

Perception of vowels with missing formant peaks

Filip Nenadić,^{1, a} Pamela Coulter,² Terrance M. Nearey,¹ and Michael Kiefte²

¹*Department of Linguistics, University of Alberta, Edmonton,*

Canada

²*School of Communication Sciences and Disorders, Dalhousie University, Halifax,*

Canada

(Dated: 5 February 2022)

This is an Accepted Manuscript of an article published in
The Journal of Acoustical Society of America on October 8, 2020,
available online: <https://asa.scitation.org/doi/10.1121/10.0002110>.

Copyright (2020) Acoustical Society of America.

This article may be downloaded for personal use only.

Any other use requires prior permission of the author and the Acoustical Society of America.

1 Although the first two or three formant frequencies are considered essential cues for
2 vowel identification, certain limitations of this approach have been noted. Alterna-
3 tive explanations have suggested listeners rely on other aspects of the gross spectral
4 shape. A study conducted by Ito *et al.* [J ACOUST SOC AM (110), 2001] offered strong
5 support for the latter, as attenuation of individual formant peaks left vowel identi-
6 fication largely unaffected. In the present study, these experiments are replicated
7 in two dialects of English. Although the results were similar, quantitative analyses
8 showed that when a formant is suppressed, participant response entropy increases
9 due to increased listener uncertainty. In a subsequent experiment, using synthesized
10 vowels with changing formant frequencies, suppressing individual formant peaks led
11 to reliable changes in identification of certain vowels but not in others. These findings
12 indicate that listeners can identify vowels with missing formant peaks. However, such
13 formant-peak suppression may lead to decreased certainty in identification of steady-
14 state vowels or even stable changes in vowel identification in certain dynamically
15 specified vowels.

^anenadic@ualberta.ca

16 **I. INTRODUCTION**

17 Peterson and Barney (1952) described the first two or three formant frequencies as es-
18 sential cues when investigating vowel identification. The “formant hypothesis”, also called
19 the “target model”, has been dominant ever since. This approach is supported by many
20 studies (e.g., Klatt, 1982) or at least is always mentioned in studies exploring the role of
21 formants and their characteristics in vowel perception (e.g., Kiefte *et al.*, 2010). Kiefte *et al.*
22 (2013) provide an overview of arguments in favor of the notion that information near the
23 high-intensity formant peaks should be the most robust and informative part of the signal
24 and the formant hypothesis is also discussed extensively in reviews (e.g., Molis, 2005; Rosner
25 and Pickering, 1994).

26 However, certain issues and limitations of the formant hypothesis have been noted
27 (Bladon, 1982, 1983; Molis, 2005): (1) relying only on formant peaks represents a signif-
28 icant reduction of the signal, (2) determining formant frequencies is not always an easy
29 or straightforward task, and (3) formant frequencies alone cannot fully account for certain
30 empirical findings (see e.g., Fox *et al.*, 2010; Hillenbrand *et al.*, 2006). Another example of
31 such an empirical finding is noted by Ito *et al.* (2001) where change in relative amplitude of
32 adjacent formants — as in the center of gravity effect (Chistovich and Lublinskaya, 1979)
33 — can affect vowel perception even if formant values are held constant. Additionally, engi-
34 neering solutions for automatic speech recognition do not rely on extracting formant values
35 as parameters (Yu and Deng, 2014). These and similar arguments support an alternative
36 explanation in which not only formant peaks, but the overall spectral shape, acts as a cue

37 to vowel identity. This “whole-spectrum hypothesis” might then provide a better fit to the
38 data gathered from listeners (Bladon and Lindblom, 1981; Hillenbrand and Houde, 2003;
39 Zahorian and Jagharghi, 1993).

40 Perhaps the strongest evidence against formant peaks as the only relevant cues for vowel
41 identification comes from experiments conducted by Ito *et al.* (2001). In their first experi-
42 ment, the authors synthesized a continuum of vowels varying by F_1 and F_2 values which were
43 used as controls, as well as suppressed-formant variants in which either F_1 or F_2 peaks were
44 flattened with as much of the remaining spectral shape as possible retained. Stimuli were
45 presented in successive per-condition blocks to four listeners and responses showed that sup-
46 pressing formant peaks did not radically change vowel identification. In the second and third
47 experiment, Ito *et al.* also show that changing the amplitude ratios of F_1 relative to higher
48 formants affects vowel perception. These results indicate that loss of formant frequency
49 information can be compensated for by using information extracted from the gross spectral
50 shape. Additionally, it seems that changes in relative formant amplitude (e.g., spectral tilt)
51 can affect vowel identification even if formant frequencies are not manipulated.

52 Following these findings, Kiefte and Kluender (2005) compared relative contributions
53 of the second formant frequency and spectral tilt in an experiment that finely manipulated
54 them in synthesized /i/ to /u/ continua. Second-formant variation proved to be a significant
55 cue for determining which vowel was heard, but so did spectral tilt, albeit with a smaller
56 effect size (expressed as D^2). Both the results of Ito *et al.* (2001) and Kiefte and Kluender
57 (2005) may result from effects of simultaneous masking as acknowledged by Kiefte *et al.*
58 (2010). However, Kiefte and Kluender (2005) found that very different results are obtained

59 when using /ai/ and /au/ stimuli in which formant-frequency parameters change — even
60 by very small amounts — throughout the duration of the stimulus unlike the stimuli used
61 by Ito *et al.* (2001) in which the synthesized formant values were kept constant. In these
62 circumstances, spectral tilt did not have a significant effect on vowel identification, prompting
63 the conclusion that spectral tilt may be informative only for vowels that have unchanging
64 spectral characteristics. English has a number of diphthongs wherein formant frequencies
65 change substantially as the vowel unfolds (Hillenbrand *et al.*, 1995; Hillenbrand and Nearey,
66 1999). Moreover, recordings of many English vowels regarded as monophthongs also show
67 changing formant patterns that are important for their perception.

68 Besides using vowels with steady formant peaks, Ito *et al.* (2001) made other design
69 decisions that could have affected the outcome of their study. Only four participants were
70 tested and substantial individual differences can be seen in their responses. All participants
71 heard each stimulus a very large number of times; that is, they had prolonged exposure to
72 the stimuli. The study was conducted in Japanese which has only five vowel categories, so
73 less robust acoustic cues (e.g., spectral tilt) might suffice to distinguish vowels in this sparse
74 choice set. Finally, the three types of stimuli (original, F_1 -suppressed, and F_2 -suppressed)
75 were presented in separate blocks, which may have allowed listeners to more easily adapt to
76 formant peak attenuation within each condition and focus their attention on other cues.

77 The above considerations raise questions as to the importance of gross spectral shape
78 cues when identifying vowels in a more ecologically valid setting. As both Molis (2005) and
79 Kiefte *et al.* (2013) note, the formant hypothesis and the whole-spectrum hypothesis are not
80 mutually exclusive — the whole-spectrum approach also necessarily includes information

81 about the location of local formant peaks. It is clear that formant frequencies seem to be
82 sufficient for reliable vowel identification in certain contexts, such as in pattern-playback
83 speech (Delattre *et al.*, 1952) or when only three harmonics corresponding to formant peaks
84 are preserved (Kakusho *et al.*, 1971; Kiefte *et al.*, 2010). This, however, does not mean
85 that they are necessary in more naturalistic speech, nor that other spectral characteristics
86 cannot be informative as well given the right circumstances (see, e.g., Chistovich and Lublin-
87 skaya, 1979; Ito *et al.*, 2001; Kiefte and Kluender, 2008). The question is rather what are
88 the circumstances in which (1) formant-frequency information can be distorted without im-
89 peding vowel identification, and (2) other spectral characteristics (most notably amplitude
90 information, e.g., spectral tilt), are utilized by listeners.¹

91 Although Kiefte and Kluender (2005) investigated the same effects as Ito *et al.* (2001),
92 they did not strictly replicate the original experiment. The present study more closely fol-
93 lows the methods of Experiment 1 conducted by Ito *et al.* Our Experiments 1 and 2 involve
94 a larger number of listeners from two dialects of English, both of which have larger vowel
95 inventories than Japanese. This may limit the listeners' ability to benefit from broadly tuned
96 spectral characteristics in distinguishing phonetically similar vowels. Our last two experi-
97 ments explore more ecologically valid situations: Experiment 3 investigates how stimulus
98 blocking affects which cues listeners rely on, as in this experiment stimuli with a suppressed
99 formant are presented together with original full-formant stimuli in randomized order, sim-
100 ulating situations where formant peaks are possibly masked or attenuated by the listening
101 environment. Finally, in Experiment 4, we synthesize vowels with changes in their formant
102 values across time to test how loss of formant information affects perception if that formant

103 is also variable in time. Our expectations are that formant-peak manipulation should have
104 more detrimental effects in our experiments than those recorded by Ito *et al.*²

105 II. EXPERIMENT 1

106 A. Method

107 Fifteen native speakers of Eastern Canadian English (22 – 32 years; $M = 25.7$; $SD =$
108 2.92 ; 67% females) were recruited from the Dalhousie University School of Communication
109 Sciences and Disorders in Halifax, Canada. Participants received no compensation for taking
110 part in the study. All participants completed an undergraduate university phonetics course
111 and thus had some knowledge of English vowel phonology as well as the ability to respond
112 using IPA vowel symbols. None of the participants reported any hearing impairment, and
113 their measured hearing thresholds were normal.

114 Stimuli were vowels synthesized in a manner similar to that of a cascade-type Klatt
115 synthesizer (Klatt, 1980) and following the procedure described in Ito *et al.* (2001). Funda-
116 mental frequency, F_0 , was set at 125 Hz and the first two formants of the vowels were varied
117 systematically in 125 Hz increments, ranging from 250 to 1250 Hz for F_1 and from 750 to
118 2250 Hz for F_2 . Higher formants were set to 2500, 3500, and 4500 Hz and the remaining
119 synthesis parameters are given in Table 1 of Ito *et al.* (pp. 1142). Vowels which had F_1
120 and F_2 within 200 Hz of each other were excluded as unnatural, so the final number of
121 synthesized vowels was 96. These control vowels were then modified to suppress either the
122 F_1 or F_2 peak, while retaining as much of the remaining spectral shape as possible. After

123 the stimuli were generated via cascade synthesis at a 10-kHz sampling rate, 80 samples (8
 124 ms) corresponding to one pitch period were extracted from a window 100 ms following the
 125 onset. This frame was analyzed via Fourier transform such that each component in the
 126 spectral domain gave the amplitude and phase of each harmonic. To excise a formant peak,
 127 two harmonics were found — one on either side of the target formant peak — such that
 128 a straight line between them in dB/ERB (Glasberg and Moore, 1990) would fall below all
 129 intermediate harmonics in amplitude as well as the two harmonics immediately outside that
 130 range on either side. The amplitudes and phases of the intervening harmonics were then
 131 linearly interpolated between these two harmonics in dB/ERB. Experimental stimuli were
 132 then resynthesized from the modified spectra via inverse Fourier transform. The resulting
 133 80-sample segment was then repeated to produce a 400-ms stimulus. The onset and offset
 134 of the stimulus was weighted by a 4-ms half-Hamming window. Sample spectra of a single
 135 vowel in each of the three conditions are given in Figure 1 and the stimuli are available in
 136 our supplementary material.

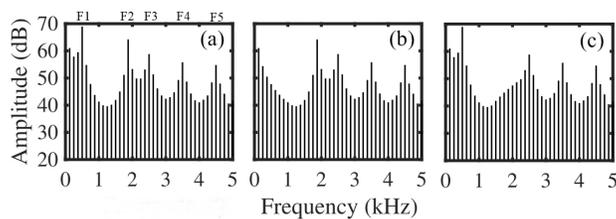


FIG. 1. Sample vowel in its (a) original form, (b) with F_1 suppressed, and (c) with F_2 suppressed.

137 The experiment was conducted in a sound-attenuated booth and began with participants'
 138 hearing screening. Stimuli were presented using MATLAB, a digital signal processor Edirol
 139 UA-25EX, and circumaural headphones (Beyerdynamic DT 290) at 75 dB SPL. In response,

140 participants used a DX1 system by ErgoDex to input their selection from a choice of 10
141 buttons, each programmed for one of the vowel choices. The input system has an image of
142 the English vowel quadrilateral with the buttons placed at the conventional vowel positions
143 and marked with both an IPA symbol and an orthographic representation of an /hVd/ word.

144 A practice session consisting of 20 stimuli with both formants preserved was first com-
145 pleted to familiarize participants with the task. Next, three blocks (original, F_1 -suppressed,
146 F_2 -suppressed) were presented in random order. Stimuli were ordered randomly within each
147 block. Participants only heard each stimulus once to avoid both extensive familiarization
148 and fatigue; the larger number of responses per participant used by *Ito et al.* (2001) was
149 replaced by an increase in participant sample size.

150 B. Results

151 Contour plots of participants' synthesized vowel classifications are presented in Figure 2
152 (see supplementary materials for two additional sets of differently generated contour plots
153 and a more detailed description of how each of these sets of plots were generated). The
154 figures label the empirical modal response for every stimulus (F_1 - F_2 combination) and the
155 numeral 2 if two responses tied (and more rarely 3 when three responses tied). The original
156 synthesized vowels show plurality response regions in the F_1 - F_2 plane in roughly the expected
157 places, with the exception of /i/ and /I/ which received very few responses. Responses for
158 F_1 -suppressed and F_2 -suppressed vowels show broadly similar patterns to those observed in
159 original stimuli.

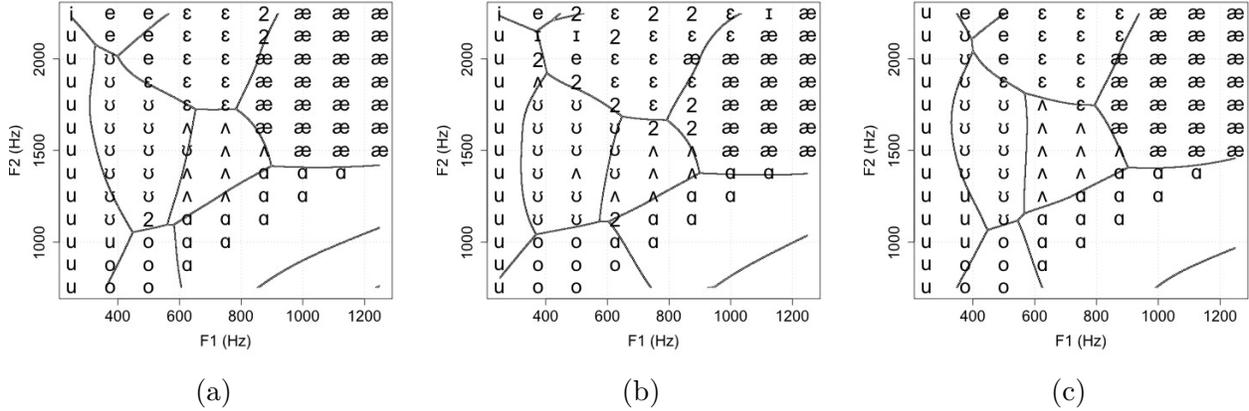


FIG. 2. Phoneme boundaries and modal responses for the (a) original synthesized vowels, (b) vowels with F_1 suppressed, and (c) vowels with F_2 suppressed in Experiment 1. The number 2 is used when two responses tied.

160 Importantly, we find distinctions between vowel responses are largely preserved along the
 161 frequency axis of the suppressed formant. In Figure 2 (b), which shows the F_1 -suppressed
 162 condition, we see differences between /u/, /ʊ/, and /ʌ/, all of which have the same range of
 163 F_2 values around 1500 Hz, and are apparently still distinguished primarily by the suppressed
 164 peak F_1 . A similar distinction is made between /ε/ and /æ/, which share F_2 values, but
 165 remain differentiated by the suppressed F_1 value. In Figure 2 (c) we see that vowels /ε/,
 166 /ʌ/, and /ɑ/ have similar F_1 values (around 600 to 850 Hz), but different F_2 values, even
 167 though this formant is suppressed, and the same can be observed for vowels /ʊ/ and /o/. In
 168 other words, the overall response patterns for vowels with a suppressed formant qualitatively
 169 resemble that of the original synthesized vowels.

170 However, we also wanted to quantify the variability present in listener responses. We
 171 used Shannon (informational) entropy (Shannon, 1948) calculated over relative frequencies

172 of each phoneme response to a given synthesized vowel. This is calculated as H (in nats) as
 173 shown in Equation 1, where a synthesized vowel v has $n = 10$ different potential responses
 174 (i.e., the ten English vowels) with each being chosen as the response with a probability of
 175 $p(v_i)$. Higher Shannon entropy values indicate more disperse, varying responses.

$$H(v) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p(v_i) \log_2 p(v_i), \quad (1)$$

176 We then analyzed these data by treating the Shannon entropy of each stimulus as a
 177 case in three repeated conditions (original, F_1 -suppressed, and F_2 -suppressed), effectively
 178 calculating a by-stimulus repeated measures ANOVA. There were significant differences in
 179 participant response entropy across conditions ($F(2, 190) = 42.06, p < .001$). Pairwise com-
 180 parisons with Bonferroni correction showed that F_1 -suppressed vowels have higher response
 181 entropy values than the original ($t(190) = -8.75, p < .001$) and F_2 -suppressed condition
 182 ($t(190) = 6.76, p < .001$), indicating reduced participant certainty in vowel classification.
 183 However, the differences between the original and the F_2 -suppressed condition were not
 184 significant ($t(190) = -1.99, p = .15$).

185 We further analyzed the responses using the package *mlogit* (Croissant, 2013) in the
 186 statistical platform *R* (R Core Team, 2017) to create multinomial logit models (see, e.g.,
 187 Maddox *et al.*, 2002; Nearey, 1990, 1997, for analyses of multinomial data). The (random
 188 slope and intercept) models included the standardized F_1 and F_2 values, the condition
 189 (original, F_1 -suppressed, F_2 -suppressed), and the interaction between the condition and the
 190 frequency values as predictors. We were primarily interested in the effects of F_1 variation in
 191 the F_1 -suppressed condition, and the effects of F_2 variation in the F_2 -suppressed condition.

192 Figure 3 presents the effects F_1 value has on vowel identification. More positive coefficients
 193 indicate the response is favored by higher F_1 values and more negative coefficients mean the
 194 response is favored more by lower F_1 values. The original condition, indicated by circles
 195 connected by a solid line, varies in an expected manner. For example, low F_1 is indicated
 196 for /u/ and /i/, while higher F_1 values are noted in the cases of /ɑ/ and /æ/. The other
 197 two lines represent deviation interactions from the baseline original condition. Therefore, to
 198 obtain the total effect of F_1 variation in one of the two suppressed conditions, its value at
 199 each vowel is added to that of the original (solid line) condition.

200 The triangles connected by a dotted line represent the interaction term of vowel and F_1
 201 value for the F_1 -suppressed condition. The overall effect of F_1 in this condition is then the
 202 sum of the original and suppressed F_1 lines at each vowel. We see that suppressed F_1 line
 203 is roughly an attenuated mirror image of the original, indicating that the perceptual effects
 204 of F_1 variation are substantially weakened when energy is suppressed at the F_1 peak. The
 205 squares connected by a dotted line indicate the effects of F_2 suppression. The coefficient
 206 values are always nearer to zero than for suppressed F_1 . This shows that the effect of F_2
 207 suppression on F_1 -related vowel contrasts is smaller.

208 In Figure 4, which shows the coefficients for F_2 , circles connected by a solid line again
 209 show the original condition. Not surprisingly, more negative F_2 coefficients are noted for back
 210 vowels and more positive F_2 coefficients for front vowels. The effects of formant suppression
 211 are generally quite modest and surprisingly parallel. They tend to slightly oppose the trends
 212 in the solid line (with the notable exception of /i/ where the F_2 suppression actually enhances
 213 the original effect quite noticeably). The general trend indicates the effects of F_2 variation is

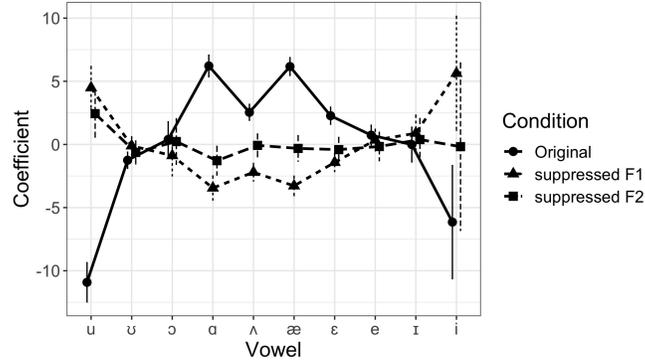


FIG. 3. Multinomial logit model coefficients per condition for F_1 in Experiment 1. Vertical lines indicate one standard error.

214 weaker overall in both suppressed conditions. Moreover, there is remarkably little difference
 215 in vowel identification effects with F_2 variation when F_1 (a lower formant) is suppressed in
 216 comparison to the suppression of F_2 .

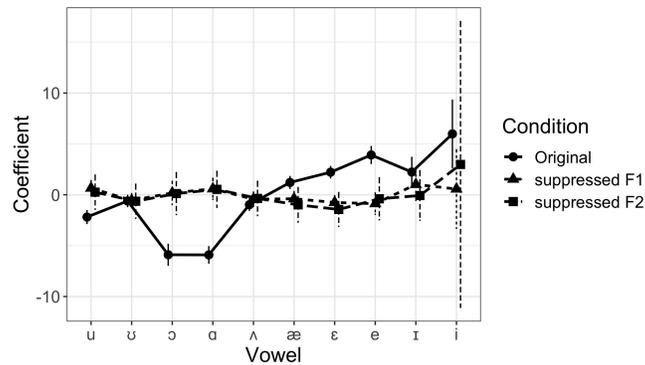


FIG. 4. Multinomial logit model coefficients per condition for F_2 in Experiment 1. Vertical lines indicate one standard error.

217 **C. Discussion**

218 The results of Experiment 1 show that response patterns to F_1 - and F_2 -suppressed vowels
219 are similar to responses to the original full-formant vowels. Moreover, distinct classifications
220 of vowels are observed along the suppressed formant axis even when the frequency of the
221 non-suppressed formant is nearly constant; that is, the classification changes even when
222 it was the suppressed formant that changed frequency. These patterns indicate that the
223 information lost by suppressing a formant peak can largely be recovered or replaced by
224 some other source, supporting the hypothesis that listeners effectively use other cues from
225 the overall spectral shape instead.

226 However, suppressing a formant does have consequences on vowel perception, as can be
227 seen by looking at the distribution of participant responses. Participants agree less how a
228 certain vowel should be classified when the first formant is suppressed. We take this reduction
229 in participant agreement as an indicator of uncertainty or loss of information. Examining
230 how participant responses vary as F_1 and F_2 change further supports this notion. We see
231 expected response patterns in the control condition, as F_1 variation distinguishes between
232 high and low vowels, and F_2 variation distinguishes between front and back vowels. When
233 F_1 is suppressed, F_1 variation has a smaller effect on vowel identification in comparison to
234 the original condition. Suppressing F_2 has little effect on participant responses.

235 III. EXPERIMENT 2

236 A. Method

237 The method of the second experiment was the same as in Experiment 1, except for the
 238 following changes: 13 native speakers of Western Canadian English (18 – 27 years; $M =$
 239 21.16; $SD = 2.90$; 2 males, 11 females) were recruited from the University of Alberta in Ed-
 240 monton, Canada. These participants also completed a university phonetics course enabling
 241 them to respond using IPA vowel symbols. The stimuli were presented using a computer
 242 workstation equipped with Realtek High Definition Audio (integrated into an OptiPlex320
 243 motherboard) over MB Quart QP 805 DEMO headphones. An image of the English lan-
 244 guage vowel quadrilateral was presented on a computer monitor, and the participants made
 245 their selection by clicking on a button that marked each vowel with an IPA symbol and an
 246 orthographic representation of an /hVd/ word. Finally, the three separate blocks of stimuli
 247 were always presented in the same order (original, F_1 -suppressed, F_2 -suppressed), emulating
 248 the procedure in [Ito *et al.* \(2001\)](#).

249 B. Results

250 Figure 5 shows results similar to those recorded in Experiment 1. Stimuli are rarely
 251 classified as /i/ and /ɪ/. Importantly, we again note that different vowel responses are
 252 reliably given along the suppressed F_1 peak (e.g., /æ/, /ʌ/, and /u/ in Figure 5b), and
 253 suppressed F_2 peak (e.g., /æ/ and /ɑ/ in Figure 5c), much as in Experiment 1.

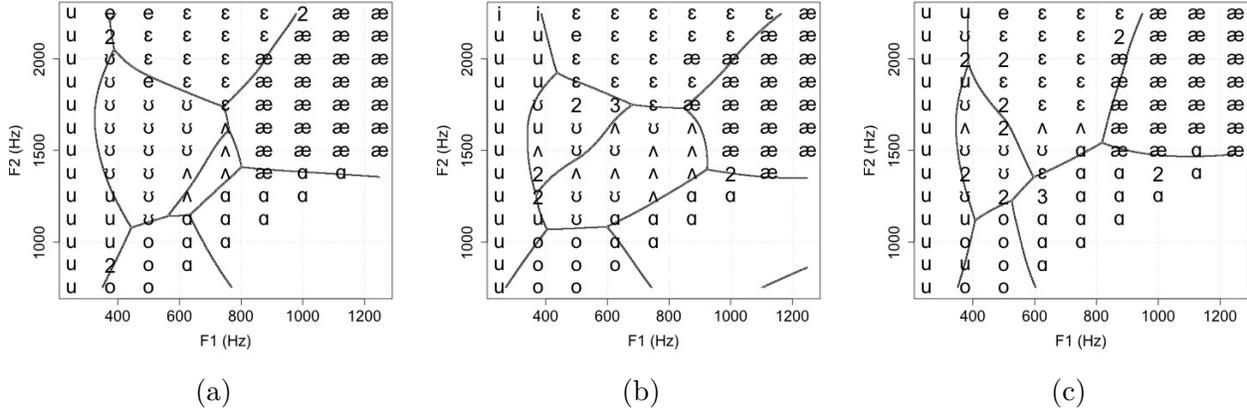


FIG. 5. Phoneme boundaries and modal responses for the (a) original synthesized vowels, (b) vowels with F_1 suppressed, and (c) vowels with F_2 suppressed in Experiment 2. The number 2 is used when two responses tied, and more rarely 3 when 3 responses tied.

254 However, Shannon entropy values were again different in the three conditions ($F(2, 190) =$
 255 $31.16, p < .001$). Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction indicate that the entropy
 256 of responses in the original condition is lower than in both the F_1 -suppressed ($t(190) =$
 257 $-7.73, p < .001$) and F_2 -suppressed condition ($t(190) = -5.26, p < .001$). Responses to
 258 F_1 -suppressed vowels had slightly higher entropy than responses to F_2 -suppressed vowels
 259 ($t(190) = 2.47, p = .04$).

260 Multinomial logit models were numerically unstable for the full range of vowels. There-
 261 fore, we collapsed the relatively rarely selected vowel categories /i/ and /ɪ/ into a single
 262 category. The effect of F_1 on vowel identification (Figure 6) shows similar patterns to those
 263 of Experiment 1: suppressing F_1 attenuates the effect of F_1 variation on vowel identification,
 264 while suppressing F_2 again had a smaller effect on the influence F_1 variation has on vowel
 265 identification.

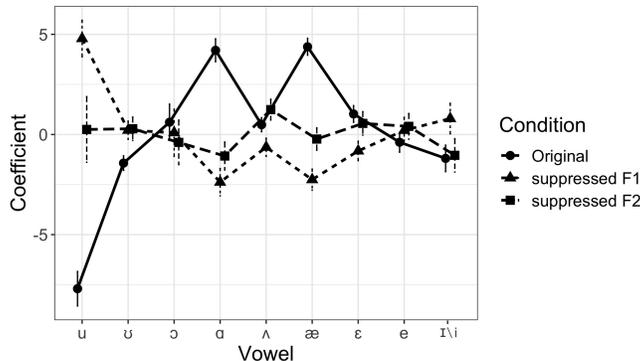


FIG. 6. Multinomial logit model coefficients per condition for F_1 in Experiment 2. Vertical lines indicate one standard error. The category on the far right combines responses to /i/ and /ɪ/.

266 In Figure 7, which shows the coefficients for F_2 , we also see a trend similar to Experiment
 267 1 for the original vowels (circles). As there, suppressing F_1 barely has any effect, and the
 268 coefficients for this condition (triangles) are all close to 0. However, we now see that sup-
 269 pressing F_2 creates the same kind of attenuated mirror image pattern shown in Experiments
 270 1 and 2 for the suppressed F_1 condition: The perceptual effects of F_2 are weakened when F_2
 271 formant peak is attenuated in Experiment 2.

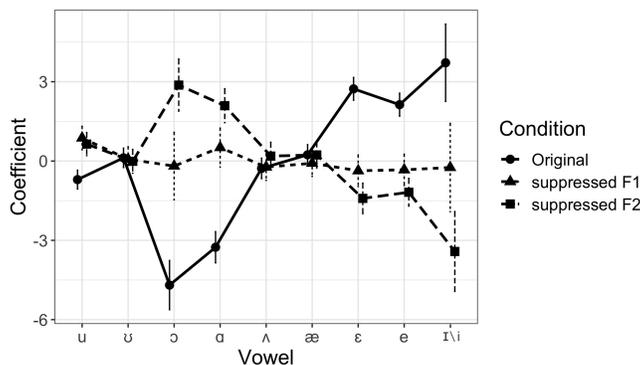


FIG. 7. Multinomial logit model coefficients per condition for F_2 in Experiment 2. Vertical lines indicate one standard error. The category on the far right combines responses to /i/ and /ɪ/.

272 C. Discussion

273 The results of Experiment 2 for the most part replicate the findings from Experiment 1,
274 and the basic findings have now been confirmed in two dialects of English and with either
275 fixed or randomized block order. The sole inconsistency between the experiments is the
276 effect of suppressing F_2 , which had little effect in Experiment 1. In Experiment 2, however,
277 suppressing F_2 increased response entropy and affected how participant responses vary as
278 F_2 changes. This may be due to dialect differences. Another cause may also be block order.
279 F_2 -suppressed vowels were always presented last in Experiment 2, when the participants
280 could have been fatigued by the session and responded with reduced attention.

281 IV. EXPERIMENT 3

282 Listening to vowels that have suppressed formant peaks may be easier if stimulus manip-
283 ulation is consistent within blocks. The goal of the third experiment was to test whether
284 identifying vowels with suppressed formants when they are presented in the same block with
285 the original synthesized vowels impedes participants' ability to accommodate the missing
286 information by relying on other aspects of the entire spectrum.

287 A. Method

288 A new group of thirteen native speakers of Western Canadian English (18 – 35 years;
289 $M = 21.62$; $SD = 4.34$; 2 male, 10 female, one participant did not wish to disclose gender
290 information) participated in the third experiment. All participants were recruited from

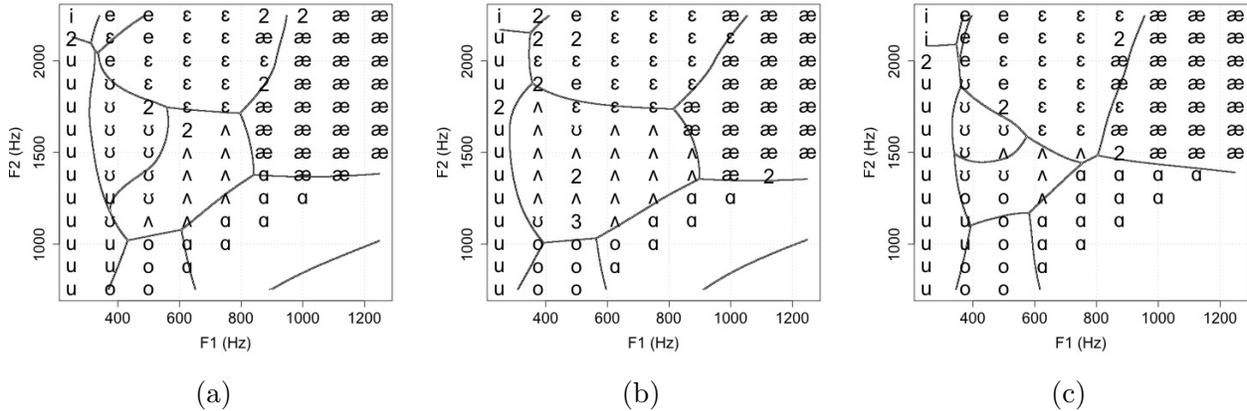


FIG. 8. Phoneme boundaries and modal responses for the (a) original synthesized vowels, (b) vowels with F_1 suppressed, and (c) vowels with F_2 suppressed in Experiment 3. The number 2 is used when two responses tied.

291 the University of Alberta following the same guidelines as in the previous experiments.
 292 The same stimuli and the procedure as in Experiment 2 were used, except that the three
 293 separate blocks, each containing a single condition (original, F_1 -suppressed, F_2 -suppressed),
 294 were replaced by three blocks each containing an equal number of randomly selected vowels
 295 from each of the three conditions (the blocks were balanced). In other words, the experiment
 296 switched among the three stimuli types from trial to trial.

297 **B. Results**

298 Contour plots of participant responses in Experiment 3 (Figure 8) resemble those of
 299 Experiment 1 and 2. The distribution of responses between conditions is similar, and the
 300 differences in responses persist along the suppressed formant axis (e.g., / ϵ / and / \ae / for
 301 F_1 -suppressed, and / ϵ / and / α / for F_2 -suppressed).

302 Shannon entropy values were again different between conditions ($F(2, 190) = 22.27$, $p <$
 303 $.01$): responses in the control condition had lower entropy than responses in both the F_1 -
 304 suppressed ($t(190) = -6.63$, $p < .001$) and the F_2 -suppressed condition ($t(190) = -3.98$,
 305 $p < .001$), while responses in the F_1 -suppressed condition had slightly higher entropy than
 306 responses in the F_2 -suppressed condition ($t(190) = 2.65$, $p = .03$).

307 We also ran multinomial logit models for responses collected in Experiment 3. Although
 308 the magnitudes of the effects are somewhat smaller, the coefficient patterns for F_1 are similar
 309 overall to those from Experiment 1. Suppressing F_1 led to reduction of F_1 coefficients,
 310 indicating its limited importance in vowel selection (Figure 9). One noticeable difference
 311 between Experiment 1 and Experiment 3 are the smaller coefficients for vowel /i/.

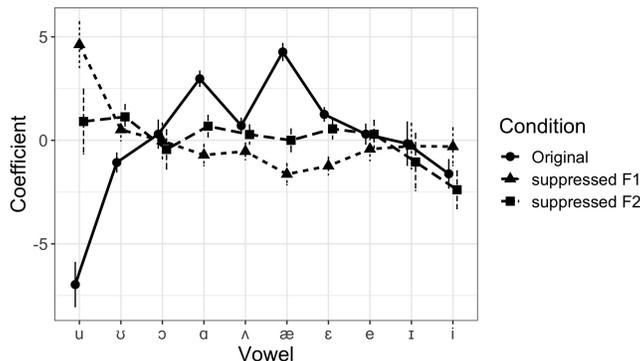


FIG. 9. Multinomial logit model coefficients per condition for F_1 in Experiment 3. Vertical lines indicate one standard error.

312 Considering F_2 coefficients, F_2 peak suppression had a more noticeable effect on F_2 co-
 313 efficient change in Experiment 3 than in Experiment 1, although these effects were still not
 314 particularly large. The dashed line connecting squares in Figure 10 (F_2 -suppressed) appears
 315 to be an attenuated mirror image of the solid line (original vowels), particularly in vowels

316 such as /u/, /o/, /ɪ/, and /i/. Not surprisingly, suppressing F_1 had little impact on F_2
 317 coefficients, except in the case of /i/ where we note a small effect.

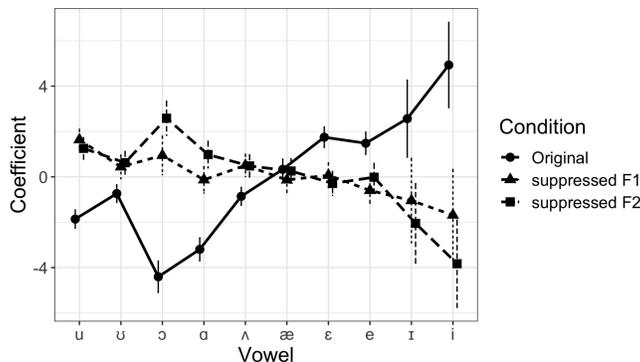


FIG. 10. Multinomial logit model coefficients per condition for F_2 in Experiment 3. Vertical lines indicate one standard error.

318 C. Discussion

319 The contour plots of condition-randomized Experiment 3 for the most part mimic those
 320 obtained in the condition-blocked Experiment 2, indicating that the participants' are able
 321 to deal with variable missing formant information on a stimulus-by-stimulus basis; that is,
 322 it does not require a stable change in the stimuli over longer periods of time as in the case
 323 when the conditions are placed in separate blocks.

324 Taken together, results from Experiments 1-3 all point to the same conclusions. On
 325 the one hand, suppressing either F_1 or F_2 does not have an overwhelming effect on vowel
 326 identification — contour maps of responses resemble the original pattern; that is, suppressing
 327 a formant does not consistently lead to perception of a different vowel for any stimulus.
 328 Furthermore, differences in vowel identification along the axis of the suppressed formant

329 peak are noted for both F_1 -suppressed and F_2 -suppressed stimuli, indicating that the missing
330 local information can to an extent be replaced or recovered from the rest of the spectrum.
331 On the other hand, quantitative analyses show significantly lower agreement in participant
332 responses if a formant is suppressed.

333 V. EXPERIMENT 4

334 Although the uncertainty in which vowel to select as a response increases when a formant
335 is suppressed, we still noticed that there is considerable participant disagreement in responses
336 to original stimuli as well. Some of the stimuli were probably unusual and difficult for
337 participants to place as they are relatively remote from typical spectral patterns of any
338 English vowel, given that they were synthetic monophthongs. Additionally, vowels /ɪ/ and
339 /i/ were rarely chosen by listeners. In Experiment 4 we wanted to present our participants
340 with a set of stimuli with formant patterns based on averages measured in a dialect of
341 Canadian English and to investigate how attenuating formants of such stimuli influences
342 their identification.

343 A. Method

344 A new group of 11 native speakers of Western Canadian English (19 – 33 years; $M =$
345 22.45; $SD = 3.77$; 3 male, 8 female) participated in the fourth experiment. All participants
346 were recruited from the University of Alberta following the same guidelines as in the previous
347 experiments.

348 We synthesized 10 Canadian English vowels as described by Nearey and Assmann (1986)
 349 in terms of both formant frequency values and formant frequency changes (see also Hillen-
 350 brand *et al.*, 1995). This did not alter the choice set used in Experiments 1-3 as response
 351 options, except that we decided to mark /e/ as /eɪ/ and /o/ as /oʊ/ in the response choices
 352 to better represent the formant value change in these now-diphthongs. All the formant fre-
 353 quencies in Nearey and Assmann (1986) were scaled down by 1.06 to make the voice more
 354 male as original values were averages of both male and female speakers. We then used the
 355 formula from Nearey (1989) to calculate F_3 values. The formula for front vowels is given in
 356 Equation 2a and the formula for the back vowels is given in Equation 2b. These formulae
 357 were applied separately to the target values of the first and last frames of the vowel. The
 358 vowels were synthesized at each 8 ms frame with 4 ms overlap using the same procedure as
 359 Ito *et al.* (2001) to suppress either F_1 or F_2 . Each window was combined with an overlap
 360 add procedure after applying a 8-ms Hamming window (again with 4-ms overlap). In a few
 361 frames the procedure was unable to locate two harmonics that met the criteria for removing
 362 a formant peak and those frames were created as repetitions of the previous frame. The
 363 duration of all synthesized vowels was 400 ms.

$$\text{front}F_3 = 0.522F_1 + 1.197F_2 + 57 \quad (2a)$$

$$\text{back}F_3 = 0.7866F_1 - 0.365F_2 + 2341 \quad (2b)$$

364 A total of 30 stimuli (10 stimuli in each of the three conditions) were created in this
 365 manner. The stimuli and a table specifying their formant values are included in the sup-
 366plementary material. Note that all stimuli were now in the realm of realistic vowel formant

367 values for a listener of Western Canadian English, and that they all included varying degrees
 368 of F_1 and/or F_2 change, as well as correlated F_3 change. The same procedure as in Exper-
 369 iment 3 was used except for the number of unique stimuli. Since only 10 vowels in three
 370 conditions were synthesized in Experiment 4 (30 different stimuli), each of the vowels was
 371 presented to the participants three times for a total of 90 stimulus presentations excluding
 372 practice.

373 B. Results

374 Cochran-Mantel-Haenszel tests (presented in supplementary materials along with confu-
 375 sion matrices) show highly significant effects of formant suppression in Experiment 4. For
 376 brevity, we focus on general patterns of change (or lack thereof) in response patterns associ-
 377 ated with changes in condition. Responses to /ɑ/, /æ/, /ʌ/ are for the most part unaffected,
 378 while responses to /i/, /ʊ/, and /u/ are only slightly affected by formant peak attenuation.

379 The bulk of the change in vowel identification occurs in four base stimuli due to sup-
 380 pression of F_1 . For the vowel stimulus /ɪ/, the responses are identical in the original and
 381 F_2 -suppressed condition: two thirds of the responses are correct, there are 24.24% /ε/, and
 382 9.09% /eɪ/ responses. When F_1 is suppressed, however, only 39.39% of the responses are
 383 correct, 24.24% are /ε/, and other responses are spread across most other remaining options.
 384 In the case of vowel /ε/, 84.85% of the responses are accurate in the original and 87.88% in
 385 the F_2 -suppressed condition. In the F_1 -suppressed condition, however, only 33.33% of the
 386 responses are correct, with /ɪ/ receiving 33.33% and /æ/ receiving 21.21% of the responses.
 387 Virtually all responses to the /ou/ vowel are correct except when F_1 is attenuated, where

388 only 57.58% are correct and a third of the responses becomes /ɑ/. The most notable differ-
 389 ence, however, occurs for the diphthong /eɪ/. Again virtually all responses to this vowel in
 390 the original and the F_2 -suppressed condition are correct, but in the F_1 -suppressed condition
 391 only one is correct, 72.73% of responses become /i/ instead, and others are spread across
 392 remaining options.

393 C. Discussion

394 The results of Experiment 4 yielded two important findings: first, we see that the lis-
 395 teners mostly agree on which vowel they are presented with if its $F_1 \times F_2$ combination and
 396 formant change fit the ordinarily encountered values. In our previous experiments, such
 397 high agreement in responses, even to control stimuli, was rare.

398 Second, suppressing a formant may or may not lead to changes in perception, depending
 399 on the original vowel. Large changes were noted for vowels /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /eɪ/, and /oʊ/, but
 400 smaller changes were noted for /i/, /ʊ/, and /u/, and especially for /ɑ/, /æ/, and /ʌ/.
 401 At first glance, there are no vowel features exclusive to the vowels which were affected by
 402 the experimental manipulation of formants. However, if we take note that the changes
 403 in vowel identification were registered in the suppressed F_1 condition, a pattern emerges:
 404 according to [Nearey and Assmann \(1986\)](#), /ɪ/, /ɛ/, /eɪ/, and /oʊ/ have magnitudes of F_1
 405 change throughout their production larger than 100 Hz, while other vowels never reach an
 406 F_1 change of more than 50 Hz.

407 These results do show that information loss from attenuating a formant, when that for-
 408 mant is not changing appreciably, can be compensated for by using other information in the

409 signal. For many vowels, we recorded no changes despite suppressing F_1 or F_2 , and even in
410 those vowels where we did, listeners were still somewhat successful in responding correctly.
411 On the other hand, vowels with substantial movement in F_1 showed substantial information
412 loss when the F_1 peak is suppressed. By contrast, F_2 suppression has little effect even for
413 vowels like /eɪ/ and /oʊ/ that have substantial F2 movement. Indeed F_2 suppression has
414 very little effect in any of the four experiments reported here.

415 VI. GENERAL DISCUSSION

416 The dominant “formant hypothesis” of vowel identification was challenged by findings of
417 the study by Ito *et al.* (2001) in which suppressing formant peaks did not radically change
418 vowel identification. The authors instead argued in favor of the “whole-spectrum hypothesis”
419 in which the gross spectral shape is used as a cue by listeners when deciding which vowel
420 was heard. In the present paper, we attempted to replicate this finding in two dialects of
421 English, which both include more vowel categories than the Japanese vowel system. We
422 also subjected the data to detailed quantitative analyses, which yielded insights beyond
423 simply observing vowel plots. Finally, we also took a step towards assessing the usefulness
424 or reliability of the gross spectral shape when vowels are presented under more ecologically
425 valid circumstances.

426 Visual inspection of vowel plots in Experiments 1-3 leads to conclusions that at least
427 partly match those of Ito *et al.* (2001). It appears that suppressing F_1 or F_2 peak does
428 not prevent listeners from making vowel distinctions along that formant’s frequency axis.
429 In other words, suppressing a formant peak does not cause that formant to perceptually

430 “disappear” or be reassigned perceptually to the next preserved formant peak. Instead,
431 listeners appear to be able to either compensate for the missing formant with some other
432 spectral property or to estimate its frequency value using other available cues in the acoustic
433 signal.

434 Visual inspection may not reveal differences between experimental conditions that are
435 evident when quantitative analysis is performed. However, comparing the entropy of partic-
436 ipant responses showed that participants diverge more in their selection if the first formant
437 was suppressed. We take this lack of agreement as an indication of uncertainty of vowel
438 categorization. Similarly, varying F_1 in F_1 -suppressed stimuli has a smaller effect on vowel
439 selection than when the original unmodified vowels are presented. In Experiment 1, these
440 results did not extend to F_2 -suppressed vowels. However, in Experiments 2, although less
441 salient, and 3 these effects appear for F_2 -suppressed vowels as well.

442 These results point to two main conclusions. First, even when formant peaks are miss-
443 ing, listeners can use other cues to identify vowels in a way that does not deviate as much
444 as would be expected if information near formant peaks formed the sole basis for vowel
445 identification. Second, formants may still provide the most important cues, as they cannot
446 be suppressed and then fully and faithfully replaced with some other source. Neither the
447 “formant hypothesis” nor the “whole-spectrum hypothesis” fully correspond to these find-
448 ings. We acknowledge that listeners do not rely solely on frequencies near peak formant
449 amplitudes and that they can use additional information about general spectral shape in
450 choosing among vowel categories. However, loss of information near formant peaks often
451 distorts vowel perception considerably. Some of this may simply be because such local mod-

452 ifications distort part of the overall spectral shape. Nevertheless, there is good evidence in
453 the literature (see introduction) and in our experiments that high amplitude components
454 near formant peaks have greatest weight in perception in many circumstances.

455 In Experiment 4 we presented participants with synthesized vowels with changing for-
456 mants that better match vowels from actual speech (Hillenbrand *et al.*, 1995; Nearey and
457 Assmann, 1986), and the results were markedly different. Participant agreement was higher
458 in Experiment 4 as they were presented with vowels that (1) had formant frequency val-
459 ues closer to their dialect, (2) some degree of formant frequency change rather than steady
460 formant frequencies, and (3) multiple presentations of the same stimulus.

461 Crucially, formant suppression barely affected certain vowels, whereas it lead to a reliable
462 change in responses in others. We suggested that the source of this distinction could be in
463 the extent F_1 changes throughout the vowel, with larger vowel-specific patterns of change
464 being associated with difficulty in recognizing the vowel if F_1 is suppressed: vowels for which
465 the listener needs to account for the extent and speed of change in formant frequency are
466 affected by disruption caused by the formant peak being flattened (this may mean that a
467 suppressed F_2 is easier to estimate when dynamic formant values are used as well; see our
468 supplementary materials for an analysis predicting missing formant frequency from other
469 nearby formants showing better results for F_2). If this claim is true, then the gross spectral
470 shape (which will retain some evidence of the suppressed formant's movement and changes
471 in, e.g., the levels of the upper spectral components) is insufficient to fully replace or recover
472 formant information, at least for the range of stimuli used in our experiments. In other
473 words, participants can use the gross spectral shape to remedy losses in the most important

474 regions (formants), but only if the gross spectral shape of the vowel (formants of course
475 included) is steady (see also [Kiefte and Kluender, 2005](#), where spectral tilt effects were
476 greatly diminished in diphthongal stimuli).

477 These findings come from experiments which tested University students that completed
478 an introductory course of phonetics. We cannot guarantee that these results would not
479 differ somewhat if participants were naive listeners. However, we wanted to avoid artifacts
480 associated with orthographic ambiguity of English vowels ([Assmann *et al.*, 1982](#)) and we
481 have no reason to believe that vowel perception in listeners with relatively modest training
482 in the use of phonetic symbols is different from the general population.

483 In the present study, we regarded two extreme positions on the role formant peaks (ver-
484 sus the gross spectral shape) have in vowel perception. Other approaches may assume that
485 slightly more than just formant peaks, i.e., additional yet still local features such as “shoul-
486 ders” of the formant peaks may be relevant and guide vowel identification. This notion
487 merits investigation, but was not the focus of the current study. However, we include a
488 “peak-and-shoulder” analysis in the supplementary material.

489 Finally, it is only fair to note that in Experiment 4 we artificially suppressed formant
490 peaks as they shifted along the formant axis, not particular frequency bands. Hearing loss
491 or background noise usually cover a particular frequency band, meaning that a formant peak
492 may be obscured only for a portion of the vowel signal, not its entirety. Therefore, future
493 studies could investigate vowel identification using stimuli that have an attenuated stop
494 band that partly coincides with the changing formant values. This kind of manipulation is
495 only one way to increase ecological validity of the experiments. Experiment 4 introduces

496 synthesized stimuli that are clearly at least a step closer to naturally spoken English vowels
497 than are pure steady-state stimuli. However, more could be done to better represent everyday
498 listening/speech perception conditions and we see three avenues to explore. The first is to
499 investigate synthesized vowel identification in carrier or precursor sentences (see also [Kiefte](#)
500 [and Kluender, 2008](#)) with varying degrees of formant/spectral shape attenuation. The second
501 option is to present manipulated vowels in background noise or with some other kind of
502 interference, matching the noisy environment in which we usually listen to speech. The
503 third is to present listeners with actual vowel recordings (made in or out of word/sentence
504 context), where some would have attenuated formant peaks or noise bands coinciding with
505 formant peak frequency.

506 ¹For brevity, we will use the term “gross spectral shape” to not only mean very long range spectral properties
507 like spectral balance or overall tilt across the spectrum, but also to include possibly more focused local
508 features such as the amplitudes of those formant peaks that are not suppressed in the stimulus. That is,
509 from the perspective of a suppressed formant peak, “gross spectral shape” will be a shorthand for any
510 aspect of the spectrum other than the frequency (and amplitude) of the formant peak itself.

511 ²See Supplementary materials at [URL will be inserted by AIP] for additional analyses and figures.

512

513 Assmann, P. F., Nearey, T. M., and Hogan, J. T. (1982). “Vowel identification: Ortho-
514 graphic, perceptual, and acoustic aspects,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of Amer-*
515 *ica* **71**(4), 975–989.

516 Bladon, A. (1982). “Arguments against formants in the auditory representation of speech,”
517 *The representation of speech in the peripheral auditory system* 95–102.

- 518 Bladon, A. (1983). “Two-formant models of vowel perception: Shortcomings and enhance-
519 ment,” *Speech Communication* **2**(4), 305–313.
- 520 Bladon, R., and Lindblom, B. (1981). “Modeling the judgment of vowel quality differences,”
521 *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **69**(5), 1414–1422.
- 522 Chistovich, L. A., and Lublinskaya, V. V. (1979). “The ‘center of gravity’ effect in vowel
523 spectra and critical distance between the formants: Psychoacoustical study of the percep-
524 tion of vowel-like stimuli,” *Hearing research* **1**(3), 185–195.
- 525 Croissant, Y. (2013). *mlogit: multinomial logit model*, [https://CRAN.R-project.org/](https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=mlogit)
526 [package=mlogit](https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=mlogit), r package version 0.2-4.
- 527 Delattre, P., Liberman, A. M., Cooper, F. S., and Gerstman, L. J. (1952). “An experimental
528 study of the acoustic determinants of vowel color; observations on one-and two-formant
529 vowels synthesized from spectrographic patterns,” *Word* **8**(3), 195–210.
- 530 Fox, R. A., Jacewicz, E., and Chang, C.-Y. (2010). “Auditory spectral integration in the per-
531 ception of diphthongal vowels,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **128**(4),
532 2070–2074.
- 533 Glasberg, B. R., and Moore, B. C. (1990). “Derivation of auditory filter shapes from
534 notched-noise data,” *Hearing Research* **47**(1-2), 103–138.
- 535 Hillenbrand, J., Getty, L. A., Clark, M. J., and Wheeler, K. (1995). “Acoustic characteristics
536 of american english vowels,” *The Journal of the Acoustical society of America* **97**(5), 3099–
537 3111.
- 538 Hillenbrand, J. M., and Houde, R. A. (2003). “A narrow band pattern-matching model of
539 vowel perception,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **113**(2), 1044–1055.

- 540 Hillenbrand, J. M., Houde, R. A., and Gayvert, R. T. (2006). “Speech perception based on
541 spectral peaks versus spectral shape,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*
542 **119**(6), 4041–4054.
- 543 Hillenbrand, J. M., and Nearey, T. M. (1999). “Identification of resynthe-
544 sized/hvd/utterances: Effects of formant contour,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society*
545 *of America* **105**(6), 3509–3523.
- 546 Ito, M., Tsuchida, J., and Yano, M. (2001). “On the effectiveness of whole spectral shape for
547 vowel perception,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **110**(2), 1141–1149.
- 548 Kakusho, O., Hirato, H., Kato, K., and Kobayashi, T. (1971). “Some experiments of vowel
549 perception by harmonic synthesizer,” *Acta Acustica united with Acustica* **24**(4), 179–190.
- 550 Kiefte, M., Enright, T., and Marshall, L. (2010). “The role of formant amplitude in the
551 perception of /i/and/u,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **127**(4), 2611–
552 2621.
- 553 Kiefte, M., and Kluender, K. R. (2005). “The relative importance of spectral tilt in monoph-
554 thongs and diphthongs,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **117**(3), 1395–
555 1404.
- 556 Kiefte, M., and Kluender, K. R. (2008). “Absorption of reliable spectral characteristics in
557 auditory perception,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **123**(1), 366–376.
- 558 Kiefte, M., Nearey, T. M., and Assmann, P. F. (2013). “Vowel perception in normal speak-
559 ers,” *Handbook of vowels and vowel disorders* **2**, 160.
- 560 Klatt, D. (1982). “Prediction of perceived phonetic distance from critical-band spectra: A
561 first step,” in *Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing, IEEE International Conference on*

562 *ICASSP'82*, IEEE, Vol. 7, pp. 1278–1281.

563 Klatt, D. H. (1980). “Software for a cascade/parallel formant synthesizer,” the Journal of
564 the Acoustical Society of America **67**(3), 971–995.

565 Maddox, W. T., Molis, M. R., and Diehl, R. L. (2002). “Generalizing a neuropsycholog-
566 ical model of visual categorization to auditory categorization of vowels,” *Perception &*
567 *Psychophysics* **64**(4), 584–597.

568 Molis, M. R. (2005). “Evaluating models of vowel perception,” *The Journal of the Acoustical*
569 *Society of America* **111**(2), 2433–2434.

570 Nearey, T. M. (1989). “Static, dynamic, and relational properties in vowel perception,” *The*
571 *Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **85**(5), 2088–2113.

572 Nearey, T. M. (1990). “The segment as a unit of speech perception.,” *Journal of Phonetics*
573 .

574 Nearey, T. M. (1997). “Speech perception as pattern recognition,” *The Journal of the*
575 *Acoustical Society of America* **101**(6), 3241–3254.

576 Nearey, T. M., and Assmann, P. F. (1986). “Modeling the role of inherent spectral change in
577 vowel identification,” *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America* **80**(5), 1297–1308.

578 Peterson, G. E., and Barney, H. L. (1952). “Control methods used in a study of the vowels,”
579 *The Journal of the acoustical society of America* **24**(2), 175–184.

580 R Core Team (2017). *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*, R Foun-
581 dation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria, <https://www.R-project.org/>.

582 Rosner, B. S., and Pickering, J. B. (1994). *Vowel perception and production*. (Oxford Uni-
583 versity Press).

584 Shannon, C. E. (1948). “A mathematical theory of communication,” Bell System Technical
585 Journal **27**, 379–423.

586 Yu, D., and Deng, L. (2014). *Automatic Speech Recognition: A Deep Learning Approach*
587 (Springer).

588 Zahorian, S. A., and Jagharghi, A. J. (1993). “Spectral-shape features versus formants as
589 acoustic correlates for vowels,” The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America **94**(4),
590 1966–1982.