# Speech Signal Analysis

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Automatic Speech Recognition— ASR Lectures 2&3 18,22 January 2018

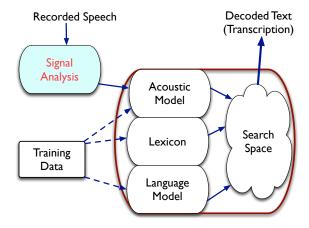
#### Speech Signal Analysis for ASR

- Features for ASR
- Spectral analysis
- Cepstral analysis
- Standard features for ASR: FBANK, MFCCs and PLP analysis
- Dynamic features

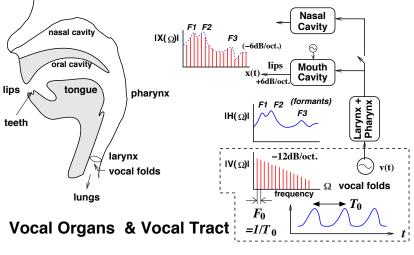
Reading:

- Jurafsky & Martin, sec 9.3
- P Taylor, *Text-to-Speech Synthesis*, chapter 12, signal processing background chapter 10

# Speech signal analysis for ASR



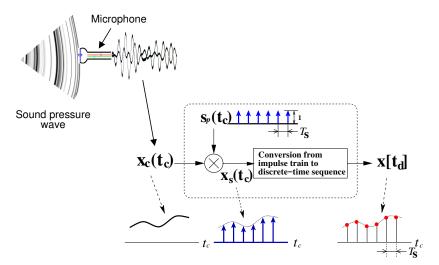
### Speech production model



 $(F_0 : fundamental frequency)$ 

# A/D conversion — Sampling

#### Convert analogue signals in digital form



Things to know:

• Sampling Frequency ( $F_s = 1/T_s$ )

Speech	Sufficient F <sub>s</sub>
Microphone voice $(< 10 kHz)$	20 <i>kHz</i>
Telephone voice (< 4 <i>kHz</i> )	8 <i>kHz</i>

• Analogue low-pass filtering to avoid 'aliasing' NB: the cut-off frequency should be less than the Nyquist frequency (=  $F_s/2$ )

### Acoustic Features for ASR

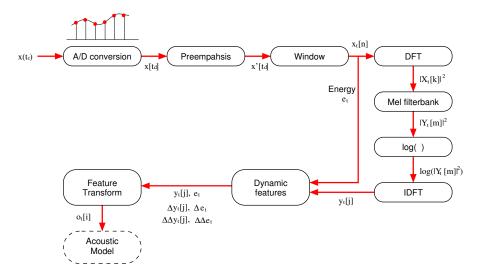


Speech signal analysis to produce a sequence of acoustic feature vectors

Desirable characteristics of acoustic features used for ASR:

- Features should contain sufficient information to distinguish between phones
  - good time resolution (10ms)
  - good frequency resolution (20  $\sim$  40 channels)
- Be separated from  $F_0$  and its harmonics
- Be robust against speaker variation
- Be robust against noise or channel distortions
- Have good "pattern recognition characteristics"
  - low feature dimension
  - features are independent of each other (NB: this applies to GMMs, but not required for NN-based systems)

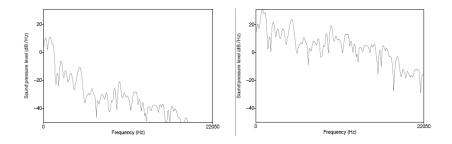
### MFCC-based front end for ASR



- Pre-emphasis increases the magnitude of higher frequencies in the speech signal compared with lower frequencies
- Spectral Tilt
  - The speech signal has more energy at low frequencies (for voiced speech)
  - This is due to the glottal source (see the figure)
- Pre-emphasis (first-order) filter boosts higher frequencies:

$$x'[t_d] = x[t_d] - \alpha x[t_d - 1]$$
 0.95 <  $\alpha$  < 0.99

#### Pre-emphasis: example



#### Vowel /aa/ - time slice of the spectrum

(Jurafsky & Martin, fig. 9.9)

# Windowing

- The speech signal is constantly changing (non-stationary)
- Signal processing algorithms usually assume that the signal is stationary
- Piecewise stationarity: model speech signal as a sequence of **frames** (each assumed to be stationary)
- **Windowing**: multiply the full waveform *s*[*n*] by a window *w*[*n*] (in time domain):

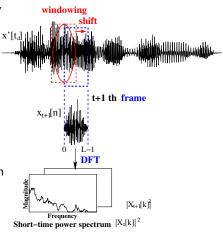
 $\boldsymbol{x[n]} = \boldsymbol{w[n]} \boldsymbol{s[n]} \qquad (x_t[n] = \boldsymbol{w[n]} \boldsymbol{x'[t_d+n]})$ 

- Simply cutting out a short segment (frame) from *s*[*n*] is a rectangular window causes discontinuities at the edges of the segment
- Instead, a tapered window is usually used e.g. Hamming ( $\alpha = 0.46164$ ) or Hanning ( $\alpha = 0.5$ ) window

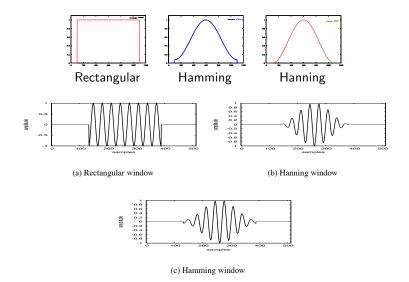
$$w[n] = (1-\alpha) - \alpha \cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{L-1}\right)$$
  $L$ : window width

## Windowing and spectral analysis

- Window the signal x'[t<sub>d</sub>] into frames x<sub>t</sub>[n] and apply Fourier Transform to each segment.
  - Short frame width: wide-band, high time resolution, low frequency resolution
  - Long frame width: *narrow-band*, low time resolution, high frequency resolution
- For ASR:
  - $\bullet~{\rm frame}~{\rm width}~{\sim}~25 {\it ms}$
  - frame shift  $\sim 10 ms$

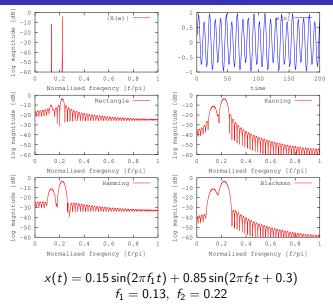


#### Effect of windowing — time domain

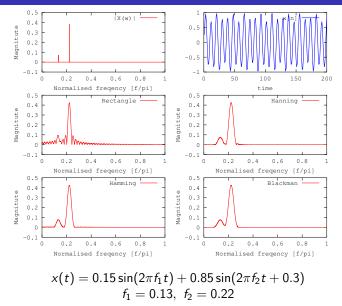


(Taylor, fig 12.1)

# Effect of windowing — frequency domain



# Effect of windowing — frequency domain



## Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)

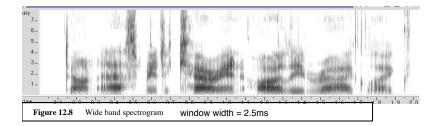
- Purpose: extracts spectral information from a windowed signal (i.e. how much energy at each frequency band)
- Input: windowed signal  $x[0], \ldots, x[L-1]$  (time domain)
- Output: a complex number X[k] for each of N frequency bands representing magnitude and phase for the kth frequency component (frequency domain)
- Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT):

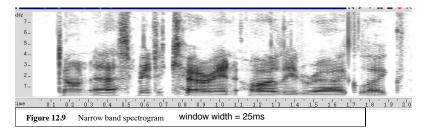
$$X[k] = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] \exp\left(-j\frac{2\pi}{N}kn\right)$$

NB:  $\exp(j\theta) = e^{j\theta} = \cos(\theta) + j\sin(\theta)$ 

 Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) — efficient algorithm for computing DFT when N is a power of 2, and N ≥ L.

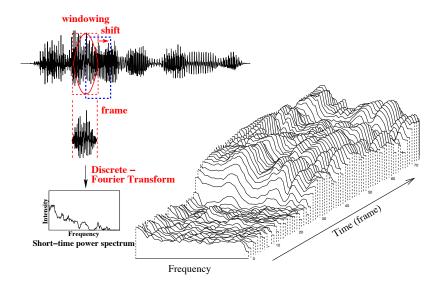
#### Wide-band and narrow-band spectrograms

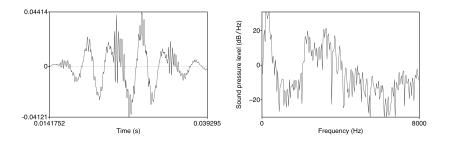




(Taylor, figs 12.8, 12.9)

#### Short-time spectral analysis



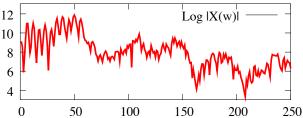


25ms Hamming window of vowel  $/\mathrm{iy}/$  and its spectrum computed by DFT

(Jurafsky and Martin, fig 9.12)

# DFT Spectrum Features for ASR

- Equally-spaced frequency bands but human hearing less sensitive at higher frequencies (above  $\sim$  1000Hz)
- The estimated power spectrum contains harmonics of F0, which makes it difficult to estimate the envelope of the spectrum



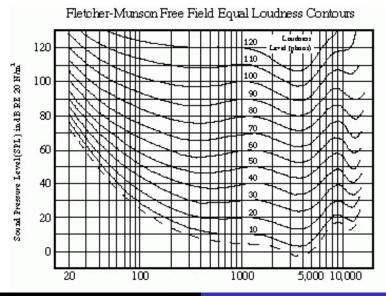
• Frequency bins of STFT are highly correlated each other, i.e. power spectrum representation is highly redundant

Physical quality	Perceptual quality
Intensity	Loudness
Fundamental frequency	Pitch
Spectral shape	Timbre
Onset/offset time	Timing
Phase difference in binaural hearing	Location

#### Technical terms

- equal-loudness contours
- masking
- auditory filters (critical-band filters)
- critical bandwidth

## Equal loudness contour



### Nonlinear frequency scaling

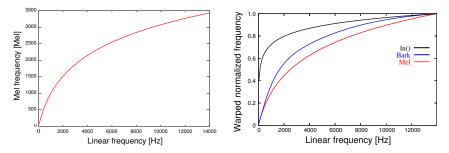
Human hearing is less sensitive to higher frequencies — thus human perception of frequency is nonlinear

#### Mel scale

#### Bark scale

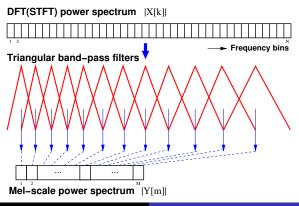
$$M(f) = 1127 \ln(1 + f/700)$$

$$b(f) = 13 \arctan(0.00076f) \\+ 3.5 \arctan((f/7500)^2)$$



## Mel-Filter Bank

- Apply a mel-scale filter bank to DFT power spectrum to obtain mel-scale power spectrum
- Each filter collects energy from a number of frequency bands in the DFT
- $\bullet\,$  Linearly spaced < 1000 Hz, logarithmically spaced > 1000 Hz



#### Mel-Filter Bank (cont.)

$$|Y_t[m]| = \sum_{k=1}^{N} W_m[k] |X_t[k]|$$

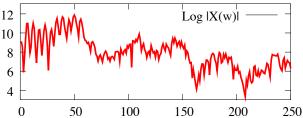
- where k: DFT bin number (1, ..., N)m: mel-filter bank number (1, ..., M).
- How many number of mel-filter channels?
  - $\approx$  20 for GMM-HMM based ASR 20  $\sim$  40 for DNN (+HMM) based ASR

# Log Mel Power Spectrum

- Compute the log magnitude squared of each mel-filter bank output: log |Y[m]|<sup>2</sup>
  - Taking the log compresses the dynamic range
  - Human sensitivity to signal energy is logarithmic i.e. humans are less sensitive to small changes in energy at high energy than small changes at low energy
  - Log makes features less variable to acoustic coupling variations
  - Removes phase information not important for speech recognition (not everyone agrees with this)
- Aka "log mel-filter bank outputs" or "FBANK features", which are widely used in recent DNN-HMM based ASR systems

# DFT Spectrum Features for ASR

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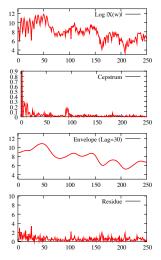


• Frequency bins of STFT are highly correlated each other, i.e. power spectrum representation is highly redundant

- Source-Filter model of speech production
  - Source: Vocal cord vibrations create a glottal source waveform
  - **Filter**: Source waveform is passed through the vocal tract: position of tongue, jaw, etc. give it a particular shape and hence a particular filtering characteristic
- Source characteristics (*F*<sub>0</sub>, dynamics of glottal pulse) do not help to discriminate between phones
- The filter specifies the position of the articulators
- ... and hence is directly related to phone discrimination
- Cepstral analysis enables us to separate source and filter

# Cepstral Analysis

Split power spectrum into spectral envelope and  $F_0$  harmonics.



Log spectrum (freq domain)

 $\Downarrow$  Inverse Fourier Transform

Cepstrum (time domain) (quefrency) ↓ Liftering to get low/high part

- (lifter: filter used in cepstral domain)
- ↓ Fourier Transform

Smoothed log spectrum (freq domain) [low-part of cepstrum]

Fine structure [high-part of cepstrum]

## The Cepstrum

- Cepstrum obtained by applying inverse DFT to log magnitude spectrum (may be mel-scaled)
- Cepstrum is time-domain (we talk about quefrency)
- Inverse DFT:

$$x[n] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X[k] \exp\left(j\frac{2\pi}{N}nk\right)$$

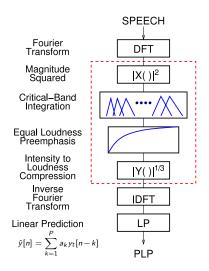
• Since log power spectrum is real and symmetric the inverse DFT is equivalent to a discrete cosine transform (DCT)

$$y_t[n] = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \log(|Y_t[m]|) \cos\left(n(m+0.5)\frac{\pi}{M}\right), \quad n = 0, \dots, J$$

# MFCCs

- Smoothed spectrum: transform to cepstral domain, truncate, transform back to spectral domain
- Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCCs): use the cepstral coefficients directly
  - Widely used as acoustic features in HMM-based ASR
  - First 12 MFCCs are often used as the feature vector (removes F0 information)
  - Less correlated than spectral features easier to model than spectral features
  - Very compact representation 12 features describe a 20ms frame of data
  - For standard HMM-based systems, MFCCs result in better ASR performance than filter bank or spectrogram features
  - MFCCs are not robust against noise

# PLP — Perceptual Linear Prediction



- PLP (Hermansky, JASA 1990)
- Uses equal loudness pre-emphasis and cube-root compression (motivated by perceptual results) rather than log compression
- Uses linear predictive auto-regressive modelling to obtain cepstral coefficients
- PLP has been shown to lead to
  - slightly better ASR accuracy
  - slightly better noise robustness

compared with MFCCs

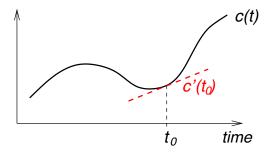
# Dynamic features

- Speech is not constant frame-to-frame, so we can add features to do with how the cepstral coefficients change over time
- Δ\*, Δ<sup>2</sup>\* are delta features (dynamic features / time derivatives)
- Simple calculation of delta features d(t) at time t for cepstral feature c(t) (e.g. yt[j]):

$$d(t) = rac{c(t+1) - c(t-1)}{2}$$

- More sophisticated approach estimates the temporal derivative by using regression to estimate the slope (typically using 4 frames each side)
- "Standard" ASR features (for GMM-based systems) are 39 dimensions:
  - 12 MFCCs, and energy
  - 12  $\Delta$ MFCCs,  $\Delta$ energy
  - 12  $\Delta^2$ MFCCs,  $\Delta^2$ energy

# Estimating dynamic features



## Feature Transforms

- Orthogonal transformation (orthogonal bases)
  - **DCT** (discrete cosine transform)
  - PCA (principal component analysis)
- Transformation based on the bases that maximises the separability between classes.
  - LDA (linear discriminant analysis) / Fisher's linear discriminant
  - HLDA (heteroscedastic linear discriminant analysis)

### Feature Normalisation

- Basic Idea: Transform the features to reduce mismatch between training and test
- Cepstral Mean Normalisation (CMN): subtract the average feature value from each feature, so each feature has a mean value of 0. makes features robust to some linear filtering of the signal (channel variation)
- Cepstral Variance Normalisation (CVN): Divide feature vector by standard deviation of feature vectors, so each feature vector element has a variance of 1
- Cepstral mean and variance normalisation, CMN/CVN:

$$\hat{y}_t[j] = \frac{y_t[j] - \mu(y[j])}{\sigma(y[j])}$$

- Compute mean and variance statistics over longest available segments with the same speaker/channel
- Real time normalisation: compute a moving average

See Tables 1, 2, and 3 in

Jinyu Li, Dong Yu, Jui-Ting Huang, and Yifan Gong, "Improving Wideband Speech Recognition Using Mixed-Bandwidth Training Data In CD-DNN-HMM", 2012 IEEE Workshop in Spoken Language Technology (SLT2012). http://research-srv.microsoft.com/pubs/179159/li.pdf

### Summary: Speech Signal Analysis for ASR

- Good characteristics of ASR features
- FBANK features
  - Short-time DFT analysis
  - Mel-filter bank
  - Log magnitude squared
  - Widely used for DNN ASR ( $M \approx 40$ )
- MFCCs mel frequency cepstral coefficients
  - FBANK features
  - Inverse DFT (DCT)
  - Use first few (12) coefficients
  - Widely used for GMM-HMM ASR
- Delta features (dynamic features)
- 39-dimension feature vector (for GMM-HMM ASR): MFCC-12 + energy; + Deltas; + Delta-Deltas