Mispronunciation Diagnosis of L2 English at Articulatory Level Using Articulatory Goodness-Of-Pronunciation Features

실험음성학연구회

Hyuksu Ryu¹

¹Naver Clova

August 11, 2017





T.O.C

Instruction

SLPLab SNU Spoken Language Processing Lab

- 1 Instruction
- **2** Example Description
- **3** Exercise 1: Pitch \sim Sex
- **4** Exercise 2: Pitch ∼ Age
- **6** Assumption



- Instruction
- 2 Example Description
- 4 Exercise 2: Pitch \sim Age
- **Assumption**

Instruction



What we are dealing with?

- ① Linear model ←
- 2 Linear mixed model

Outlines

- Instruction
- 2 Example Description
- 4 Exercise 2: Pitch \sim Age
- **Assumption**



Question

- Assume you knew nothing about males and females
- you were interested in whether voice pitch of males and females differs, if so, by how much

Experiment

- take a bunch of males and females
- ask them to say a single word
- measure the respective voice pitches



Subject	Sex	Voice.Pitch(Hz)	
1	female	233	
2	female	204	
3	female	242	
4	male	130	
5	male	112	
6	male	142	



It looks like

- the female values seem to be about 100 Hz above the male ones
- females have higher voice pitch than males

But

- it could be the case that females and males have the same pitch
- you were just unlucky and happened to choose some exceptionally high-pitched females and some exceptionally low-pitched males



We might want

- a more precise estimate of the difference between males and females
- an estimate about how likely (or unlikely) that difference in voice pitch could have arisen just because of drawing an unlucky sample
- → The linear model comes in
 - give some value about voice pitch for males and females
 - as well as some probability values as to how likely those values are



Basic idea

- relationship b/w sex and voice pitch as a simple formula
- pitch ~ sex
- This reads
 - pitch predicted by sex
 - pitch as a function of sex
- LEFT: pitch
 - dependent variable
 - the thing you measure
- RIGHT: sex
 - independent variable
 - explanatory variable
 - predictor





Error term

- Problem: the world is not perfect.
- Pitch is not completely determined by sex
- a bunch of different factors such as language, dialect, etc
- We can never measure and control all of these things
- update our formula to capture the existence of these "random" factors.
- pitch $\tilde{\ }$ sex $+ \epsilon$
- an error term
- stands for all of the things that affect pitch that are not sex,
- all of the stuff that is random or uncontrollable



Outlines

- Instruction
- 2 Example Description
- **3** Exercise 1: Pitch \sim Sex
- 4 Exercise 2: Pitch \sim Age
- **Assumption**

Instruction



Let's create the dataset

```
pitch = c(233,204,242,130,112,142)
sex = c(rep("female",3),rep("male",3))
my.df = data.frame(sex, pitch)
```

```
my.df

## sex pitch
## 1 female 233

## 2 female 204

## 3 female 242

## 4 male 130

## 5 male 112

## 6 male 142
```

Instruction



Let's create the dataset

```
pitch = c(233,204,242,130,112,142)
sex = c(rep("female",3),rep("male",3))
my.df = data.frame(sex, pitch)
```

```
my.df

## sex pitch

## 1 female 233

## 2 female 204

## 3 female 242

## 4 male 130

## 5 male 112

## 6 male 142
```

Instruction



Assumption

- lm()
 - Generate the linear model
 - Note that we omit the " ϵ " term
 - we saved the model into an object xmdl

```
xmdl = lm(pitch ~ sex, my.df)
```



- lm()
 - Generate the linear model
 - Note that we omit the " ϵ " term
 - we saved the model into an object xmdl

```
xmdl = lm(pitch ~ sex, my.df)
```



- summary()
 - To see what the linear model did

```
summary(xmdl)
```



```
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = pitch ~ sex, data = my.df)
## Residuals:
    6 667 -22 333 15 667 2 000 -16 000 14 000
##
## Coefficients:
              Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
  (Intercept) 226.33
                            10.18 22.224 2.43e-05 ***
## sexmale
          -98.33
                           14.40 -6.827 0.00241 **
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 17.64 on 4 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.921, Adjusted R-squared: 0.9012
## F-statistic: 46.61 on 1 and 4 DF, p-value: 0.002407
```

- \leftarrow the model formula you entered
- ← the residuals
- ← the coefficients of the fixed effects
- \leftarrow the output prints some overall results of the model

Output



Multiple R-Squared

- R²
 - variance explained
 - variance accounted for
 - 0.921 (quite high) means 92.1% of the stuff is "explained" by our model
- In this case, we have only one independent variable (the fixed effect "sex"),
- R² reflects how much variance in our data is accounted for by differences b/w males and females
- In general, b/c R^2 value depends on how messy or complex the system is
- frequently deal with much lower R^2 values.



Output



Multiple R-Squared and Adjusted R-squared

- If you have two or more variables (fixed effect), you see Adjusted R-squared (R_{adj}^2), instead of Multiple R-squared.
- R² has a property that it is increased when variables are added up, even though the variables are irrelevant.
- "Adjusted" R-squared are adjusted considering how many fixed effects you used.

Output



Meaning of p-value in the F-statistics

- conditional probability
- a probability under the condition that the H₀ is true
- H_0 : sex has no effect on pitch
- "statistically significant" when the conditional probability is lower than a threshold, adn the alternative hypothesis (H₁) is more likely.
- Report
 - "We constructed a linear model of pitch as a function of sex. This model was significant (F(1,4)=46.61, p>0.01)."
- How to distinguish b/w the significance of the overall model (considering all effects together) from the p-value of individual coefficients? → to be continue





Coefficients table

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 226.33333 10.18441 22.223508 2.426952e-05
## sexmale -98.33333 14.40293 -6.827314 2.406892e-03
```

- Compare p-value for the overall model and that on the right-hand side of the coefficients table
- Same b/c the model had only one fixed effect



Coefficients table

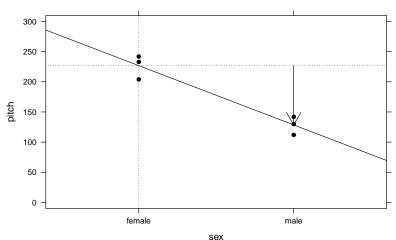
```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 226.33333 10.18441 22.223508 2.426952e-05
## sexmale -98.33333 14.40293 -6.827314 2.406892e-03
```

- Why sexmale, rather than just sex?
 - Estimate of intercept: mean of pitch of female
 - Estimate of sexmale: difference of pitch b/w female and male
 - ∴ pitch of male = Estimate of intercept + Estimate of sexmale

	female	male	difference
mean	226.333	128	98.333



Graphical interpretation





Secret of Intercept: Why did the model choose females to be the intercept?

:: lm() function simply takes whatever comes first in alphabet "f" comes before "m"



Secret of Intercept: Why did the model choose females to be the intercept?

: lm() function simply takes whatever comes first in alphabet "f" comes before "m"

Outlines



- Instruction
- **2** Example Description
- **3** Exercise 1: Pitch \sim Sex
- **4** Exercise 2: Pitch \sim Age
- **5** Assumption

New model



Whether age predicts voice pitch

- continuous as explanatory
- pitch \sim age + ϵ

Subject	Age	Pitch(Hz)
1	14	252
2	23	244
3	35	240
4	48	233
5	52	212
6	67	204

```
SLPLab
SNU Spoken Language Processing Lab
```

```
age = c(14,23,35,48,52,67)
pitch = c(252,244,240,233,212,204)
my.df = data.frame(age, pitch)
xmdl = lm(pitch~age, my.df)
summary(xmdl)
##
## Call:
## lm(formula = pitch ~ age, data = my.df)
##
## Residuals:
## 1 2 3 4 5
## -2.338 -2.149 4.769 9.597 -7.763 -2.115
##
## Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
##
## (Intercept) 267.0765 6.8522 38.98 2.59e-06 ***
## age
              -0.9099 0.1569 -5.80 0.00439 **
## ---
## Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
##
## Residual standard error: 6.886 on 4 degrees of freedom
## Multiple R-squared: 0.8937, Adjusted R-squared: 0.8672
## F-statistic: 33.64 on 1 and 4 DF, p-value: 0.004395
```



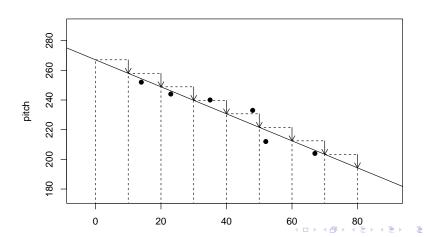
Coefficient table

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 267.0764640 6.8521942 38.976780 2.588356e-06
## age -0.9098694 0.1568771 -5.799888 4.394969e-03
```

- the significance of the intercept is NOT important
 - intercept means predicted pitch for people with age 0
- the significance of the age IS real interest.
 - every increase of age by 1 o decrease voice pitch by 0.9099



Graphical interpretation





Meaningful and meaningless intercepts

```
my.df$age.c = my.df$age - mean(my.df$age)
xmdl = lm(pitch~age.c, my.df)
```

• new column "age.c" \rightarrow "centered" data

```
## Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
## (Intercept) 230.8333333 2.8112916 82.109353 1.318716e-07
## age.c -0.9098694 0.1568771 -5.799888 4.394969e-03
```

- Same slope, but different intercept
- intercept here means pitch at mean age \rightarrow mean pitch
- intercept becomes more meaningful than previous

Going on

Instruction



Scaling up

- What if we measured two factors, such as age and sex?
- Multiple regression
 - one response variable as a function of multiple predictor variables
 - linear model is just another word for multiple regression
- formula

$$pitch \sim sex + age + \epsilon$$

- But, same interpretation
- The p-value at the bottom of the output
 - p-value for the overall model
 - p-value considers how well all of your fixed effects together help in accounting for variation in pitch
- The coefficient output
 - p-value for the individual fixed effects



The end of Linear model



The end of linear model! But one more thing!

Outlines



- Instruction
- **2** Example Description
- **3** Exercise 1: Pitch \sim Sex
- **4** Exercise 2: Pitch ∼ Age
- **5** Assumption

Assumptions for LM



Assumptions for applying a linear model

- Linearity
- Absense of collinearity
- 3 Homoskedasticity
- 4 Normality of residuals
- 6 Absense of influential data points
- **6** Independence



Linearity?

- linear what?
- linearity of residuals
- So, what is residuals?



Linearity?

- linear what?
- linearity of residuals
- So, what is residuals?



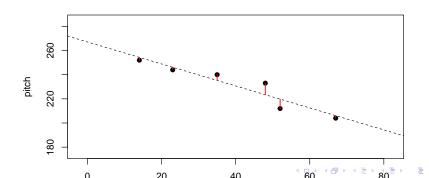
Linearity?

- linear what?
- linearity of residuals
- So, what is residuals?



Residuals

- Deviations of the observed data points from the predicted values (fitted values)
- In this case, the residuals very small ightarrow well predicted



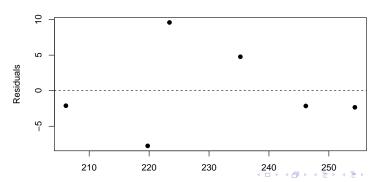
Instruction



Residuals

• Rotate the plot \rightarrow Residual plot

```
plot(fitted(xmdl), residuals(xmdl),pch=19,
     xlab = 'Fitted values', ylab='Residuals')
```







Residual plot

- The fitted values on the horizontal line
- residuals the vertical deviations from the line
- No obvious pattern in the residuals \rightarrow Linear
- What if there were a nonlinear or curvy pattern?
- this would indicate a violation of the linearity assumption



Residual plot

- The fitted values on the horizontal line
- residuals the vertical deviations from the line
- No obvious pattern in the residuals \rightarrow Linear
- What if there were a nonlinear or curvy pattern?
- this would indicate a violation of the linearity assumption



What to do in case of non-linearity?

- 1 You might miss an important fixed effects. Add them
- 2 Perform a nonlinear transformation of your response, e.g., log-transform (commonly chosen)
- 3 Perfrom a nonlinear transformation of your fixed effects
 - if age showed in a U-shaped
 - add age and age² as predictors
- $oldsymbol{4}$ if stripes in residual plot, then you're most likely dealing with categorical data ightarrow different model such as logistic models

Collinearity



What is collinearity?

- When two fixed effects (predictors) are correlated with each other,
- they are said to be collinear

Example

 you were interested in how average talking speed affects intellignece ratings

intelligence ratings \sim talking speed

- you measured several different indicators of talking speed
 - syllables/sec, words/sec, sentences/sec
- they are likely to be highly correlated with each other
- if you use all of them as predictors within the same model, there will be collinearity problem



Collinearity



If there is collinearity

- the interpretation of the model becomes unstable
- the significance of these correlated or collinear fixed effects is not easily interpretable
 - : they might steal each other's explanatory power
- if multiple predictors are very similar to each other
 - it becomes very difficult to decide what, in fact, is playing a big role

Collinearity



How to get rid of collinearity?

- 1 pre-empt the problem in the design stage
 - focus on a few fixed effects that are not correlated with each other
- Or, think about which one is the most meaningful and drop the others
 - DO NOT base this dropping decision on the significance (circular logic problem)
- 3 Or, consider dimension-reduction techniques such as Principal Component Analysis
 - transform several correlated variables into a smaller set of variables which you can then use as new fixed effects.



Homoskedasticity



What is Homoskedasticity?

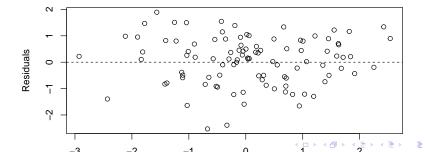
- The variance of your data should be approximately equal across the range of your predicted values
- it is extremely important assumption
- If homoscedasticiy is violated \rightarrow a problem with unequal variances

Homoskedasticity



How to check whether homoscedasticity assumption were met?

- the residuals of your model need to roughly have a similar amount of deviation from the predicted values
- See Residual Plot
- Good residual plot essentially looks blob-like



Homoskedasticity



Example of heteroskedasticity

higher fitted values have larger residuals

What to do?

As mentioned earlier, consider a log-transform

Normality of residuals



Normality of residuals

- It is the one that is least important
- LM is relatively robust agains violation of the normality assumption
- Gellman and Hill (2007), a famous book on LM and mixed models, DO NOT EVEN RECOMMEND diagnostics of the normality assumption

If you want to test the assumption

Histogram

```
hist(residuals(xmdl))
```

Q-Q plot

```
qqnorm(residuals(xmdl))
```



Normality of residuals



Example of normality

- Thses look good
- The histogram is relatively bell-shaped
- The Q-Q plot indicates that the data falls on a straight line
 - which means that it's similar to a normal distribution
- can conclude that there are no obvious violations of the normalitry assumption



What is the influential data point?

- If a particular data point is excluded, when values with which the coefficient is adjusted is large, it is an influential data point.
- Influential data points can drastically change the interpretation of the results, it can lead to instable results



How to check?

• Using dfbeta() function

```
dfbeta(xmd1)
## (Intercept) age
## 1 -3.3645662 0.06437573
## 2 -1.6119656 0.02736278
## 3 1.5481303 -0.01456709
## 4 -0.0259835 0.05092767
## 5 0.8707699 -0.06479736
## 6 1.8551808 -0.06622744
```

- DFbeta values are the values of coefficient as a result of leave-one-out diagnostics
- For example, if data point 1 is excluded, the coefficient for age has to be adjsted by 0.0644 from -0.9099, so -0.8455





What is the criteria for decision of influential data point

- There is no clear, sharp criteria
- One thing for sure
 - any value that changes the sign of the slope is definitely an influential point
 - be cautious to DFbeta value which is at least half of the absolute value of the slope (To author)



How to proceed if there are influential data points?

- DO NOT SIMPLY EXCLUDE those points and report only the results on the reduced set
 - The only case to exclude influential points is when
 - there is an obvious error (negative age)
 - or there is a value that obviously is the result due to a technical error (voice pitch value of 0)
- Run the analysis with the influential points and without the points, reports both analyses, state whether the interpretation of the results does or does not change



What is independence?

- easy example coin flip or roll of a dice
- each try is not influenced by another try
- each coin flip and each roll of a dice is absolutely independent from the outcome of the preceding coin flips or dice rolls
- The same should hold for your data points for LM analysis
- the data points should come from DIFFERENT SUBJECT
- Each subject should only contribute one data point
- Independence assumption is by far the most important one





When you violate the indepence assumption?

- may greatly inflate chance of finding a spurious result
- and it results in a p-value that is *completely meaningless*.

How can guarantee independence?

- Independence is a question of the experimental design
- by only collecting one data point per subject



If you want to collect more data per subject?

- such as in repreated measures design
- need to resolve these non-independence at the analysis stage
- This is where MIXED MODELS comes in

Mixed models will be proceeded in Tutorial 2



If you want to collect more data per subject?

- such as in repreated measures design
- need to resolve these non-independence at the analysis stage
- This is where MIXED MODELS comes in

Mixed models will be proceeded in Tutorial 2