shain.3@osu.edu

Question

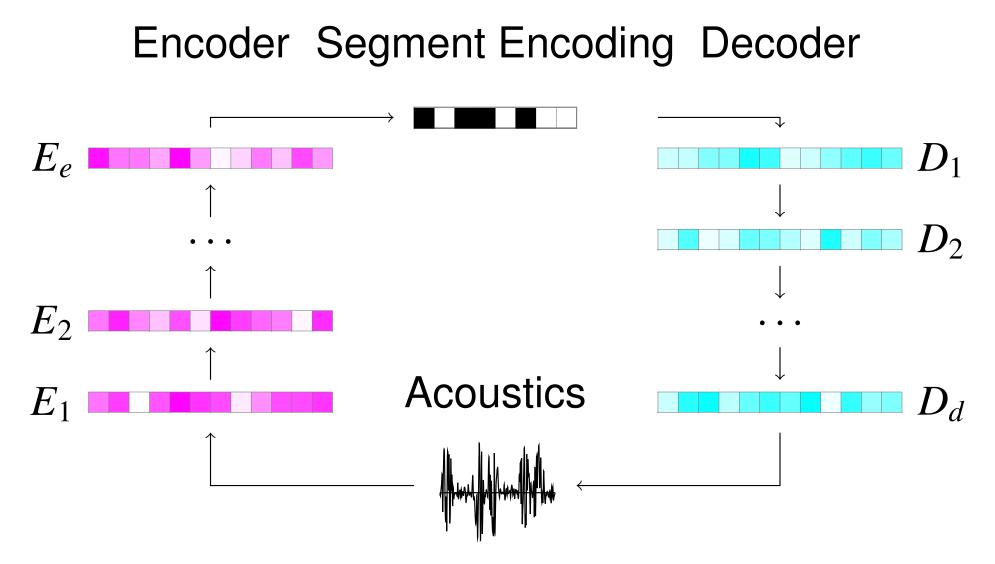
How do young infants learn the phoneme categories and phonological features of their target language? In particular:

• Q1: To what extent can phoneme categories emerge from a drive to memorize auditory percepts?

• Q2: How perceptually available are theory-driven phonological features?

Background

- Acoustics must contain evidence for phoneme categories
- Language comprehension and production might be linked through a sensorimotor loop [6]
- Limited auditory memory requires compression, which may guide learning [1]
- Featural decomposition occurs in acquisition [7]
- Phone perception tends to be categorical, even in infants [4]
- We implement these biases in a computational model and evaluate its acquired representations



BSN autoencoder architecture with encoder layers $E_{1,\ldots,e}$ and decoder layers $D_{1,...,d}$.

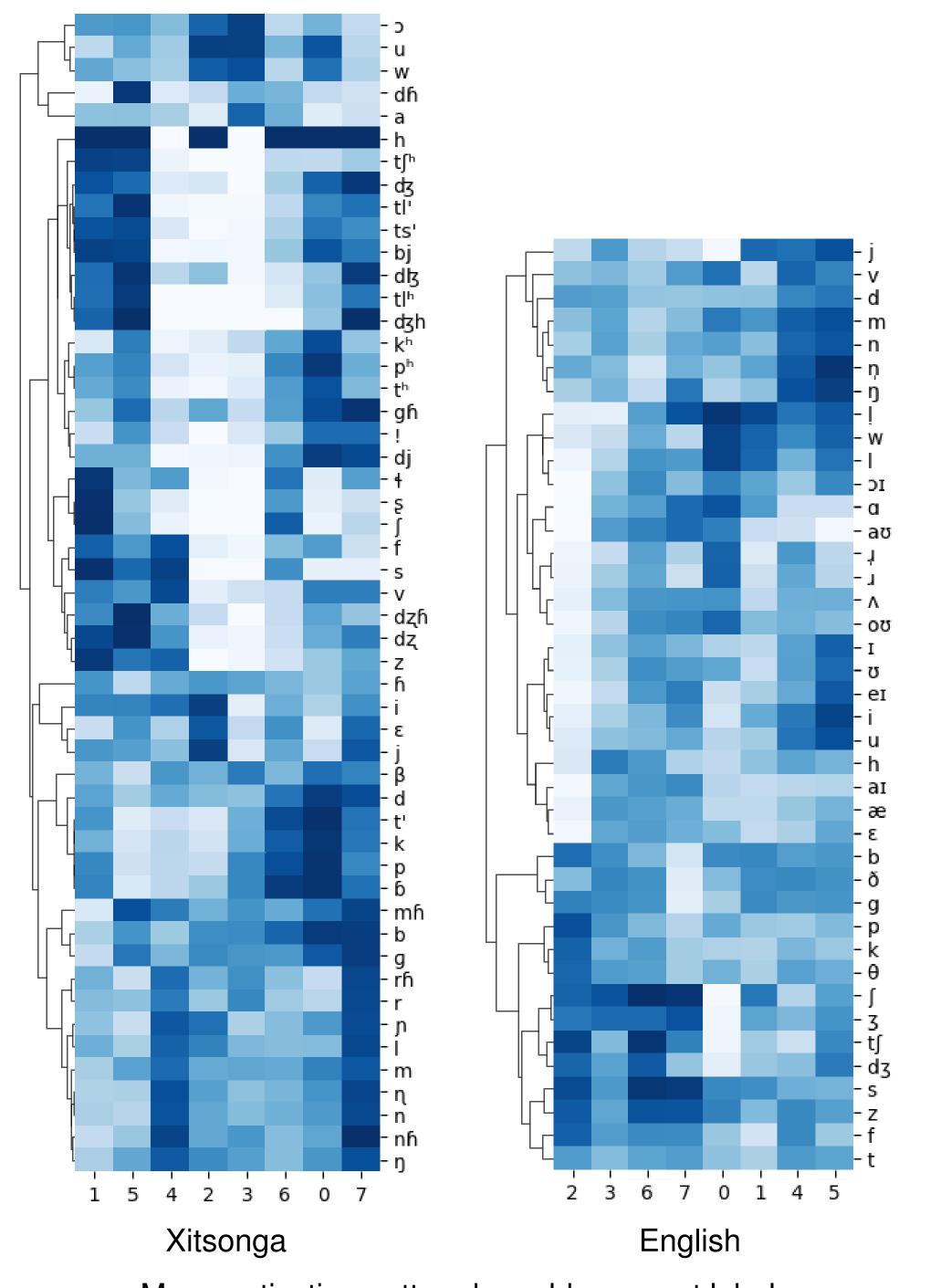
Experimental Design

- Data:
- Zerospeech 2015 challenge datasets [12]
- English [11]
- Xitsonga [2]
- Model:
- Deep neural autoencoder (percept modeling, autoassociation, sensorimotor loop)
- 8-dimensional bottleneck (compression)
- Discrete binary stochastic neurons (BSNs) (feature decomposition, categorical perception)
- Inputs/outputs: MFCC acoustic features from pre-segmented phonemes

Computer modeling suggests patterns of perceptual availability of phonological structure during infant language acquisition

Cory Shain and Micha Elsner

Ohio State



Mean activation pattern by gold segment label

Highlights

- Relative clustering improvement over random shows percept modeling provides learning signal Asymmetries in feature recovery show some features are more reliably encoded than others Similar feature recovery patterns between languages suggests that results reflect general perceptual availability
- Differences between languages may reflect perceptual crowding:
- Different relative performance on a cluster of vowel and consonant features:
- Xitsonga: vowel > consonant; relatively fewer vowel categories
- English: consonant > vowel; relatively fewer consonant categories
- Aligns with infant phone discrimination patterns: Best recovery of voicing [8] and features that distinguish vowel-like from consonant-like
- **segments**, distinctions made early by infants [3] Poorer recovery of e.g. nasal and fricative place distinctions (see clustermaps), as has been shown for infants [10, 9]

Mode	H H	С	V	Model	H	С	V	
Random Baseline	e 0.023	0.013	0.016	Random Baseline	0.006	0.004	0.005	
BSN Autoencode	r 0.462	0.268	0.33	BSN Autoencoder	0.270	0.180	0.216	
Xitsonga clustering (21189	% relative V-	measure	improvemen	nt) English clustering (4500% r	elative V-m	neasure i	mprovement)	
—		-	-					
Feature	P	\mathbf{R}	F	Feature	Р	R	F	
voice				voice	0.9244	0.8567	7 0.8893	
sonorant			0.9166	sonorant	0.8544	0.8862	2 0.8700	
continuant	0.9492 (approximant	0.8005	0.8370	0.8183	
consonantal	0.8314 (continuant	0.8577	0.7669	9 0.8098	
approximant	0.8998 (consonantal	0.8249	0.7357	7 0.7777	
syllabic dorcal	0.8278 (syllabic	0.6624	0.8426	6 0.7417	
dorsal	0.8935 (0.6991 (dorsal	0.7046	0.7114	4 0.7080	
strident	0.7175 (strident	0.5505	0.9027	7 0.6839	
low	0.6590 (coronal	0.5758	0.7066	6 0.6345	
front	0.5875 (anterior	0.5251	0.7280	0.6101	
high back	0.5352 (delayed release	0.4413	0.7374	4 0.5521	
round	0.5332 (front	0.4322	0.7407	7 0.5459	
labial	0.5669 (high	0.3841	0.693	1 0.4943	
coronal	0.5382 (tense	0.3275	0.710^{-1}	1 0.4483	
tense	0.5208 (back	0.3128	0.7504	4 0.4416	
delayed release	0.5468 (nasal	0.2796	0.7544	4 0.4080	
anterior	0.4078 (labial			7 0.3739	
nasal	0.3635 (IOW			7 0.3680	
distributed	0.2459 (distributed			1 0.3337	
constricted glottis	0.1762 (stress			7 0.3269	
lateral	0.1536			diphthong			1 0.3254	
labiodental	0.0934 (round			2 0.2692	
trill	0.0809 (lateral			3 0.2519	
spread glottis	0.0671 (labiodental			5 0.1410	
implosive	0.0041 (spread glottis	0.0377	0.6683	3 0.0714	
				English	English feature recovery			

Xitsonga feature recovery

Conclusion

Much phonological structure is perceptually available, but some may not be. Based solely on a perceptual modeling objective, our learner partially acquires phoneme categories (Q1) and theory-driven features (Q2), unsupervised. Evidence for such features is therefore perceptually available.

- Error patterns mimic those of human infants
- Top-down constraints are likely needed in order to refine representations, as has been argued for humans [5]

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