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SNR Loss: A new objective measure for predicting speech intelligibility of noise-suppressed speech

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Abstract

Most of the existing intelligibility measures do not account for the distortions present in processed speech, such as those introduced by speech-enhancement algorithms. In the present study, we propose three new objective measures that can be used for prediction of intelligibility of processed (e.g., via an enhancement algorithm) speech in noisy conditions. All three measures use a critical-band spectral representation of the clean and noise-suppressed signals and are based on the measurement of the SNR loss incurred in each critical band after the corrupted signal goes through a speech enhancement algorithm. The proposed measures are flexible in that they can provide different weights to the two types of spectral distortions introduced by enhancement algorithms, namely spectral attenuation and spectral amplification distortions. The proposed measures were evaluated with intelligibility scores obtained by normal-hearing listeners in 72 noisy conditions involving noise-suppressed speech (consonants and sentences) corrupted by four different maskers (car, babble, train and street interferences). Highest correlation ($r=-0.85$) with sentence recognition scores was obtained using a variant of the SNR loss measure that only included vowel/consonant transitions and weak consonant information. High correlation was maintained for all noise types, with a maximum correlation ($r=-0.88$) achieved in street noise conditions.

I. INTRODUCTION

A number of measures have been proposed to predict speech intelligibility in the presence of background noise. Among these measures, the articulation index (AI) [1–4] and speech-transmission index (STI) [5,6] are by far the most commonly used today for predicting speech intelligibility in noisy conditions. The AI measure was further refined to produce the speech intelligibility index (SII) [4]. The SII measure is based on the idea that the intelligibility of speech depends on the proportion of spectral information that is audible to the listener and is computed by dividing the spectrum into 20 bands (contributing equally to intelligibility) and estimating the weighted (geometric) average of the signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) in each band [3,4,7–9]. The SNRs in each band are weighted by band-importance functions which differ across speech materials [4]. The SII measure has been shown to

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predict successfully the effects of linear filtering and additive noise on speech intelligibility. It has, however, a number of limitations. For one, the computation of the SII measure requires as input the levels of speech and masker signals at the eardrum of the listeners, something that might not be available in situations wherein we only have access to recorded (digitized) processed signals. Second, the AI measure has been validated for the most part only for steady (stationary) masking noise since it is based on the long-term average spectra (computed over 125-msec intervals) of the speech and masker signals. As such, it cannot be applied to situations in which speech is embedded in fluctuating maskers (e.g., competing talkers). Several attempts have been made to extend the SII measure to assess speech intelligibility in fluctuating maskers [10–13]. Rhebergen *et al.* [11], for instance, have proposed to divide the speech and masker signals into short frames (9–20 ms), evaluate the instantaneous AI value in each frame, and average the computed AI values across all frames to produce a single AI metric. Other extensions to the SII index were proposed in [14,15] for predicting the intelligibility of peak-clipping and center-clipping distortions in the speech signal, such as those found in hearing aids. Modifications to the AI and speech-based STI indices to account for fluctuating masker environments (e.g., train noise) were also proposed in [13] based on the use of signal- and segment-dependent band-importance functions.

With the exception of the coherence-based index [15] that assessed non-linear distortions, most of the existing intelligibility measures do not account for the distortions present in processed speech, such as those introduced by speech-enhancement algorithms. The majority of speech-enhancement algorithms operate in the frequency domain and are based on multiplication of the noisy speech magnitude spectrum by a suppression function, which is designed/optimized based on certain error criteria (e.g., mean squared error). The multiplication of the suppression function with the noisy magnitude spectra introduces two types of distortions, spectral attenuation (i.e., enhanced spectral components are smaller in magnitude than corresponding clean spectral components) and/or spectral amplification (i.e., enhanced spectral components are larger in magnitude than corresponding clean spectral component). These two types of distortions coexist within and across consecutive time frames, leading in some cases to the well known distortion of “musical noise” [16,17]. The perceptual implications and impact on speech intelligibility of these distortions are not clear, and most objective measures (e.g., Itakura-Saito measure, Quackenbush *et al.*, 1988) lump these two types of distortions into one, as they are primarily based on the squared error criterion. The only notable measure that provides different weights to these two distortions is the PESQ measure (ITU-T, 2000). Other objective measures that attempted to balance the tradeoff between the two distortions were proposed in [18,19], but did not yield high correlation with subjective speech quality [18] (these measures were not evaluated with speech intelligibility scores). These measures were computed in the time-domain and not in the frequency (critical-band) domain, as done with the proposed measures.

In the present paper, we propose a new measure which treats the two types of spectral distortion differently, thus providing us with the possibility of assessing the individual contribution of the two distortions on speech intelligibility. It uses a critical-band spectral representation of the clean and noise-suppressed signals and is based on the measurement of the SNR loss incurred in each critical band after the corrupted signal goes through a speech enhancement algorithm. The proposed measure is flexible in that it can provide different weights to the two types of spectral distortions introduced by enhancement algorithms, and can also limit the amount of distortion that should be accounted for in its calculation. A second measure is also investigated based on the normalized correlation between the clean and enhanced critical-band spectra. This measure was chosen as it can detect inconsistencies in the two types of distortions introduced in the spectrum. It is based on the hypothesis that if the enhanced spectra are uniformly attenuated or amplified across all bands, then intelligibility should not suffer as the overall spectral envelope is preserved. Consequently,

the correlation coefficient will be high since the clean and enhanced spectra will be linearly related. On the other hand, when both spectral attenuation and amplification distortions are present (as is often the case), the impact on intelligibility ought to be higher and subsequently the correlation coefficient will be lower. A measure that combines the attractive features of the SNR loss and normalized correlation measures is also proposed.

The proposed measures are evaluated using a total of 72 noisy conditions. The 72 conditions included distortions introduced by 8 different noise-suppression algorithms and noise-corrupted (i.e., unprocessed) conditions operating at two SNR levels (0 and 5 dB) in four types of real-world environments (babble, car, street and train). The intelligibility scores obtained by human listeners in the 72 conditions [20] were used in the present study to evaluate the predictive power of the newly proposed objective measures.

II. PROPOSED OBJECTIVE MEASURES FOR PREDICTING SPEECH INTELLIGIBILITY

Let $y(n) = x(n) + d(n)$ denote the noisy signal, with $x(n)$ indicating the clean signal and $d(n)$ indicating the masker (noise) signal. After windowing the observed signal with a function $h(n)$, (i.e., Hamming window) we compute the short-time Fourier transform of $y(n)$ as follows:

$$Y(\omega_k, m) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} y(mR+n) \cdot h(n)e^{-j\omega_k n} \quad (1)$$

where $\omega_k = 2\pi k/N$ ($k=0,1,\dots,N-1$) is the frequency bin index, m is the time frame index, N is the frame size in samples, and R is the update rate in samples. The excitation (or critical-band) spectrum of $y(n)$ is computed by multiplying the FFT magnitude spectra, $|Y(\omega_k, m)|$, by 25 overlapping Gaussian-shaped windows [17, Ch. 11] spaced in proportion to the ear's critical bands and summing up the power within each band. This results in the following critical-band spectra representation of the signals:

$$Y(j, m) = X(j, m) + D(j, m) \quad j=1, 2, \dots, K \quad (2)$$

where K is the number of bands, $X(j, m)$ is the excitation spectrum of the clean signal in band j at frame m , and $D(j, m)$ is the excitation spectrum of the masker (noise). Figures 1(a) and 1(b) show respectively example FFT magnitude spectra and associated excitation spectra for a vowel segment excised from the word "kick". The proposed objective measures are based on the above derived excitation spectra.

A. SNR Loss

The SNR loss in band j and frame m is defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} L(j, m) &= SNR_X(j, m) - SNR_{\hat{X}}(j, m) \\ &= 10 \cdot \log_{10} \frac{X(j, m)^2}{D(j, m)^2} - 10 \cdot \log_{10} \frac{\hat{X}(j, m)^2}{D(j, m)^2} \\ &= 10 \cdot \log_{10} \frac{X(j, m)^2}{\hat{X}(j, m)^2} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where $SNR_X(j, m)$ is the input SNR in band j , $SNR_{\hat{X}}(j, m)$ is the effective SNR of the enhanced signal in the j th frequency band, and $\hat{X}(j, m)$ is the excitation spectrum of the

processed (enhanced) signal in the j th frequency band at the m th frame. The first SNR term in Eq. (3) provides the original SNR in frequency band j before processing the input signal $x(n)$, while the second SNR term provides the SNR of the processed (enhanced) signal. The term $L(j, m)$ in Eq. (3) thus defines the loss in SNR¹, termed SNR_{LOSS}, incurred when the corrupted signal goes through a noise-suppression system. Clearly, when $\hat{X}(j, m) = X(j, m)$, the SNR_{LOSS} is zero. It is reasonable to expect with most noise-suppression algorithms that as the SNR level increases, i.e., $SNR \rightarrow \infty$, the estimated spectrum $\hat{X}(j, m)$ approaches the clean spectrum $X(j, m)$, i.e., $\hat{X}(j, m) \rightarrow X(j, m)$ (see proof in Chen, et al., 2008) for the Wiener filter enhancement algorithm), and consequently the SNR_{LOSS} is zero. On this regard, the value of the above SNR_{LOSS} measure depends on the input SNR value. This is tested in the present study by assessing the correlation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure with speech intelligibility scores obtained in different SNR level conditions.

Figure 1 shows an example excitation spectrum of a signal that has been processed via a spectral subtraction algorithm [22]. As can be seen from this example, the SNR loss can be positive in some bands (see label A in panel b) suggesting the presence of spectral attenuation distortion or could be negative in others (see label B in panel b) suggesting spectral amplification distortion.

Following the computation of the SNR loss in Eq. (3), the $L(j, m)$ term is limited to a range of SNR levels. In the SII index [4], for instance, the SNR calculation is limited to the range of $[-15, 15]$ dB, prior to the mapping of the computed SNR to the range of $[0, 1]$. Assuming in general the restricted SNR range of $[-SNR_{Lim}, SNR_{Lim}]$ dB, the $L(j, m)$ term is limited as follows:

$$\widehat{L}(j, m) = \min(\max(L(j, m), -SNR_{Lim}), SNR_{Lim}) \quad (4)$$

and subsequently mapped to the range of $[0, 1]$ using the following equation:

$$SNR_{LOSS}(j, m) = \begin{cases} -\frac{C_-}{SNR_{Lim}} \widehat{L}(j, m) & \text{if } \widehat{L}(j, m) < 0 \\ \frac{C_+}{SNR_{Lim}} \widehat{L}(j, m) & \text{if } \widehat{L}(j, m) \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

where C_+ and C_- are parameters (defined in the range of $[0, 1]$) controlling the slopes of the mapping function (see Figure 2). Note that the SNR_{Lim} values in the above equation do not denote the assumed speech dynamic range but rather the limits imposed to the computed SNR values. The above equation normalizes the frame SNR_{LOSS} to the range of $0 \leq SNR_{LOSS}(j, m) \leq 1$ since $0 \leq C_+, C_- \leq 1$. The average SNR_{LOSS} is finally computed by averaging SNR_{LOSS}(j, m) over all frames in the signal as follows:}

$$\overline{SNR}_{LOSS} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} fSNR_{LOSS}(m) \quad (6)$$

where M is the total number of data segments in the signal and $fSNR_{LOSS}(m)$ is the average (across bands) SNR loss computed as follows:

¹The term ‘‘SNR loss’’ also refers to the increased signal-to-noise ratio required by hearing-impaired listeners to understand speech in noise relative to that required by normal-hearing listeners [21]. In the present study, we use this term to indicate the SNR loss introduced by noise suppression algorithms rather than acoustic noise alone.

$$\text{fSNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(m) = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^K W(j) \cdot \text{SNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(j, m)}{\sum_{j=1}^K W(j)} \quad (7)$$

where $W(j)$ is the weight (i.e., band importance function [4]) placed on the j th frequency band. The weighting function $W(j)$ can be signal dependent [13], but in our case we set it equal to band-importance functions similar to those given in [4]. The band-importance functions were taken from Table B.1 in the ANSI standard [4]. For the consonant materials, we used the nonsense syllable functions and for the sentence materials we used the short-passage functions given in Table B.1 in [4]. The functions were linearly interpolated to reflect the range of band center-frequencies adopted in the present study (the values for the 50 and 120 Hz bands were extrapolated). It should be noted that due to the smaller bandwidth and the use of interpolated values, the sum of the articulation index weights given in Table B.1 does not add up to 1. Despite that, due to the normalization term used in the denominator of Eq. 7, the $\text{fSNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(m)$ measure is always smaller than 1.

Based on Eq. (5), it is easy to show that Eq. 7 can be decomposed into two terms as follows (assuming for convenience that $W(j) = 1$ for all j):

$$\text{fSNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(m) = \frac{1}{K} \left[\sum_{j: \widehat{L}(j,m) \geq 0} \text{SNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(j, m) + \sum_{j: \widehat{L}(j,m) < 0} \text{SNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(j, m) \right] = \frac{1}{K} [\text{SNR}_+(m) + \text{SNR}_-(m)] \quad (8)$$

where the terms SNR_- and SNR_+ are used to indicate the isolated SNR loss due to amplification and attenuation distortions respectively. As it will be shown later (see Sec. VI), the SNR_+ and SNR_- measures can be used as a diagnostic tool when analyzing the performance of speech enhancement algorithms.

From Equations (4) and (5), it is clear that the SNR_{LOSS} measure depends on the SNR_{Lim} and the parameters C_+ and C_- , both of which control the slope of the mapping function (see Figure 2). The parameters C_+ and C_- are quite important, as they can tell us about the individual contribution of the spectral attenuation (occurring when $X(j, m) > \widehat{X}(j, m)$) and spectral amplification (occurring when $X(j, m) < \widehat{X}(j, m)$) distortions introduced by noise-suppression algorithms to speech intelligibility (see example in Figure 1). By setting $C_+=1$ and $C_-=0$, for instance, we can assess whether we can better predict speech intelligibility when accounting only for spectral attenuation distortions while ignoring spectral amplification distortions. Similarly, by setting $C_+=1$ and $C_-=1$, we can assess whether both distortions (spectral amplification and attenuation) should be weighted equally. In brief, the parameters C_+ and C_- can help us assess the perceptual impact of the spectral distortions introduced by noise-suppression algorithms. Given the importance of the parameters C_+ and C_- , we varied independently their values from 0 to 1 (in steps of 0.2) and examined the resulting SNR_{LOSS} correlation with speech intelligibility.

While the parameters C_+ and C_- in Eq. (5) can be used to control the importance of the type of spectral distortion (spectral amplification and/or attenuation) introduced by noise-suppression algorithms, the SNR_{Lim} parameter can be used to assess the amount of spectral distortion that should be included in the SNR_{LOSS} calculation. In the computation of the SII

measure, for instance, the SNR_{Lim} parameter is set to 15 dB, suggesting that band SNRs larger than 15 dB do not contribute further to intelligibility and should not be included in the calculation of the SII index. Hence, by varying the SNR_{Lim} parameter in the present study we can examine the lower/upper limits of spectral distortions that should be included in the calculation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure. In the example shown in Figure 1, for instance, band A (see panel b) was attenuated by nearly 30 dB. Had this band been attenuated by say 5 dB, would it make the processed speech stimulus more intelligible or does there exist a critical “saturation” point beyond which the distortions do not contribute further to intelligibility loss? To answer these questions, we will vary the SNR_{Lim} parameter (and associated SNR dynamic range) in the present study from a low of 2 dB to a high of 50 dB, and examine the resulting correlations with speech intelligibility scores.

Figure 3 shows an example frame SNR_{LOSS} values for a sentence (in 0 dB SNR babble) processed via the RDC spectral-subtractive algorithm [22]. The spectrograms of the clean and enhanced signals are also shown for comparison. The average SNR_{LOSS} value for this example was 0.87. For this example, the SNR_{LOSS} value was high during the unvoiced segments and was relatively low during voiced segments. This is consistent with the fact that most speech-enhancement algorithms do not perform well during unvoiced segments, as those low-SNR segments are heavily masked by noise.

The SNR_{LOSS} measure bears some resemblance to the intelligibility-weighted gain in SNR [23] which is computed as follows:

$$G_I = SNR_{OUT} - SNR_{IN} \\ = \sum_{k=1}^K W_k SNR_{OUT}(k) - \sum_{k=1}^K W_k SNR_{IN}(k) \quad (9)$$

where W_k denote the weights (i.e., band-importance functions) applied to band k , SNR_{OUT} is the output SNR (expressed in dB) in band k computed using the processed clean and noise signals, and SNR_{IN} is the input SNR computed using the input (clean) signal. Note that unlike the enhanced signal’s SNR used in Eq. (3), the SNR_{OUT} term is computed using the processed (by the algorithm’s suppression function) clean and noise signals, and is not based on the enhanced output signal (e.g., [24]). Furthermore, the SNR calculations in Eq. (9) are not restricted to a finite range (e.g., 30 dB). In contrast, the band SNRs used in the SNR_{LOSS} measure are restricted to a small range (see Eq. (4) and Figure 2) and are mapped nonlinearly to the range of [0,1] after the subtraction operation. The above measure was originally intended to characterize an effective signal-to-noise ratio in speech transmission systems, and not to predict speech intelligibility [23].

The SNR_{LOSS} measure given in Eq. (3) also bears some resemblance to the spectral distortion (SD) measure often used in speech coding particularly in the design of vector quantizers [25,26]:

$$SD = \left(\frac{1}{F_s} \int_0^{F_s} [10 \log_{10}(P_X(f)) - 10 \log_{10}(P_{\hat{X}}(f))]^2 df \right)^{1/2} \quad (10)$$

where $P_X(f)$ and $P_{\hat{X}}(f)$ denote the power spectra of the clean and coded (processed) spectra respectively, and F_s denotes the sampling frequency. There is one fundamental difference between the definition of SD and Eq. (3). The spectral log difference in Eq. (10) is squared, while the log difference in Eq. (3) is not. As mentioned earlier, when the difference is squared, no distinction is made between the amplification and attenuation distortions as they

are both lumped into one. The SD measure is also used sometimes for evaluating noise-suppressed speech [27]. For comparative purposes, we will also evaluate in the present study a critical-band based version of Eq. (10), denoted as SD_{CB} , and implemented as follows:

$$SD_{CB}(m) = \left[\frac{1}{K} \sum_{j=1}^K (L(j, m))^2 \right]^{1/2} \quad (11)$$

where $L(j, m)$ is given by Eq. (3). Aside from the spectral distortion given in Eq. (10), a number of other spectral distortion measures were proposed in [28,29]. These measures were computed for the most part in the context of Wiener filtering, and more generally, in the context of linear estimators of speech including those applied in the KLT domain. Some measures were also proposed for non-linear estimators of the speech spectrum (Benesty, 2009). The proposed SNR_{LOSS} measure can be used for speech processed by either linear or non-linear estimators. Furthermore, the spectral distortion measures proposed in [28,29] were not validated with human intelligibility tests, hence it remains uncertain as to how reliably can these measures predict speech distortion or speech intelligibility.

B. Excitation Spectra Correlation (ESC)

The excitation spectral correlation (ESC) measure at frame m is computed as follows:

$$r^2(m) = \frac{\left(\sum_{k=1}^K X(k, m) \cdot \widehat{X}(k, m) \right)^2}{\sum_{k=1}^K X^2(k, m) \cdot \sum_{k=1}^K \widehat{X}^2(k, m)} \quad (12)$$

where K is the number of bands ($K=25$ in our study). Note that the above equation gives the squared Pearson's correlation between the clean and enhanced excitation spectra (assuming that these spectra have a zero mean). As such, the $r^2(m)$ values are limited to $0 \leq r^2(m) \leq 1$. A value of $r^2(m)$ close to 1 would suggest that the input and processed signals are linearly related, while a value of $r^2(m)$ close to 0 would indicate that the input and processed signals are uncorrelated. At the extreme case wherein $\widehat{X}(j, m) = \alpha \cdot X(j, m)$ for all bands, then it is easy to show from Eq. (12) that $r^2(m) = 1$. Hence, if $\alpha > 1$ that would suggest that $\widehat{X}(j, m)$ is uniformly amplified across all bands, and similarly if $\alpha < 1$ that would suggest that $\widehat{X}(j, m)$ is uniformly attenuated across all bands. Uniform spectral distortion, across all bands, would indicate that the shape of the spectral envelope (which includes the formant peaks, F1 and F2, in voiced segments, e.g., vowels) is grossly preserved, and consequently intelligibility should not be degraded. On the other hand, if the spectral distortions vary across bands (as is often the case) in that speech is attenuated in some bands and amplified in others, then intelligibility would likely suffer and the resulting correlation will be low or lie somewhere between 0 and 1. Figure 4 shows two example spectra in which the correlations are high and low, demonstrating the above concept and motivation for the use of the ESC measure.

The average ESC is computed by averaging $r^2(m)$ over all frames in the signal as follows:

$$ESC = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} r^2(m) \quad (13)$$

Based on the assumption that the excitation spectra have zero mean, it is easy to show that $r^2(m)$ (Eq. (12)) is related to the signal-to-residual noise ratio (SNR_{ES}) as follows (see Appendix A):

$$SNR_{ES}(m) = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K X^2(k, m)}{\sum_{k=1}^K (X(k, m) - \widehat{X}(k, m))^2} = \frac{r^2(m)}{1 - r^2(m)} \quad (14)$$

Note that the denominator provides the power of the residual spectrum, which is not necessarily the same as the masker spectrum. For that reason, we refer to the above term as SNR_{ES} rather than as SNR. The time-domain counterpart of SNR_{ES} is the segmental SNR (SNR_{seg}), often used in the evaluation of speech enhancement and speech coding algorithms [30].

The excitation spectra, $X(k, m)$ and $\widehat{X}(k, m)$, are positive quantities and have a non-zero (and time-varying) mean. Consequently, we also considered the following covariance measure which accounts for the means of the excitation spectra:

$$r_{\mu}^2(m) = \frac{\left(\sum_{k=1}^K (X(k, m) - \mu_X(m)) \cdot (\widehat{X}(k, m) - \mu_{\widehat{X}}(m)) \right)^2}{\sum_{k=1}^K (X(k, m) - \mu_X(m))^2 \cdot \sum_{k=1}^K (\widehat{X}(k, m) - \mu_{\widehat{X}}(m))^2} \quad (15)$$

where $\mu_X(m)$ and $\mu_{\widehat{X}}(m)$ denote the means of $X(k, m)$ and $\widehat{X}(k, m)$ respectively (e.g.,

$\mu_X(m) = \sum_k X(k, m)$). The average covariance (across the whole utterance) of the excitation spectra is computed as in Eq. (13) and is denoted as ESC_{μ} .

The average ESC measure (Eq. (13)) was computed by averaging $r^2(m)$ over all frames in the signal, putting equal emphasis on low-energy (e.g., fricatives) and high-energy (e.g., vowels) phonetic segments. Higher correlations were obtained in [14], when dividing the M speech segments into three level regions, and computing separately the measure for each region. The high-level region consisted of segments at or above the overall RMS level of the whole utterance. The mid-level region consisted of segments ranging from the overall RMS level to 10 dB below the overall RMS level, and the low-level region consisted of segments ranging below RMS-10 dB. The three-level ESC measures obtained for the low-, mid- and high-level segments were denoted as ESC_{Low} , ESC_{Mid} and ESC_{High} respectively. A linear combination of the three ESC values (based on linear regression analysis) can subsequently be used to model the intelligibility scores. Hence, in addition to the average ESC measure which puts equal emphasis to all phonetic segments, we will also investigate the performance of the three-level ESC measures.

III. COMBINING THE SNR_{LOSS} AND ESC MEASURES

The ESC measure has an attractive feature that is absent from the SNR_{LOSS} measure. As illustrated in Figure 4, when the enhanced output signal is uniformly (across all bands) attenuated/amplified, the resulting correlation is near one. In contrast, the SNR_{LOSS} measure reaches its maximum value (since it is limited by SNR_{Lim}), and consequently yields a high

SNR loss value (near one), which is inappropriate for uniform distortions and likely inconsistent with intelligibility scores. For that reason, we propose to combine the two measures as follows:

$$\text{SNRLESC}(m) = (1 - r^2(m)) \cdot \text{fSNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(m) \quad (16)$$

where $\text{SNRLESC}(m)$ is the new measure at frame m , and $\text{fSNR}_{\text{LOSS}}(m)$ is the average frame SNR_{LOSS} given by Eq. (7). The SNRLESC measure is bounded within the range of 0 to 1, and assumes a high value (i.e., near one) when both the terms $(1 - r^2(m))$ and SNR_{LOSS} assume a high value, and assumes a small value when either of the two measures takes on a small value (i.e., near zero). The average, across the whole utterance, SNRLESC measure is computed as in Eq. (13). Depending on the implementation of $r^2(m)$, two different measures are produced, denoted as SNRLESC (based on Eq. (12)) and SNRLESC_μ (based on Eq. (15)). Figure 5 shows as an example, the frame SNRLESC values superimposed to the frame SNR_{LOSS} values for an utterance processed by the spectral-subtractive algorithm in [22]. As can be seen, the SNRLESC curve follows for the most part the SNR_{LOSS} curve with the exception when $(1 - r^2(m))$ is close to zero.

As will be shown later, the SNR_{LOSS} measure performs quite well despite the above limitation in dealing with uniform distortions. This is perhaps because uniform distortions occur significantly less often in noise-suppressed speech than non-uniform distortions. The proposed SNRLESC measure is meant to enhance the prediction power of the SNR_{LOSS} measure.

V. INTELLIGIBILITY LISTENING TESTS

In order to properly evaluate the predictive power of the proposed objective measures, we need intelligibility scores obtained from human listeners. For that, we will be using the intelligibility evaluation study of noise-corrupted speech processed through eight different noise-suppression algorithms as reported in Hu and Loizou [20]. This study is summarized briefly below.

IEEE sentences [31] and consonants in /a C a/ format were used as test material. The consonant test included 16 consonants recorded in /a C a/ context, where $C = /p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, dh, l, f, v, s, z, sh, dj/$. These recordings were originally sampled at 25 kHz, but were downsampled to 8 kHz and are available in [17]. The masker signals were taken from the AURORA database [32] and included the following real-world recordings from different places: babble, car, street, and train. The maskers were added to the speech signals at SNRs of 0 and 5 dB. A total of 40 native speakers of American English were recruited for the sentence intelligibility tests, and 10 additional listeners were recruited for the consonant tests. A total of 40 native speakers of American English were recruited for the sentence intelligibility tests. The 40 listeners were divided into four panels (one per type of noise), with each panel consisting of 10 listeners. The processed speech files (sentences/consonants), along with the clean and noisy speech files, were presented monaurally to the listeners in a double-walled sound-proof booth (Acoustic Systems, Inc) via Sennheiser's (HD 250 Linear II) circumaural headphones at a comfortable level. The intelligibility study by Hu and Loizou [20] produced a total of 72 noisy conditions including the noise-corrupted (unprocessed) conditions. The intelligibility scores obtained in the 72 conditions were used in the present study to evaluate the predictive power of the newly proposed objective measures.

VI. RESULTS

Two figures of merit were used to assess the performance of the above objective measures in terms of predicting speech intelligibility in noise. The first figure of merit was the Pearson's correlation coefficient, r , and the second figure of merit was an estimate of the standard deviation of the error computed as $\sigma_e = \sigma_d \sqrt{1 - r^2}$, where σ_d is the standard deviation of the speech recognition scores in a given condition, and σ_e is the computed standard deviation of the error. A smaller value of σ_e indicates that the objective measure is better at predicting speech intelligibility.

The average intelligibility scores obtained by normal-hearing listeners in the 72 different noisy conditions (see Section III), were subjected to correlation analysis with the corresponding mean values obtained with the objective measures. A total of 1440 processed speech samples were included in the correlations encompassing two SNR levels (0 and 5 dB), four different types of background noise and speech/noise distortions introduced by 8 different speech enhancement algorithms (1152 processed speech samples were used for consonants). The intelligibility scores for each speech sample were averaged across all listeners involved in that test. Similarly, the values from the objective measures were averaged across the speech material (20 sentences or 16 consonants) used in each condition. A logistic function was used to map the values obtained by the objective measures to speech intelligibility scores.

As mentioned earlier, these conditions involved noise-suppressed speech (consonants and sentences) originally corrupted by four different maskers (car, babble, train and street interferences) at two different SNR levels. The computed correlation coefficients (and prediction error) are tabulated separately for the consonants and sentence materials and are given in Table 2. For the computation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure, we initially set $\text{SNR}_{\text{Lim}} = 15$ dB (as used in [4]) and $C_+ = C_- = 1$. Further experiments were carried out using different values of SNR_{Lim} and C_+ , C_- (see later sections). All measures were computed by segmenting the sentences using 20-msec duration Hamming windows with 75% overlap between adjacent frames.

As shown in Table 2, of the three measures proposed, the SNR_{LESC} measure performed the best ($r = -0.71$) in predicting consonant recognition scores, while the ESC_μ measure performed the best ($r = 0.83$) in predicting sentence recognition scores. The SNR_{LOSS} measure performed modestly well, at least for the SNR_{Lim} range tested ($\text{SNR}_{\text{Lim}} = 15$ dB). Significant improvements in correlation were noted, however, when the SNR_{Lim} range was reduced (see Table 3 and later experiments). The spectral log difference measure (SD_{CB} in Eq. (11)), which is often used to assess speech distortion introduced by speech enhancement algorithms [27] or vector quantizers [25] yielded the lowest correlation ($|r| = 0.26-0.33$) for both consonant and sentence recognition. This outcome highlights the negative implications of lumping the amplification and attenuation distortions into one, as done when the log difference between the clean and processed spectra is squared.

Among the three-level ESC measures, the mid-level ESC (ESC_{Mid}) measure yielded the highest correlation for both consonant ($r = 0.73$) and sentence materials ($r = 0.84$), consistent with the outcome reported in [14]. The ESC_{Mid} measure captures information about envelope transients and spectral transitions, critical for the transmission of information regarding place of articulation. Subsequent logistic transformations of the ESC_3 measure did not improve the correlations.

Further experiments were conducted to assess the influence of the SNR range (SNR_{Lim}) and the parameters C^+ and C^- involved in the computation of the SNR_{LOSS} and SNR_{LESC} measures. These experiments are discussed next.

A. Influence of mapped SNR range

To assess the influence of the mapped SNR range on the performance of the SNR_{LOSS} measure, we varied the SNR range from a low of 2 dB to a high of 50 dB. The parameters C^+ and C^- were both set to one. The resulting correlation coefficients are given in Table 3. As can be seen, the highest correlations were obtained when the SNR range was limited to $[-3, 3]$ dB. Significant improvement was noted on the prediction of sentence recognition scores; the correlation coefficient improved from $r=-0.61$, based on the SNR range of $[-15, 15]$ dB (adopted in the SII index computation), to $r=-0.81$ based on the SNR range of $[-3, 3]$ dB. This outcome suggests that, unlike the SII index [4], the spectral distortions introduced by noise-suppression algorithms do not contribute proportionally, within a 30 dB dynamic range, to speech intelligibility loss. The contribution of SNR loss to speech intelligibility seems to reach a saturation point at the $[-3, 3]$ dB limits. Put differently, processed speech with a measured SNR loss of say 10 dB is not less intelligible than processed speech with an SNR loss of 5 dB. Based on Table 3, we can thus conclude that only spectral distortions falling within a 6 dB range (i.e., within $[-3, 3]$ dB) should be included in the computation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure.

Figure 6 shows the scatter plot of the predicted SNR_{LOSS} scores (obtained using the $[-3, 3]$ dB range) against the listeners' recognition scores for consonants and sentences. Figures 7 and 8 show the individual scatter plots broken down by noise type for sentence and consonant recognition respectively. A logistic function was used to map the objective scores to intelligibility scores. As can be seen, a high correlation was maintained for all noise types, including modulated (e.g., train) and non-modulated (e.g., car) maskers. The correlations with consonant recognition scores ranged from $r=-0.81$ with babble to $r=-0.87$ with street noise. The correlations with sentence recognition scores ranged from $r=-0.84$ with car noise to $r=-0.88$ with street noise. The correlations were obtained with logistic-type fitting functions. Only two SNR levels (0 and 5 dB) were examined in this study, neither of which yielded saturation or flooring effects.

Having determined the optimum SNR range to use in the computation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure, we re-examined the correlations of the SNR_{LESC} measure based on the $[-3, 3]$ dB range. The resulting correlation coefficients are shown in Table 4. Consistent improvements in the correlation coefficient were noted for both consonants and sentence materials. The correlation coefficient obtained using the SNR_{LESC} measure was higher than obtained with either the ESC or SNR_{LOSS} measures alone. The highest correlation ($r=-0.84$) with sentence materials was obtained with the $\text{SNR}_{\text{LESC}\mu}$ measure. Figure 9 shows the individual scatter plots of the predicted $\text{SNR}_{\text{LESC}\mu}$ values broken down by noise type for sentence recognition. Further improvements were obtained with the three-level $\text{SNR}_{\text{LESC}\mu}$ and SNR_{LESC} measures. Similar to the approach taken for the ESC measures, a multiple-regression analysis was run on the three SNR_{LESC} measures, yielding the following predictive models for consonant and sentence intelligibility.

B. Influence of parameter values C^+ and C^-

In the previous experiments, the parameters C^+ and C^- were fixed to one. To assess the influence of the parameters C^+ and C^- on predicting speech intelligibility, we varied independently the values of the parameters from 0 to 1, in steps of 0.2. The resulting correlation coefficients are shown in Table 5. As can be seen from Table 5, the optimum values for the parameters C^+ and C^- are 1 and 1 respectively. This suggests that both

spectral attenuation and amplification distortions need to be included in the SNR_{LOSS} calculation and that these distortions contribute equally to loss in intelligibility. It is interesting to note however that the correlation coefficient dropped significantly (near zero) when C_+ was set to a small value, and the C_- value was fixed at 1. The resulting correlation ($r=-0.03$) obtained, for instance, with $C_+=0.4$ and $C_-=1$, did not differ significantly from zero ($p=0.829$). A relatively smaller decrease in correlation coefficient was obtained when C_- was set to a small value, and the C_+ value was fixed at 1 (resulting correlations were significant, $p<0.05$). This indicates that, when limited to the $[-3, 3]$ dB range, the spectral attenuation distortions carry a larger perceptual weight compared to the spectral amplification distortions. Nevertheless, both distortions need to be included in the computation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure for *maximum* correlation.

The overall SNR loss introduced by speech enhancement algorithms can be written, based on Eq. (5), as the sum of the loss due to spectral amplification distortion and the loss due to the spectral attenuation distortion (see Eq. (8)). As shown in Eq. (8), the overall SNR loss can be decomposed as: $SNR_{LOSS} = SNR_+ + SNR_-$ where SNR_+ indicates the loss in intelligibility due to spectral attenuation distortions alone, and SNR_- indicates the loss in intelligibility due to spectral amplification distortions alone. This decomposition of the SNR loss values can provide valuable information when analyzing the performance of individual algorithms as it can be used to create an intelligibility-loss profile for the algorithm tested. To illustrate this, we computed the SNR_+ and SNR_- values for the 8 enhancement algorithms used in the 5-dB SNR car noise condition in [20]. The results are shown in Figure 10. The (unprocessed) corrupted files (indicated as UN in Figure 10) had the highest spectral amplification distortion and the lowest attenuation. This is to be expected given that no suppression function was applied to the corrupted signals. The amplification distortions present in the corrupted signals reflect the masking of the signal by the noise. In contrast, the pKLT algorithm [33] yielded the highest spectral-attenuation distortion loss. Incidentally, the pKLT algorithm also yielded the lowest intelligibility score (69% correct with pKLT vs. 81% correct with unprocessed and corrupted sentences) for this condition [20]. Relative to the corrupted signals, the Wiener filtering algorithm [34] reduced the spectral attenuation distortion and introduced only modest spectral amplification. The Wiener filtering algorithm yielded the lowest spectral attenuation distortion among all algorithms tested, while maintaining modest amplification loss. Largest improvements in intelligibility were obtained with the Wiener algorithm compared to all other algorithms. In fact, performance with the Wiener algorithm was higher (by 10% points) than performance obtained with the corrupted (unprocessed) signals. The statistical model-based algorithms (e.g., [35]) maintained a good balance between the two distortions. From the SNR_{LOSS} profile depicted in Figure 10 and the associated intelligibility scores, we can conclude that the loss due to spectral amplification is not as detrimental to speech intelligibility as is the loss due to spectral attenuation distortions, at least when the distortions are limited within the $[-3, 3]$ dB range. This is consistent with the data in Table 5 assessing the influence of the parameters C_+ and C_- . As illustrated in Table 5, the correlation coefficient dropped significantly (near zero) when the parameter C_+ , which controls the weight placed on spectral attenuation distortion, was set to a small value. In brief, the SNR_+ and SNR_- measurements of the two distortions can serve as a valuable tool when analyzing individual algorithms in terms of identifying potential loss in intelligibility caused by spectral distortions.

C. Effect of window duration

Unlike the SII standard [4] which uses a 125-ms integration window, a 20-ms integration window was used in our present study for the implementation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure. The study in [13] noted a positive influence of window duration on the performance of AI-based objective measures, in that a longer window produced higher correlation with intelligibility

scores. The study in [36] revealed that an analysis window duration of 15–35 ms seems to be the optimum choice, in terms of intelligibility, when speech is reconstructed from its short-time magnitude spectrum. To examine the influence of window duration on the performance of the SNR_{LOSS} measure, we varied the window duration from 4 ms to 125 ms. Results showed that the window duration did not seem to influence greatly the resulting correlation coefficients for either consonants or sentences.

D. Comparison with other objective measures

Table 6 compares the correlation obtained with the SNR_{LOSS} , ESC and SNRLESC measures against the correlations obtained with other conventional objective measures including the PESQ measure [37]. The comparison additionally includes an AI-based measure (indicated as AI-ST) and an STI-based measure (indicated as NCM). These measures have been evaluated with the same data used in the present study and were previously reported in [13]. As can be seen, the proposed SNR_{LOSS} measure performed better than the PESQ and AI-based measures on predicting sentence recognition, but did not perform as well as the STI-based measure (NCM). The PESQ measure was reported in [38] to produce higher correlations ($r > 0.9$) than those shown in Table 6, however, it was only evaluated with binaurally-processed speech, and the evaluation did not include the many different variations of distortions that can be introduced by noise-suppression algorithms. Computationally, the proposed SNR_{LOSS} measure offers the advantage that it can be computed on a frame-by-frame basis, whereas the PESQ and STI-based measures require first access to the whole signal prior to computing the measure.

VII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The present study evaluated the performance of three new objective measures (SNR_{LOSS} , ESC and SNRLESC) for predicting speech intelligibility in noisy conditions. The objective measures were tested in a total of 72 noisy conditions which included processed sentences and nonsense syllables corrupted by four real-world types of noise (car, babble, train, and street). The distinct contributions and conclusions of the present work include the following:

1. Unlike traditional intelligibility indices (e.g., SII and STI) the proposed objective measures operate on short-time intervals (20 ms) and can predict well the intelligibility of speech processed in fluctuating maskers (e.g., train, street noise) by noise-suppression algorithms. Consistently high correlations ($|r| = 0.84\text{--}0.88$) scores were found across the four maskers tested (see Figures 7–9).
2. Of the three measures proposed, the SNRLESC measure yielded the highest overall correlation ($r = -0.84$) for predicting sentence recognition in noisy conditions. High correlation was maintained for all four maskers tested, and ranged from $r = -0.84$ obtained in car-noise conditions to $r = -0.88$ in street noise conditions. Further improvement in correlation was attained when including only mid-level energy frames (i.e., frames with RMS energy in the range of 0 to -10 dB relative to the overall RMS level) in the calculation of the SNRLESC measure. The resulting correlation improved to $r = -0.85$ (see Table 4).
3. Experiments with the SNR_{LOSS} measure indicated that the spectral distortions introduced by noise-suppression algorithms do not contribute proportionally, within a 30 dB dynamic range, to the loss in speech intelligibility. Only spectral distortions falling within a 6 dB range (i.e., within $[-3, 3]$ dB) were found to contribute the most to intelligibility loss, at least for the two input SNR levels (0 and 5 dB) tested in this study.

4. When limited within the $[-3, 3]$ dB range, the spectral attenuation distortions were found to carry a larger perceptual weight compared to the spectral amplification distortions (see Table 5 and Figure 10). Equal weight, however, needs to be applied to the two spectral distortions (amplification and attenuation) for maximum correlation with the SNR_{LOSS} measure (see Table 5).
5. Comparison of the correlations obtained with the proposed SNR_{LOSS} measure against other conventional measures, revealed that the SNR_{LOSS} measure yielded a higher correlation than the PESQ and AI-based measures with sentence recognition scores, but did not perform as well as the STI-based measure (NCM).
6. The squared spectral log difference measure (Eq. (10)), which is often used to assess speech distortion introduced by speech enhancement algorithms [27] or vector quantizers [25], yielded the lowest correlation ($|r|=0.26-0.33$) for both consonant and sentence recognition tasks. This result demonstrates the negative implications of lumping the amplification and attenuation distortions into one, as done when the difference between the clean and processed magnitude-spectra is squared. This outcome thus highlights the importance of isolating the two types of distortions introduced by enhancement algorithms, as done in the implementation of the SNR_{LOSS} measure.
7. The decomposition of the SNR loss measure into the intelligibility loss introduced by spectral attenuation and spectral amplification distortions can serve as a valuable tool for analyzing the performance (in terms of intelligibility loss) of enhancement algorithms.

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APPENDIX A

In this Appendix we prove the relationship given in Eq. (14) between the signal-to-residual noise ratio (SNR_{ES}) and the excitation spectral correlation, $r^2(m)$.

First, we assume that the excitation spectra have zero mean, and that

$$\widehat{X}(j, m) = X(j, m) + R(j, m) \quad (17)$$

where $\widehat{X}(j, m)$ is the enhanced spectrum and $R(j, m)$ denotes the residual excitation spectrum in the j th band. We further assume that $X(j, m)$ and $R(j, m)$ are uncorrelated, i.e., that $E[X(j, m) \cdot R(j, m)] = 0$. After dropping the band and frame indices (j, m) for convenience, we compute the normalized correlation between X and \widehat{X} as follows:

$$r^2 = \frac{(E[\widehat{X} \cdot X])^2}{\sigma_X^2 \cdot \sigma_{\widehat{X}}^2} \quad (18)$$

where σ_X^2 denotes the variance of X and $\sigma_{\widehat{X}}^2$ denotes the variance of \widehat{X} . Substituting Eq. (17) into the above equation, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} r^2 &= \frac{(E[(X+R) \cdot X])^2}{\sigma_X^2 \cdot (\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_R^2)} = \frac{(E[X^2])^2}{\sigma_X^2 \cdot (\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_R^2)} = \frac{(\sigma_X^2)^2}{\sigma_X^2 \cdot (\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_R^2)} = \frac{\sigma_X^2}{\sigma_X^2 + \sigma_R^2} \\ &= \frac{SNR_{ES}}{SNR_{ES} + 1} \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

where $SNR_{ES} \hat{=} \sigma_X^2 / \sigma_R^2$ is the signal-to-residual noise ratio. Solving for SNR_{ES} in the above equation, yields Eq. (14). Note that a similar equation was derived in [39], but based on the normalized correlation between the clean and noisy signals, rather than the clean and enhanced signals.

In practice, the excitation spectra X and \hat{X} have non-zero means, which we denote by μ_X and $\mu_{\hat{X}}$ respectively. Consequently, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} E[X^2] &= \sigma_X^2 + \mu_X^2, & E[\hat{X}^2] &= \sigma_{\hat{X}}^2 + \mu_{\hat{X}}^2, & E[R^2] &= \sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2 \\ \sigma_{\hat{X}}^2 &= E[\hat{X}^2] - \mu_{\hat{X}}^2 = E[X^2] + E[R^2] - \mu_X^2 - \mu_{\hat{X}}^2 = \sigma_X^2 + \mu_X^2 + \sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2 - \mu_X^2 - \mu_{\hat{X}}^2 \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

and the non normalized covariance between X and \hat{X} becomes:

$$r_{\mu}^2 = \frac{\text{cov}(X, \hat{X})}{\sigma_X \sigma_{\hat{X}}} = \frac{(E[X \cdot \hat{X}] - \mu_X \mu_{\hat{X}})^2}{\sigma_X^2 \sigma_{\hat{X}}^2} = \frac{(\sigma_X^2 + \mu_X^2 - \mu_X \mu_{\hat{X}})^2}{\sigma_X^2 (\sigma_X^2 + \mu_X^2 + \sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2 - \mu_{\hat{X}}^2)} \quad (21)$$

After some algebraic manipulation and utilizing the following new definition of SNR_{ES} which accounts for the non-zero means:

$$\text{SNR}_{ES} = \frac{E[X^2]}{E[R^2]} = \frac{\sigma_X^2 + \mu_X^2}{\sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2} \quad (22)$$

we get:

$$r_{\mu}^2 = \frac{\text{SNR}_{ES} + C}{\text{SNR}_{ES} + 1 - D} \quad (23)$$

where the terms C and D are given by:

$$C = \frac{\mu_X^4}{\sigma_X^2 (\sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2)} + \frac{\mu_X^2}{\sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2} + \frac{(\mu_{\hat{X}} \mu_X)^2}{\sigma_X^2 (\sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2)} - 2 \frac{\mu_{\hat{X}} \mu_X}{(\sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2)} \left(1 + \frac{\mu_X^2}{\sigma_X^2} \right) \quad (24)$$

$$D = \frac{\mu_{\hat{X}}^2}{\sigma_R^2 + \mu_R^2} \quad (25)$$

It is clear from Eq. (24) and (25), that if $\mu_X = \mu_{\hat{X}} = 0$, then Eq. (23) reduces to Eq. (19). Solving for SNR_E in Eq. (23), we get:

$$\text{SNR}_{ES} = \frac{r_{\mu}^2(1 - D) - C}{1 - r_{\mu}^2} \quad (26)$$

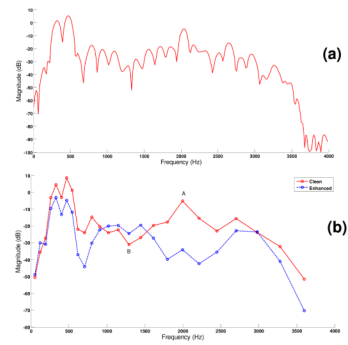


Figure 1.

Top panel (a) shows the FFT magnitude spectrum of a vowel segment excised from the word “trick” in quiet. Bottom panel (b) shows the excitation spectra of the clean signal and enhanced signal obtained using the RDC spectral-subtractive algorithm [22]. The band labeled A in panel (b) shows an example of spectral attenuation distortion, while the band labeled B shows an example of spectral amplification distortion.

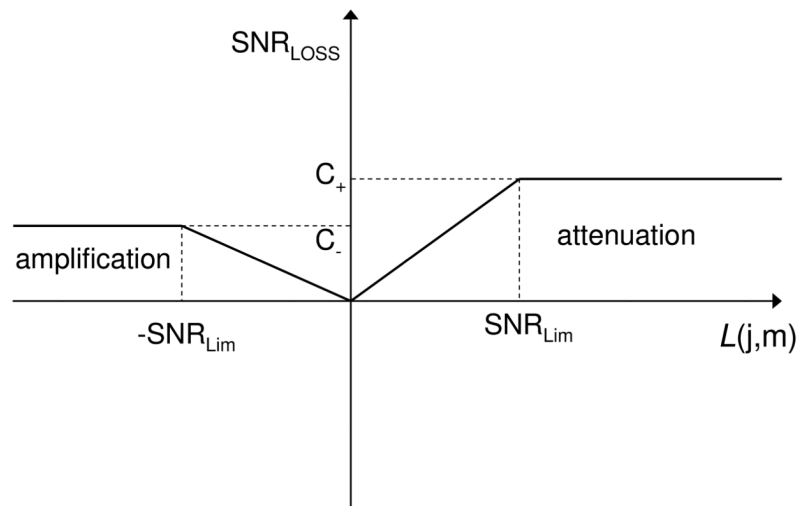


Figure 2. Mapping of the difference $L(j,m)$ (in dB) between the clean and enhanced signals to SNR_{LOSS} . The parameters C_+ and C_- , and the SNR range $([-SNR_{LIM}, SNR_{LIM}]$ dB) control the slope of the mapping function.

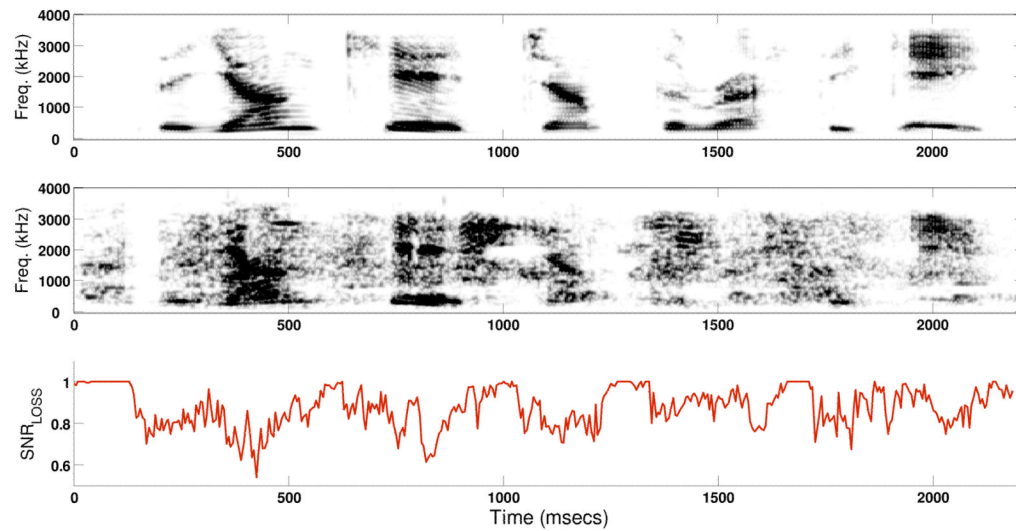


Figure 3.

Top two panels show spectrograms of a sentence in quiet and corrupt sentence processed by the RDC spectral-subtractive algorithm [22] respectively. The input sentence was corrupted by babble at 0 dB SNR. Bottom panel shows the frame SNR_{LOSS} values. The average SNR_{LOSS} was 0.86 (SNR_{LIM} was set to 5 dB).

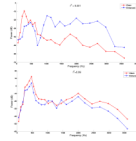


Figure 4.

Example excitation spectra of the clean and enhanced signals in two different scenarios. Top panel shows an example in which the spectral amplification and attenuation distortions are non-uniformly distributed across the spectrum. Bottom panel shows an example in which the enhanced spectrum is for the most part uniformly (across nearly all bands) attenuated. The resulting excitation spectrum correlation (ESC) is indicated in the top of each figure.

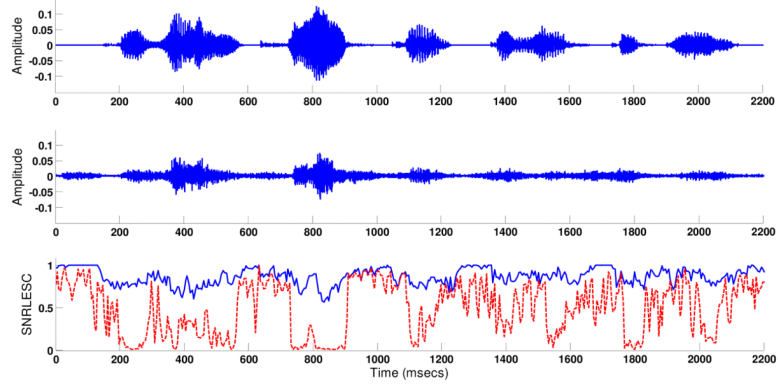


Figure 5.

The top two panels show time-domain waveforms of a sentence in quiet and processed by the RDC spectral-subtractive algorithm respectively. The input sentence was corrupted by babble at 0 dB SNR (same as in Figure 3). Bottom panel shows the frame SNRLESC values (dashed lines) superimposed to the frame SNR_{LOSS} values (solid lines). The average SNR_{LOSS} was 0.86 and the average SNRLESC value was 0.48 (SNR_{LIM} was set to 5 dB).

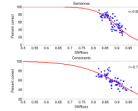


Figure 6. Scatter plots of the intelligibility scores obtained by human listeners and predicted SNR_{LOSS} values for the sentence and consonants materials.

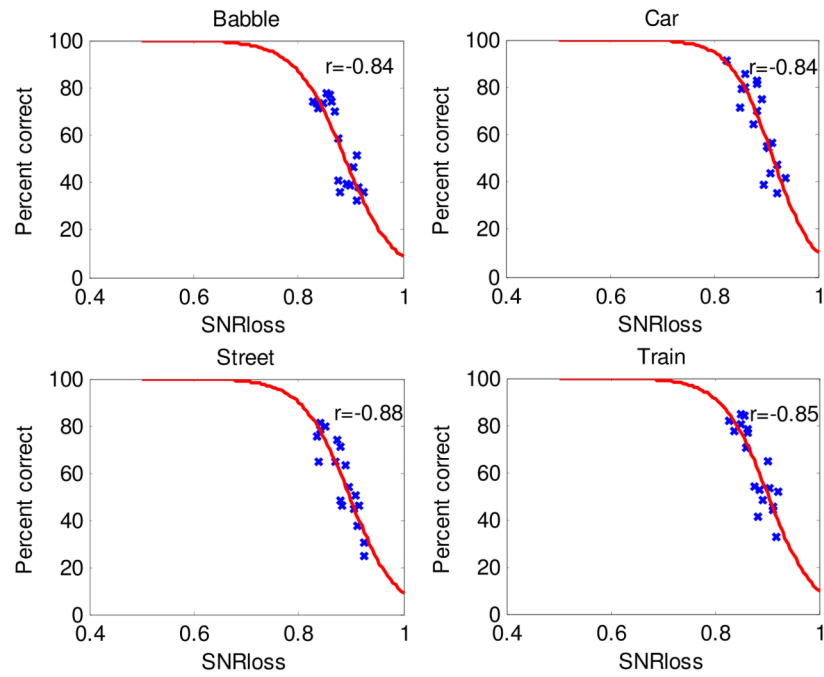


Figure 7. Individual scatter plots of the sentence intelligibility scores and predicted SNR_{LOSS} values for the four maskers tested.

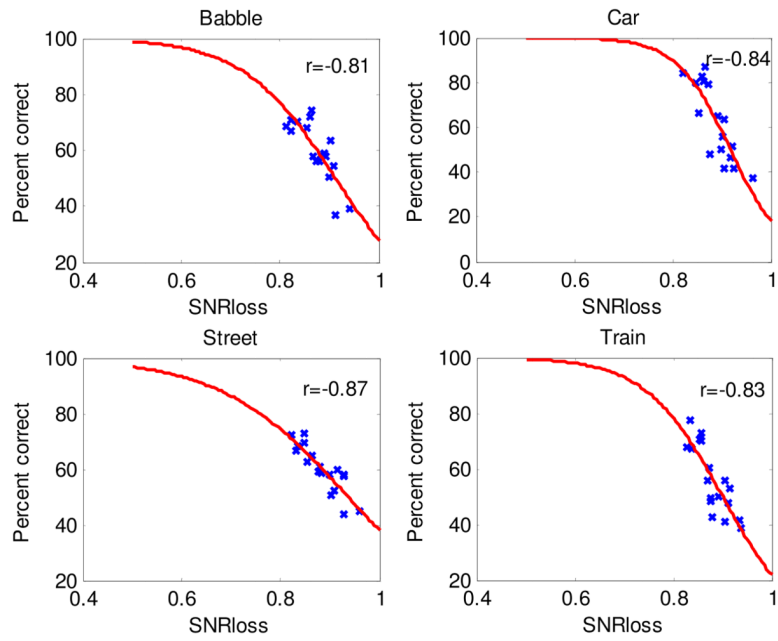


Figure 8. Individual scatter plots of the consonant intelligibility scores and predicted SNR_{LOSS} values for the four maskers tested.

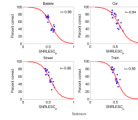


Figure 9. Individual scatter plots of the sentence intelligibility scores and predicted SNRLESC μ values for the four maskers tested.

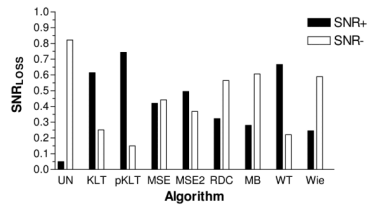


Figure 10.

Plot of the SNR_+ and SNR_- values for the 8 enhancement algorithms used in the 5-dB SNR car noise condition [20]. SNR_+ indicates the predicted loss in intelligibility due to spectral attenuation distortions, and SNR_- indicates the predicted loss in intelligibility due to spectral amplification distortions. The unprocessed (corrupted) sentences are indicated as UN, and the enhancement algorithms include the KLT [40], pKLT [33], MSE [41], MSE2 [41], RDC [22], MB [42], WT [43] and Wie [34] algorithms.

Table 1

Band-importance functions [4] used in the implementation of the SNR_{LOSS} and SNR_{LESC} measures for consonants and sentence materials.

Band	Center frequencies (Hz)	Consonants	Sentences
1	50.0000	0.0000	0.0064
2	120.000	0.0000	0.0154
3	190.000	0.0092	0.0240
4	260.000	0.0245	0.0373
5	330.000	0.0354	0.0803
6	400.000	0.0398	0.0978
7	470.000	0.0414	0.0982
8	540.000	0.0427	0.0809
9	617.372	0.0447	0.0690
10	703.378	0.0472	0.0608
11	798.717	0.0473	0.0529
12	904.128	0.0472	0.0473
13	1020.38	0.0476	0.0440
14	1148.30	0.0511	0.0440
15	1288.72	0.0529	0.0470
16	1442.54	0.0551	0.0489
17	1610.70	0.0586	0.0486
18	1794.16	0.0657	0.0491
19	1993.93	0.0711	0.0492
20	2211.08	0.0746	0.0500
21	2446.71	0.0749	0.0538
22	2701.97	0.0717	0.0551
23	2978.04	0.0681	0.0545
24	3276.17	0.0668	0.0508
25	3597.63	0.0653	0.0449

Table 2

Correlations between the proposed measures and consonants/sentence recognition scores. The SNR range used in the computation of the SNR_{LOSS} and SNRLESC measures was fixed at $[-15, 15]$ dB.

Speech Material	Objective measure	r	σ_e
Consonants	SNR_{LOSS}	-0.67	0.09
	ESC	0.70	0.09
	ESC_{High}	0.61	0.10
	ESC_{Mid}	0.73	0.08
	ESC_{Low}	0.29	0.12
	ESC_{μ}	0.68	0.09
	$\text{ESC}_{\mu\text{-High}}$	0.60	0.10
	$\text{ESC}_{\mu\text{-Mid}}$	0.71	0.09
	$\text{ESC}_{\mu\text{-Low}}$	0.56	0.10
	SNRLESC	-0.71	0.09
	SNRLESC_{μ}	-0.66	0.09
	SD_{CB}	-0.33	0.12
	Sentences	SNR_{LOSS}	-0.61
ESC		0.82	0.10
ESC_{High}		0.83	0.10
ESC_{Mid}		0.84	0.09
ESC_{Low}		0.46	0.15
ESC_{μ}		0.83	0.10
$\text{ESC}_{\mu\text{-High}}$		0.83	0.10
$\text{ESC}_{\mu\text{-Mid}}$		0.83	0.10
$\text{ESC}_{\mu\text{-Low}}$		0.57	0.14
SNRLESC		-0.72	0.12
SNRLESC_{μ}		-0.72	0.12
SD_{CB}		-0.26	0.17

Table 3

Correlations between the SNR_{LOSS} measure and consonants/sentence recognition scores as a function of the SNR dynamic range.

Speech material	SNR Range (dB)	r	σ_e
Consonants	[-1,1]	-0.73	0.08
	[-3,3]	-0.77	0.08
	[-5,5]	-0.76	0.08
	[-10,5]	-0.75	0.08
	[-10,10]	-0.72	0.09
	[-10,35]	-0.33	0.12
	[-15,5]	-0.72	0.09
	[-15,10]	-0.71	0.09
	[-15,15]	-0.67	0.09
	[-15,35]	-0.39	0.11
	[-20,5]	-0.68	0.09
	[-20,10]	-0.69	0.09
	[-20,20]	-0.62	0.10
	[-25,10]	-0.66	0.09
Sentences	[-1,1]	-0.77	0.11
	[-3,3]	-0.82	0.10
	[-5,5]	-0.80	0.10
	[-10,5]	-0.76	0.11
	[-10,10]	-0.71	0.12
	[-10,35]	-0.31	0.17
	[-15,5]	-0.69	0.139
	[-15,10]	-0.67	0.13
	[-15,15]	-0.61	0.14
	[-15,35]	-0.36	0.16
	[-20,5]	-0.62	0.14
	[-20,10]	-0.62	0.14
	[-20,20]	-0.53	0.15
	[-25,10]	-0.57	0.14
[-30,10]	-0.52	0.15	

Table 4

Correlations between the SNRLESC measure and consonants/sentence recognition scores. The SNR range was set to $[-3, 3]$ dB.

Speech Material	Objective measure	r	σ_e
Consonants	SNRLESC	-0.73	0.08
	SNRLESC _{High}	-0.64	0.09
	SNRLESC _{Mid}	-0.74	0.08
	SNRLESC _{Low}	-0.39	0.11
	SNRLESC μ	-0.70	0.09
	SNRLESC μ -High	-0.63	0.10
	SNRLESC μ -Mid	-0.73	0.08
	SNRLESC μ -Low	-0.59	0.10
	Sentences	SNRLESC	-0.82
SNRLESC _{High}		-0.84	0.09
SNRLESC _{Mid}		-0.85	0.09
SNRLESC _{Low}		-0.51	0.15
SNRLESC μ		-0.84	0.09
SNRLESC μ -High		-0.84	0.09
SNRLESC μ -Mid		-0.85	0.09
SNRLESC μ -Low		-0.58	0.14

Table 5

Correlations between the SNR_{LOSS} measure and consonants/sentence recognition scores for various values of the parameters $C+$ and $C-$.

Material	$C-$	$C+$	r	σ_e
Consonants	1	0	0.11	0.12
	1	0.2	0.08	0.12
	1	0.4	0.02	0.12
	1	0.6	-0.10	0.12
	1	0.8	-0.42	0.11
	1	1	-0.77	0.08
	0	1	-0.24	0.12
	0.2	1	-0.27	0.12
	0.4	1	-0.31	0.12
	0.6	1	-0.39	0.11
	0.8	1	-0.55	0.10
Sentences	1	0	0.06	0.17
	1	0.2	0.03	0.17
	1	0.4	-0.03	0.17
	1	0.6	-0.13	0.17
	1	0.8	-0.41	0.16
	1	1	-0.82	0.10
	0	1	-0.18	0.17
	0.2	1	-0.21	0.17
	0.4	1	-0.25	0.17
	0.6	1	-0.33	0.16
	0.8	1	-0.51	0.15

Table 6

Comparison of correlations with the proposed SNR_{LOSS} , SNRLESC and ESC measures, against other conventional objective measures reported in Ma *et al.*, 2009.

Speech Material	Objective measure	r	σ_e
Consonants	SNR_{LOSS}	-0.77	0.08
	SNRLESC	-0.73	0.08
	$\text{SNRLESC}_{\mu\text{-Mid}}$	-0.73	0.08
	ESC	0.70	0.09
	PESQ	0.77	0.08
	AI-ST(Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	0.68	0.10
	NCM (Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	0.77	0.08
Sentences	SNR_{LOSS}	-0.82	0.10
	SNRLESC	-0.82	0.10
	$\text{SNRLESC}_{\text{Mid}}$	-0.85	0.09
	ESC	0.82	0.10
	PESQ	0.79	0.11
	AI-ST(Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	0.80	0.11
	NCM (Ma <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	0.89	0.07