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1	Abstract: This paper presents a bi-view (front and side) audiovisual
2	Lombard speech corpus, which is freely available for download. It con-
3	tains 5,400 utterances $(2,700$ Lombard and 2,700 plain reference utter-
4	ances), produced by 54 talkers, with each utterance in the dataset fol-
5	lowing the same sentence format as the audiovisual Grid corpus (Cooke
6	et al., 2006). Analysis of this dataset confirms previous research, show-
7	ing prominent acoustic, phonetic, and articulatory speech modifications
8	in Lombard speech. In addition, gender differences are observed in the
9	size of Lombard effect. Specifically, female talkers exhibit a greater
10	increase in estimated vowel duration and a greater reduction in F2 fre-
11	quency.

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12 **1. Introduction**

The Lombard effect (Lombard, 1911) is a reflexive adaptation to speech production which 13 occurs when communicating in adverse conditions. Lombard speech is characterized by 14 a collection of acoustic and phonetic modifications, including an increase in fundamental 15 frequency (F0) and signal energy, a shift in the centre frequency of the first and second 16 formants (F1 and F2), a tilt of the speech spectrum, and an increase in vowel duration 17 (Junqua, 1993; Lu and Cooke, 2008). In the visual domain, greater face and head motion 18 (Vatikiotis-Bateson et al., 2007) and a greater global change in the movement of the jaw and 19 lips (Garnier et al., 2010) have been reported. When presented at the same signal-to-noise 20 ratio, Lombard speech (uttered in the presence of noise) is usually more intelligible than 21 plain speech (uttered in quiet) (Cooke et al., 2014). 22

Although studies of Lombard speech have been consistent in their general characteri-23 sation of the effect, there have been widely varying reports of even the most basic character-24 istics, e.g., reports of the level increase when speaking in 80 dB of noise vary (Pittman and 25 Wiley, 2001; Summers et al., 1988; Tartter et al., 1993). Some of this variability is due to 26 the manner in which individual speakers respond to noise. However, previous studies have 27 typically used small numbers of speakers, making it hard to get a good characterisation of 28 these across-speaker effects. Pooling results across studies is not typically valid because the 29 Lombard reflex is sensitive to the characteristics of the communication environment, includ-30 ing noise type (Lu and Cooke, 2008), the noise immersion method (Garnier et al., 2010), 31 noise level (Simko et al., 2016), communication task (Garnier et al., 2010), and communi-32

cation modality (Fitzpatrick et al., 2015), variables which typically vary from one study to
the next.

This paper aims to provide a more detailed characterisation of the across-speaker variation in the Lombard effect by collecting and analysing a corpus of plain and Lombard speech from a total of 54 speakers uttering a total of 5400 utterances. The amount of data collected significantly exceeds that used in previous controlled Lombard studies. It is also the first collection that has been designed with precise video analysis in mind. In particular, the collection uses head-mounted cameras that allow highly accurate measurement of the visual Lombard effect from both a frontal and profile view.

The data are being made publicly available for the benefit of other researchers. In 42 particular, the dataset is an extension of the audio-visual Grid corpus (Cooke et al., 2006) 43 that has been widely used in the study of speech intelligibility in noise and the perception 44 of simultaneous speech signals. The data are also suitable for development of novel speech 45 processing algorithms. In particular, the Lombard effect has major implications for the de-46 sign of automatic audio/audiovisual speech recognition systems. Such systems are typically 47 trained on clean speech datasets or on datasets to which noise has been artificially added. 48 The performance of these systems can then deteriorate under real Lombard conditions that 49 have not been observed during training. Although there are audio-video speech datasets 50 that have been recorded in noise, e.g., AVICAR (Lee et al., 2004), these datasets lack con-51 trolled non-Lombard reference signals against which to make accurate measurements of the 52 adaptation. 53

The paper first describes the design and collection of the new dataset. It then presents 54 an initial analysis of the acoustic, phonetic, and articulatory speech modifications under 55 Lombard conditions across the dataset talkers. Results of this analysis are compared to 56 previous research conducted on a smaller numbers of talkers (Jungua, 1993; Jungua et al., 57 1999; Lu and Cooke, 2008; Pisoni et al., 1985; Vatikiotis-Bateson et al., 2007), in which 58 clear modifications in Lombard speech were reported. Finally, the larger number of speakers 59 also enables us to report on the gender differences for both the audio and visual aspects of 60 Lombard speech. 61

62 **2.** Corpus

63 2.1 Sentence design

The sentences in the corpus conform to the Grid corpus syntax (Cooke et al., 2006). These 64 are six-word sentences, for example 'bin blue at A 2 please', with the following structure: 65 <command: bin, lay, place, set> <color: blue, green, red, white> <preposition: at, by, 66 in, with> <letter: A-Z (excluding W)> <digit: 0-9> <adverb: again, now, please, soon>. 67 Three of these words – color, letter, and digit – are considered to be "keywords," while the 68 remaining words are "fillers." The original Grid corpus was collected from 34 talkers reading 69 34,000 sentences selected from 64,000 possible combinations of the Grid word sequences. For 70 the new Lombard Grid corpus, 55 talkers¹ uttered sets of sentences from the pool of the 71 remaining 30,000 Grid word-sequence combinations (i.e., those that were not used in the 72 original Grid corpus). Each talker was assigned to a unique set of 50 sentences featuring 73 a uniform representation of Grid keywords, including twelve to fourteen instances of each 74

⁷⁵ color, two instances of each letter, five instances of each digit, and representative coverage
⁷⁶ of the Grid filler words².

Following other studies, e.g. Lu and Cooke (2008), speech-shaped noise (SSN) was 77 used to induce the Lombard effect. In this study, SSN was created by filtering white noise 78 to match the long-term spectrum of a speech corpus that includes 1,000 Grid sentences of a 79 selected talker (ID = 1). Linear predictive coding was used to obtain the spectral envelope of 80 the speech corpus. In previous Lombard-related studies, noise has been presented to talkers 81 at a variety of levels, including 80 dB SPL (Summers et al., 1988), 85 dB SPL (Junqua, 82 1993), and 89-96 dB SPL (Lu and Cooke, 2008). For the current study, 80 dB SPL was 83 chosen as the noise level: this is loud enough to induce a robust Lombard effect while still 84 being at a level low enough to avoid hearing damage or undue vocal/auditory fatigue. 85

86 2.2 Talker population

The talkers who participated in the experiment consisted of 55 native speakers of British English (both male and female), all of whom were staff or students at the University of Sheffield in the 18 – 30 year age range. The hearing of the talkers was screened using a puretone audiometric test. All participants were paid for their contributions; ethics permission was obtained by following the University of Sheffield Ethics Procedure.

92 2.3 Collection

The recordings were made in a single-walled acoustically-isolated booth (Industrial Acoustics Company [IAC]). The speech material was collected at a sampling rate of 48,000 Hz and a resolution of 24 bits using a C414 B-XLS AKG microphone placed 30 cm in front of the talkers and digitized using the MOTU 8-pre 16×12 Audio Interface. The talkers wore Sennheiser HD 380 pro headphones. The SSN was mixed with the audio signal of their speech to provide self-monitoring feedback at a level that compensated for headphone attenuation.

The level of playback of the talkers' speech was carefully adjusted so that their per-99 ception of talking with and without the headphones would be comparable. The process 100 was subjectively measured; the talker wore one headphone over one ear while the other ear 101 remained uncovered. The talker was requested to speak while the playback of his/her voice 102 was presented at gradually increasing levels via the headphones. The talker was asked to 103 indicate the level at which balanced auditory feedback was received across his/her left and 104 right ears. This level (which had relatively little variation amongst participants) was then 105 recorded and used to present the self-monitoring feedback in the headphones. The noise 106 presentation level was adjusted to 80 dB SPL using a Cirrus Optimus Yellow Class 2 sound 107 level meter. In this process, a MATLAB routine automatically tuned the level of the Lom-108 bard inducing noise until a reading of 80 dB was achieved. This level was then recorded and 109 fed to a MATLAB routine that controlled the presentation of the SSN during the recording 110 experiment. 111

In addition to the audio recordings, simultaneous audiovisual recordings were made using a custom-made helmet rig system that was worn by the talkers. The system consisted of a lightweight bicycle helmet on which were mounted two Logitech HD Pro USB Webcam C920s connected using 8-inch GoPole Arm Helmet Extension armatures. This allowed one camera to be positioned directly in front of the face and one at a fixed position to the side of the face. Head-mounting ensured that the viewing angles remained fixed regardless of head motion thus allowing for more precise comparison of Lombard and non-Lombard visual speech. Four light sources were positioned so as to produce roughly uniform illumination across each talker's face; a plain white background was placed behind and at the right side of the talker's seat.

The audiovisual recordings from the webcams were collected onto two computers via 122 USB 2.0 interfaces. The audiovisual stream from the front webcam was collected at 480p 123 resolution (720 x 480), in full frame, at a variable frame rate fluctuating around 24 frames 124 per second (mean FPS = 23.93; mean bitrate = 2817.82 kb/s). The recording software 125 encoded the video stream using the built-in H.264 encoder and the audio stream using the 126 AAC encoder at a sampling rate of 44,100 Hz. The video stream from the side webcam was 127 collected at 480p (864 x 480) and in full frame at 30 FPS. The recording software encoded 128 the video stream using the WMV encoder and the audio stream using wmav2 at a sampling 129 rate of 48,000 Hz. 130

Each talker produced 100 utterances by reading his/her sentence list in both plain and Lombard conditions. The collection of the utterances in each condition was made in 5 blocks of 10 utterances. The plain and Lombard blocks were presented in an alternating order. Each block of 10 utterances was preceded by 5 'warm-up' utterances that were used to allow talkers to attune to the change in condition (i.e., from noise present to noise absent and vice versa). These initial utterances were discarded after recording. The Lombard-inducing noise was controlled by a computer (using a MATLAB routine as previously described) and
was present throughout the Lombard blocks and turned off during the non-Lombard blocks.

The talkers read the sentences to the researcher, who acted as a listener. Having 139 a listener was necessary because the Lombard effect is triggered both as an unconscious 140 reaction to noise and by the need to maintain intelligible communication in noise (Lu and 141 Cooke, 2008). The talkers sat inside a booth facing a screen, where the sentences were 142 presented; the listener sat outside the booth listening to the talkers' speech, presented at 60 143 dB SPL, via a pair of Panasonic RP HT225 headphones connected to the audio interface. The 144 presentation of the prompt sentences, as well as the listener's messages to each talker, were 145 both controlled by a MATLAB script. The talkers were instructed to speak at a normal pace 146 and in a natural style and were given 5 seconds to read each sentence. To aid this process, 147 the talkers were prompted by a progress bar on the screen with a duration of 5 seconds. If the 148 talker misread the prompt, then the listener presented the same sentence again. During the 149 Lombard blocks, the listener asked the talkers to repeat an utterance every 5 to 7 sentences 150 by indicating that she could not hear the talker. The purpose of this step was to maintain 151 the public Lombard loop, which is driven by communication needs (Lu and Cooke, 2008). 152

153 2.4 Post-processing

First, the audio and visual signals were temporally aligned. This was achieved automatically by comparing the high quality audio (i.e., as captured by the desk microphone) and the audio embedded in the front and profile video signals. Specifically, for each of the two video channels, a search was made for the temporal offset that maximised the correlation between
the high quality audio signals and the audio in the video channel.

Second, each utterance was automatically end-pointed (delimited in time). For each 159 session, an analysis of the speech energy envelope was employed to make an initial estimate 160 of the utterance and end times. The automatic end pointing was then reviewed by a human 161 annotator who corrected any gross end-pointing errors. The Kaldi toolkit (Povey et al., 2011) 162 was then used to automatically determine vowel boundaries and end-points. A typical GMM-163 HMM setup was employed to force-align the acoustic recordings to phonetic transcriptions of 164 the utterances. Training was performed using maximum likelihood linear transform (MLLT) 165 model adaptation and feature-space maximum likelihood linear regression (fMLLR) speaker-166 adaptive training³. 167

Finally, for each speaker, the 100 non-warm-up utterances were automatically ex-168 tracted from the continuous audio and video signals using an extraction tool based on the 169 FFMPEG⁴ framework. Prior to extraction, a 200 ms margin was added by the extraction 170 tool to the start and end times to capture the immediate context (i.e., so that pre-emptive 171 visual cues are preserved). The audio stream was downsampled to 16 kHz and the start 172 and end times were used to extract each utterance. The corresponding segments were also 173 extracted from the video sequences (using H.264 codec) by adjusting the timings to compen-174 sate for the computed audio-visual offsets. In cases where the subject spoke the utterance 175 multiple times (e.g. due to being asked to repeat or because of a reading error) the first 176 correct rendition of the utterance was extracted and the repeats were discarded. 177

178 3. Analysis of the Lombard Effect

Acoustic, phonetic, and articulatory parameters were extracted from the plain and Lombard 179 recordings of 54 talkers to study the Lombard effect. Three acoustic parameters from the 180 Geneva Minimalistic Acoustic Parameter Set (GeMAPS) (Eyben et al., 2016) were extracted 181 using the openSMILE toolkit⁵. These acoustic parameters, calculated as means for each 182 audio utterance, included a fundamental frequency-related parameter, namely the F0 mean, 183 an energy-related parameter, namely the loudness mean, and a spectral parameter, namely 184 the alpha ratio mean (Sundberg and Nordenberg, 2006) (the ratio between the energy from 185 50-1000 Hz and 1-15 kHz). Four additional parameters were estimated to characterise 186 the vowels: the average of vowel duration, the ratio of total vowel duration to utterance 187 duration, and the average first and second formant frequencies (estimated using Praat's 188 (Boersma, 2006) formant tracker. Settings: default; max formant for female talkers = 5500189 Hz; max formant for male talkers = 5000 Hz). One articulatory parameter, the vertical 190 mouth aperture, was extracted using the Dlib toolkit (King, 2009); the standard deviation 191 of this parameter across frames was calculated for each video utterance as a measure of 192 'visual energy'. Each talker's mean (i.e., the mean of these parameters across utterances 193 produced by that talker) was calculated. 194

Figure 1 shows the talkers' means in plain and Lombard conditions for each of the eight parameters. Table 1 shows across-talker means and standard deviations (SDs). Pairedsamples t-tests were employed to determine the significance of differences between the acrosstalker means, across-female-talker means, and across-male-talker means in plain and Lombard conditions. Table 1 also summarizes the results of the statistical analysis.

The Lombard speech adaptations reported in previous studies (see Section 1) were 200 observed in the Lombard recordings of this corpus. All parameters, except for the F2 fre-201 quency, demonstrated significant increases. The mean F1 frequency is expected to increase 202 under the Lombard effect (Junqua, 1993; Lu and Cooke, 2008; Pisoni et al., 1985; Summers 203 et al., 1988; Kirchhuebel, 2010). Mixed findings, however, have been reported regarding F2 204 adaptation to noise: Junqua (1993) reported an increase by female talkers; Pisoni et al. 205 (1985) and Lu and Cooke (2008) reported a decrease by both genders; Kirchhuebel (2010) 206 found variable effects. In this paper, the mean F2 frequency showed a non-significant overall 207 decrease, a similar finding to Pisoni et al. (1985) and Lu and Cooke $(2008)^6$, but this decrease 208 was significant for female talkers. 200

Consistent with Junqua et al. (1999)'s findings, individual differences in coping with 210 the SSN noise were found. Gender differences were also noticed in the size of Lombard effect. 211 For example, female talkers showed greater increase in loudness, estimated vowel duration, 212 estimated vowel-to-utterance ratio and mouth aperture, and a greater decrease in vowels 213 F2 frequency. A one way MANOVA found a statistically significant difference in speech 214 parameters' adaptations to noise based on talkers' gender (F(8, 45) = 2.994, p = .009): 215 gender has a statistically significant effect on estimates of both vowel duration adaptation 216 (F(1, 52) = 4.96; p = 0.03) and F2 frequency adaptation (F(1, 52) = 6.68; p = 0.01). Gender 217 differences may have resulted from articulation differences between male and female talkers, 218

as female talkers speak with a higher degree of articulation than male talkers (Koopmans van Beinum, 1980), a strategy that might be more exaggerated under the Lombard effect (Junqua, 1993). Junqua (1993) also found that Lombard speech produced in multi-talker noise by female talkers is more intelligible than male talkers. Gender difference has also been reported when the auditory feedback is delayed (Howell and Archer, 1984). This could suggest that male and female talkers may differ in their strategic responses to the auditory feedback that mediates the Lombard effect.

4. Corpus description

The corpus is being made freely available for download under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International license. The download consist of 5400 utterances where for each utterance there is an audio file, front view video file and a profile view video file. The downloads are accompanied by a JSON format file storing associated metadata including the gender of each speaker and the utterance recording sequence. The corpus is available from http://spandh.dcs.shef.ac.uk/lombardgrid/.

233 5. Summary

This study has presented a bi-view audiovisual Lombard speech dataset collected under high-SNR levels. The dataset, which is an extension of the popular Grid corpus, includes audio, front-video, and side-video recordings of 54 talkers uttering 5,400 plain and Lombard sentences. Analysis of this dataset showed prominent acoustic, phonetic, and articulatory speech modifications in Lombard speech, which confirms previous research on the subject.



Fig. 1. Estimated acoustic, phonetic and visual features across talkers: Lombard (\Box) ; plain (\times) . In each sub-figure: female talkers (left); male talkers (right).

The large number of speakers has also enabled the testing of gender differences in the size of Lombard effect, with female speakers showing a greater increase in estimated vowel duration, and a greater decrease in F2 frequency. The complete dataset has been made publicly available for future research.

244 6. Acknowledgements

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248 References and links

²⁴⁹ ¹Recordings of the talker with ID 1 were subsequently excluded due to technical issues.

² Note, the Grid corpus has not been designed to be phonetically balanced and has limited coverage of the
 ²⁵¹ phonetic contexts occurring in English. This may be a limitation for some usages.

²⁵² ³ A subset of the alignments generated from this process (10 pairs of utterances from the Lombard and non-²⁵³ Lombard conditions, 20 in total) were validated with human annotators. Findings showed that the ASR ²⁵⁴ system consistently underestimated vowel duration by 0.029 ± 0.012 s compared to the human annotation. ²⁵⁵ Importantly, however, the difference between human-estimated and ASR-estimated vowel durations was not ²⁵⁶ affected by the experimental condition (i.e., the ASR showed no bias between the Lombard and non-Lombard ²⁵⁷ speech conditions).

²⁵⁸ ⁴https://www.ffmpeg.org/

²⁵⁹ ⁵http://audeering.com/technology/opensmile/

⁶ Although the shifts in *estimated* formant frequencies are in agreement with those observed in the literature,
it should be acknowledged that the effect may be partly due to changes in alpha-ratio rather than changes
to the actual formants.

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Table 1. The mean and standard deviation (M±SD) of acoustic, phonetic and visual features of all talkers, female (F) talkers and male (M) talkers. P: plain, L: Lombard. Columns t summarize the results of statistical analyses (t-tests) between plain and Lombard conditions. Symbols: increase: \uparrow , decrease: \downarrow ; All tests were significant (p < 0.001) except those marked with * (p > 0.5)

	F0 (semiton	es $0 \rightarrow 27.5H$	Vowels F1 (Hz)			Vowels F2 (Hz)			
	Р	L	t	Р	L	t	Р	L	t
All	30.0 ± 4.9	31.9 ± 4.9	1	493 ± 46	547 ± 54	\uparrow	1828 ± 158	1819 ± 149	↓,
F	34.0 ± 1.9	35.9 ± 2.3	\uparrow	521 ± 36	579 ± 39	1	1943 ± 105	1922 ± 102	\downarrow
М	25.0 ± 2.2	27.0 ± 2.2	Ŷ	458 ± 31	507 ± 42	\uparrow	1683 ± 70	1689 ± 82	† *
	Vowel duration (ms)			Vowel-to-utterance ratio		Alpha ratio			
	Р	L	t	Р	L	t	Р	L	t
All	126 ± 17	148 ± 21	\uparrow	0.4045 ± 0.021	0.4254 ± 0.021	\uparrow	-12.17 ± 3.25	-7.67 ± 2.83	\uparrow
F	133 ± 14	157 ± 16	1	0.4153 ± 0.017	$7\ 0.4367 \pm 0.017$	\uparrow	-12.63 ± 3.74	-8.17 ± 3.05	\uparrow
М	118 ± 18	136 ± 22	1	0.3910 ± 0.019	0.4113 ± 0.017	\uparrow	-11.59 ± 2.36	-7.037 ± 2.38	; ↑
	Lo	udness		Mouth ap	perture (pixel)				
	Р	L	t	Р	L	t			
All	0.145 ± 0.058	0.306 ± 0.110) ↑	10.777 ± 3.43	11.914 ± 3.66	\uparrow			
F	0.139 ± 0.041	0.313 ± 0.109) ↑	$\begin{array}{c}2\\10.967\pm3.29\end{array}$	$\frac{1}{12.204 \pm 3.61}$	\uparrow			
М	0.153 ± 0.074	0.298 ± 0.110) ↑	10.540 ± 3.59	11.552 ± 3.69	↑			