

# The Complementary Role of Para-linguistic cues for Robust Pronunciation Assessment

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## Abstract

Research on pronunciation assessment systems focuses on utilizing phonetic and phonological aspects of non-native (L2) speech, often neglecting the rich layer of information hidden within the para-linguistic cues. In this study, we proposed a novel pronunciation assessment framework, **IntraVerbalPA**. The framework innovatively incorporates both fine-grained frame- and abstract utterance-level para-linguistic cues, alongside the raw speech and phoneme representations. Additionally, we introduce the “Goodness of phonemic-duration” metric to effectively model phoneme duration distribution within the framework. Our results validate the effectiveness of the proposed IntraVerbalPA framework and its individual components, yielding performance that matches or outperforms existing research works.

## 1 Introduction

Computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) for foreign language learning has seen a surge in global demand in recent years. CAPT benefits non-native learners with personalized, cost-effective feedback, promotes self-directed learning and improves pronunciation skills. It also offers flexibility compared to traditional instruction (Eskenazi, 2009; Litman et al., 2018; Kheir et al., 2023). One of the main objectives of the CAPT is to automate pronunciation assessment (PA). To achieve this goal, the automated PA model needs to estimate a score that reflects oral proficiency based on some standardized assessment criteria (Levy and Stockwell, 2013; Eskenazi, 2009).

The task of PA is inherently subjective, even scores assigned by human expert annotators often vary for the same spoken utterance. These discrepancies arise from annotator’s unique experiences, their interpretations of the scoring guidelines, and/or their focus on specific aspects of pronunciation – like fluency, prosody, word accuracy,

or even a combination. Hence, designing an automated PA that emulates the annotators’ (or a teacher) is very much complex and challenging. The challenges extend beyond the constraints of dataset availability, and modeling intricacies, to include the crucial task of selecting features and approaches to model their representations. Numerous investigations have explored a range of features and modeling approaches to enhance modeling performance. These explorations have encompassed the utilization of Goodness-of-Pronunciation (GOP) metrics (Lin et al., 2020; Gong et al., 2022; Hu et al., 2015), the integration of manually crafted handful of para-linguistic features such as duration, energy, and pitch (Zhang et al., 2021a; Chao et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2023), as well as the utilization of state-of-the-art pre-trained self-supervised learning models for modeling improvement (Kim et al., 2022; Lin and Wang, 2023; Yang et al., 2022). However, the majority of the studies often neglect the rich layer of information hidden within the para-linguistic cues. For automated PA, integrating an additional layer of para-linguistic cues – pitch, intonation, voice quality, etc., can greatly enhance the system’s ability to evaluate oral proficiency, bringing the human perception factor into the equation. Therefore, we introduce a novel PA framework **IntraVerbalPA**. The framework is jointly trained to score the ‘fluency’ and ‘prosodic’ aspects in multi-task setups. IntraVerbalPA leverages both latent speech and phoneme embedding while complementing them with handcrafted frame- and utterance-level para-linguistic paralinguistic cues.

## 2 Proposed Framework

Figure 1 shows our proposed IntraVerbalPA framework, designed to train an efficient end-to-end pronunciation assessment model using different sources of information from the input signal. The IntraVerbalPA model comprised of 4 mod-

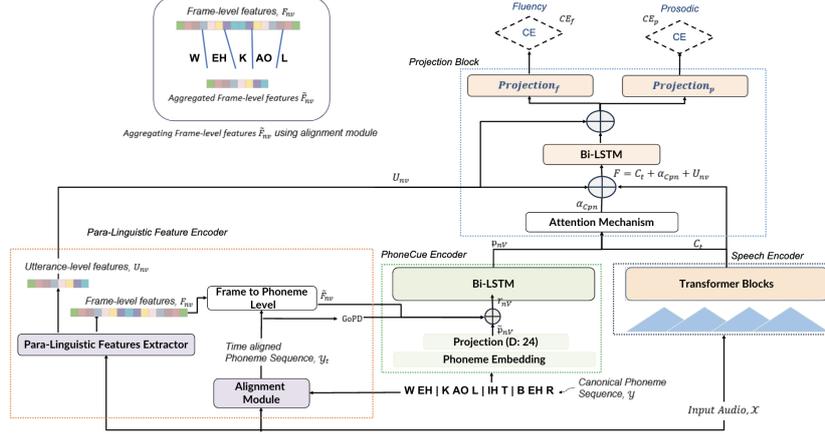


Figure 1: Overview of proposed IntraVerbalPA.

ules, *Speech Encoder*, *PhoneCue Encoder*, *para-linguistic Features Encoder*, and a *Projection Block*.

**Framework Overview** Given an input raw signal  $\mathcal{X}$ , of  $n$  samples, we first extract contextualized acoustic representations,  $C_t$  (of dimension,  $D : 1024$ ), from the **Speech Encoder**. Simultaneously,  $\mathcal{X}$  is also passed through the **para-linguistic Features Encoder** to obtain para-linguistic phoneme-level ( $\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{nv}}$ ), utterance-level  $\mathbf{U}_{\text{nv}}$  feature along with *duration*, *GoPD* representation. We then pass  $\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{nv}}$  and *GoPD* to the **PhoneCue Encoder**. The resultant output,  $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{\text{nv}}$ , along with  $C_t$ , and  $\mathbf{U}_{\text{nv}}$  are then passed to the **Projection Block** for predicting Fluency and Prosodic scores.

## 2.1 Speech Encoder Module

The wav2vec2-large (Conneau et al., 2020) model is a pre-trained wav2vec2.0 (Baevski et al., 2020). It follows the same architecture as the wav2vec2.0 model.

## 2.2 Para-linguistic Features Encoder

Inside the para-linguistic feature encoder, using the input  $\mathcal{X}$ , we first extract low-level descriptors in frame-level ( $\mathbf{F}_{\text{nv}}$ ) and functionals to create utterance-level ( $\mathbf{U}_{\text{nv}}$ ) representation using OpenSmile. We then align the input  $\mathcal{X}$  with the canonical phoneme sequence  $\mathcal{Y}$  using the *Alignment Module* to convert frame-level para-linguistic  $\mathbf{F}_{\text{nv}}$  representation to phoneme-level ( $\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{\text{nv}}$ ) representation. Moreover, we also use the phoneme-level alignments to calculate the *duration representation*, *GoPD*.

### 2.2.1 Alignment Module

To align the canonical sequence with the audio, we opt for wav2vec2.0 trained for frame-level classification (Zhu et al., 2022).

### 2.2.2 Goodness of phonemic-duration (GoPD)

We present a novel metric called Goodness of phonemic-duration (GoPD), drawing inspiration from the Goodness of Pronunciation (GoP) metric introduced in (Witt and Young, 2000). The GoP metric is defined for a given observation  $\mathbf{O}$  and a phone  $\mathbf{p}$  by the following equation:

$$GOP(p) = P(p|\mathbf{O}) = \frac{p(\mathbf{O}|p) P(p)}{\sum_q p(\mathbf{O}|q) P(q)} \quad (1)$$

First, we extracted phoneme duration from native English (subset of TIMIT (Garofolo, 1993)) data using the alignment module (in Section 2.2.1). We then construct Gaussian distributions specific to each phoneme  $\mathbf{p}$  denoted as  $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{p}}$  to later use it in the IntraVerbalPA framework. Within the framework, using the pre-extracted distribution, we compute the GoPD as follows:

$$GoPD(d_t) = \log(P_{\mathbf{D}_{p_t}}(d_t)) \quad (2)$$

for a given duration  $d_t$  corresponding to a L2-phoneme  $p_t$ .

In Figure 2, we present an illustration featuring two phonemes duration distributions, ‘V’ and ‘OY’. Notably, ‘OY’ exhibits a relatively higher mean duration compared to ‘V’, which aligns with our expectations since ‘V’ is a vowel and ‘OY’ is a consonant. However, it’s worth noting that ‘V’ displays a smaller standard deviation. This characteristic makes ‘V’ more sensitive to long duration, potentially signaling elongation which will be reflected in the  $GoPD(d_t)$ .

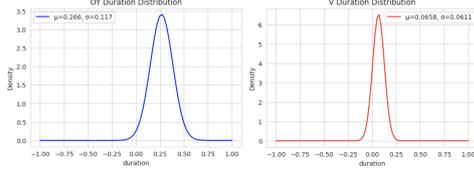


Figure 2: OY vs V duration distribution (ms).

Features	Description	Relevance
Loudness	Estimate of perceived signal intensity from an auditory spectrum	Intonation
AlphaRatio	Ratio of the summed energy from 50-1000 Hz and 1-5 kHz. Represents the high-frequency content and the spectral balance.	Intonation
Pitch	logarithmic F0 on a semitone frequency scale	Intonation, Confidence and Expressiveness
JitterLocal	deviations in individual consecutive F0 period lengths	Intonation, Confidence and Expressiveness

Table 1: Selected Frame-level features and their relevance

### 2.2.3 Frame-level features

In Figure 1, frame-level features  $F_{nv}$  are obtained using OpenSmile. It offers 18 low-level descriptors based on the eGeMAPS set (Eyben et al., 2015), including key attributes such as Loudness, Alpha-Ratio, Pitch, and Jitter Local, along with their corresponding derivatives, as shown in Table 1. Energy is an important feature of speech detection, the energy distribution may be related to the intonation property (Chao et al., 2022), we modeled Energy by Loudness, AlphaRatio, and their derivatives. Pitch provides acoustic cues for a speaker’s intonation (Zhang et al., 2021a), confidence, and expressiveness, we present that using logarithmic F0, and JitterLocal.

### 2.2.4 Utterance-level features

In Figure 1, utterance-level features  $U_{nv}$  are also obtained using OpenSmile. In this case, functionals feature levels based on the ComParE set are employed, providing a rich set of up to 6373 features. We explore three strategies for representing  $U_{nv}$  using these features:

1. Represent  $U_{nv}$  with the complete set of 6373 features, denoted as  $U_{nv}$  (#6373).
2. Choose a subset of features and their derivatives detailed in Table 1, resulting in  $U_{nv}^s$  (#395).
3. Utilize feature selection using `sklearn.feature_selection.SelectFromModel` through a random forest-trained model to obtain  $U_{nv}^m$  (#1590).

## 2.3 PhoneCue Encoder Module

The PhoneCue Encoder takes as input a sequence  $Y = y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m$  representing parsed canonical phoneme sequence, then to an embedding layer with dimension  $D : 41$ . These embeddings are projected using a feedforward operation (with dimension  $D : 24$ ), resulting in the intermediate feature vector  $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{nv}$ .

Subsequently, we vertically concatenate this intermediate feature vector  $\tilde{\mathbf{p}}_{nv}$  with other relevant components, including GoPD and  $\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{nv}$  (combined as frame-level features  $\tilde{\mathbf{F}}_{nv}^*$ )

Finally, the  $\mathbf{r}_{nv}$  is processed through a Bi-LSTM with dimension ( $D : 512$ ), resulting in the feature representation  $\mathbf{p}_{nv}$  ( $D : 1024$ ) capturing the paralinguistic and phonetic cues present in the utterance.

### 2.4 Projection Block

The  $\mathbf{p}_{nv}$  and the contextualized acoustic representations  $C_t$  are then passed to a attention layer that takes  $\mathbf{p}_{nv}$  as query and value, and  $C_t$  as key, resulting in the final feature representation  $\alpha_{Cnv}$  ( $D : 1024$ )

$$\alpha_{Cnv} = Attention(K = C_t, Q = \mathbf{p}_{nv}, V = \mathbf{p}_{nv}) \quad (3)$$

The embeddings  $C_t$  and  $\alpha_{Cp}$  ( $D : 1024$ ) are then concatenated with utterance-level features  $\mathbf{U}_{nv}$ , resulting in:  $F = C_t + \alpha_{Cpn} + \mathbf{U}_{nv}$  (4)

The resulting  $F$  is then parsed to Bi-LSTM ( $D : 512$ ), and gets concatenated with the residual utterance-level features  $\mathbf{U}_{nv}$  giving:  $\tilde{F} = BiLSTM(F) + \mathbf{U}_{nv}$  which promotes utterance-level feature reuse. Following,  $\tilde{F}$  is then passed to two separate projection layers  $Projection_f$ ,  $Projection_p$  of ( $D : 11$ ), for respective Fluency and Prosodic score classification.

## 3 Experimental Setup

### 3.1 Datasets

For the study, we used the widely used Speechocean762 (Zhang et al., 2021b) an extensive dataset specifically designed for pronunciation assessment. The dataset comprises a total of 5,000 English utterances obtained from 250 non-native speakers.

### 3.2 Model Training and Parameters

The models are optimized using Adam optimizer (Kingma and Ba, 2017) for 25 epochs with early

Exp	C <sub>t</sub>	p <sub>nv</sub>	F <sub>nv</sub> *	U <sub>nv</sub>	Prosodic	Fluency
<b>Baselines</b>						
1.I	✓	✗	✗	✗	0.7204	0.7200
1.II	✓	✓	✗	✗	0.7040	0.7092
<b>Proposed Setups</b>						
1.III	✓	✗	✓	✗	0.7769	0.7740
1.IV	✓	✗	✗	✓	0.7493	0.7452
1.V	✓	✓	✓	✗	0.7429	0.7519
1.VI	✓	✓	✗	✓	0.7372	0.7375
1.VII	✓	✗	✓	✓	0.7689	0.7661
1.VIII	✓	✓	✓	✓	0.7488	0.7481

Table 2: Reported PCC.  $F_{nv}$  converted phoneme-level representation of para-linguistic cues, \* including GoPD Goodness of phonemic-duration,  $U_{nv}$ : full utterance-level para-linguistic cues representation ( $U_{nv}^f$  #6373). ‘✓’: Feature is included, ‘✗’: Feature is not included stopping criterion (= 3). The initial learning rate is set to  $1 \times 10^{-4}$ , with a batch size of 32. Following literature, we reported the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (PCC).

## 4 Results and Discussion

**Effectiveness of Proposed Features** Table 2 illustrates the effectiveness of the proposed features, namely  $p_{nv}$ ,  $F_{nv}^*$ , and  $U_{nv}$ , across various configurations. As depicted in Table 2, the incorporation of these feature combinations consistently results in a notable enhancement in PCC, outperforming the traditional approach of modeling via fine-tuning a pre-trained model to the task (1.I, 1.II), with and without encoded canonical phoneme embedding.

Notably, the optimal outcome is observed when utilizing frame-level features  $F_{nv}$ . Significantly, we observed a reduction in PCC by up to 2% upon the inclusion of  $p_{nv}$ . Interpreting this decline is challenging in light of existing literature that underscores the effectiveness of incorporating reference phoneme embedding in mispronunciation detection and pronunciation assessment pipelines (Gong et al., 2022; Chao et al., 2022; Fu et al., 2021; Ryu et al.). We think that not including  $p_{nv}$  with frame features in the **PhoneCue module** makes it hard to match up automatically with  $C_t$  features.

**Effectiveness of Proposed Selection of Utterance features** Table 3 displays the outcomes of various experimental setups utilizing  $U_{nv}^s$  and  $U_{nv}^m$ . A consistent trend is observed in both setups, where the PCC incrementally increases with the addition of more proposed features. While the results exhibit marginal differences of less than 0.1% improvement across different utterance features, the selected features  $U_{nv}^s$  yield the optimal outcome,

Exp	C <sub>t</sub>	p <sub>nv</sub>	F <sub>nv</sub> *	Prosodic	Fluency
Experiments with $U_{nv}^s$ of #395					
2.I	✓	✗	✗	0.7400	0.7407
2.II	✓	✓	✗	0.7507	0.7478
2.III	✓	✗	✓	0.7681	0.7649
2.IV (IntraVerbalPA)	✓	✓	✓	0.7835	0.7851
Experiments with $U_{nv}^m$ of #1590					
3.I	✓	✓	✗	0.7327	0.7364
3.II	✓	✓	✗	0.7403	0.7458
3.III	✓	✗	✓	0.7611	0.7617
3.IV	✓	✓	✓	0.7748	0.7709

Table 3: Reported PCC, using  $U_{nv}^s$  and  $U_{nv}^m$  Utterance level features

PCC	Prosodic	Fluency
<b>Contemporary and Proposed Work</b>		
Raw Speech ( $C_t$ ) (Ryu et al.)	65.00%	65.20%
Wav2vec-large (Kim et al., 2022)	72.00%	72.00%
HiPAMA (Do et al., 2023)	75.10%	74.90%
GOPT (Gong et al., 2022)	76.00%	75.30%
Joint-CAPT-L1 (Ryu et al.)	77.30%	77.50%
Hubert-large-finetuned (Kim et al., 2022)	77.00%	78.00%
MultiPA [Multi-Task PA] (Chen et al., 2023)	78.70%	79.70%
3M (Chao et al., 2022)	82.70%	82.80%
HierarchicalPA (Do et al., 2023)	83.60%	84.30%
IntraVerbalPA (Proposed)	<b>78.35%</b>	<b>78.51%</b>

Table 4: Reported PCC, for the prior and contemporary works; and our best proposed result IntraVerbalPA achieving a PCC of 78.35% in Prosody and 78.51% in Fluency outperforming the proposed setup 1.III, 1.VII shown in Table 2 and 3.IV in Table 3. These latter results are deemed the best, affirming the effectiveness of our proposed IntraVerbalPA.

**Comparison to Prior Studies:** In comparison to contemporary models (see Table 4), the IntraVerbalPA performs comparably with the MultiPA (Chen et al., 2023), and Joint-CAPT (Ryu et al.). While MultiPA and Joint-CAPT operate in a multi-task setup context using either additional features or external L2-Artic.

## 5 Conclusion

We introduce the IntraVerbalPA framework, enriched with both fine-grained and abstract para-linguistic cues along with the conventional speech and phoneme representation for modeling pronunciation assessment system. Moreover, we propose a new metric to effectively model duration distribution within the framework. Our reported results validate the importance of individual components of the framework, and demonstrate the efficacy of the IntraVerbalPA.

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