABLE INE EE EIAC DUTEFE EIDI PDATAI E07E START E000 DUT2HS E0CA BUFFER 0500 TABLE 1000 T1 0000 T2 0001 T3 0002 TG 0003 T5 D004 T6 0005 T7 0006 T8 0007 TG 0008 T10 0006 T11 0006 T8 0007 F0 0000 VDICE 000E HRDCPY 000F TEMP 0010 CNTR 0011 CNTX 0012 THERE 0013 HERE 0015 CENTR 0017 CENTX 0019 REME 0011 LINK10 0140 LINK4 0152 LINK5 0162 LINK6 0168 LINK6A 017F NULL 0152 LINK6 0168 LINK7 0111 LINK6A 017F NULL 0150 LINK7 0162 LINK7 0161 LINK6 019A LINK1 0150 LINK7 0162 LINK7 0171 LINK13 012A LINK1	
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APPENDIX B

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INTERRUPT ROUTINE LISTING

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0000	NAM MMI	- J
0000 + +	-	
0000 * SYN	THESIZER INTE	RRUPT-SCAN ROUTINE
0000 + NOT	E MIKBUG USES	A006, A007 TO CONTAIN
0000 # THE	INTERRUPT RO	UTINE LOCATION (1500)
0000 *	•	·
1500	org \$1500	
1500 CE 1FF0	IDI #51FF0	X-\$1FFO
1503 C6 03 THEN	LDAB #\$03	B=3
1505 5A HERE	DECB	B=B-1
1506 A6 00	IDAA O,X	A-VALUE & X (TRANSFER CONTENTS FROM
1508 A7 10	STAA 10,X	STORE A @ X+16 OLD DATA TO SYNTHESIZER)
150A C1 00	CMPB #\$00	IF B=0 ·
1500 27 02	HEQ THIS	THEN GOTO THIS
150E 20 F5	BRA HERE	ELSE GOTO HERE
1510 08 THIS	INX L	X-X+1
1511 8C 1FF9	CPI #\$1FF9	IF X-\$1FF9
1514 27 02	HEQ THEM	THEN GOTO THEM
1516 20 BB	HRA THEN	else goto then
1518 86 FF THEM	IDAA #\$FF	↓=\$7 ₽
151A B7 200F	STAA \$200F	STORE A @ \$200F (TURN ON AUDIO)
1510 3B	RTI	RETURN FROM INTERRUPT

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	1052	АJ	50						00	50	00	ØÀ	00	03	ØØ	63	00	03	ØN	06	60	01
	1634									80						øз		03	00	Ø6	'00	01
	109A									80								Ø3				01
	1020																	03			00	-
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	1006																					
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	1134	N.J	60	30	A0	20	20	00	00	50	F.F.	ØA	00	02	00	03	00	03	00	Ø6	00	02
	114A	ΥY	30	30	BE	52	83	00	00	80	00	ØA	00	63	00	03	00	ØЗ	60	06	00	01
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	1180																00	03		06	00	
	11A2			-												Ø2					-	
													00					Ø1		Ø6	00	
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	1226	rĸ	FØ	30	8E	7A	CØ	46	56	ŕΆ	.00	Ø2	00	Ø 3	00	01	00	01	00	Øl	00	Ø1
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0	1390									80						03		03			00	
	1322		•							80					60			01			00	
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	1462									80					00		00		00		60	
	1478									DO					60			02	00		00	
	148E														01			01	00	01	00	
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(HEXADECIMAL NOTATION)

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--NOTE FIGURE 15