An Industrial Internship Project Report

on

“Study and Implementation of Audio Classification”

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BACHELOR’S DEGREE IN

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

Submitted by

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CERTIFICATE

This is certified that the project entitled

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This is a record of Bonafide work carried out by him, in the partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Degree of Bachelor of Engineering (Computer Science & Engineering OR Information Technology) at KIIT Deemed to be university, Bhubaneswar. This work is done during year 2024-2025, under my supervision and guidance.

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I have formed and written the project report titled "**Study and Implementation Audio Classification**", under the guidance **of Ms. Annapurna Agrawal** of **Research & Development Establishment (Engineers) (R&DE(E))**, guided by **Dr. Satyananda Champati Rai**, School of Computer Engineering, Kalinga Institute of Industrial Technology, Odisha.

This work has not been previously submitted for the basis of the award of any degree or other similar title of this for any other University.

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ABSTRACT

This project focuses on the comprehensive study and implementation of an advanced audio classification system using various Machine Learning and Deep Learning Models. In the context of surveillance, defence, and autonomous systems, the ability to classify and differentiate sounds accurately is of critical importance. From human speech to non-human sounds such as animal calls, bird chirps, vehicle engines, or environmental noise, the system aims to analyse, detect, and classify these categories effectively.

The module developed in this project supports offline audio input. The initial phase involved capturing audio signals, preprocessing them, and performing detailed feature extraction using descriptors such as Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCC), spectral entropy, frequency content, zero-crossing rate (ZCR), and spectral centroid. Feature selection algorithms were employed to reduce dimensionality while maintaining discriminative power.

These features were then used as input to an Convolutional Recurrent Neural Network (**CRNN**)classifier, which was trained and validated on a diverse dataset representing multiple sound categories. The implementation leveraged Python libraries including Librosa, NumPy, and Matplotlib within a Jupiter notebook environment. Additional tools like Anaconda and Visual Studio Code were used to manage the development environment and streamline the workflow. The model was evaluated based on accuracy, confusion matrices, and precision-recall metrics to validate its effectiveness. The developed system demonstrates practical application in automated sound classification for defence purposes, such as perimeter monitoring, battlefield audio intelligence, and human machine interface. Future enhancements could include the integration of more complex features, use of ensemble classifiers, and deployment on edge devices for real-time inference

Table of Contents

List of Abbreviations

Short Form	Long Form
LSTM	Long Short-Term Memory
MFCC	Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients
ZCR	Zero Crossing Rate
RMSE	Root Mean Square Energy
FFT	Fast Fourier Transform
DFT	Discrete Fourier Transform
STFT	Short-Time Fourier Transform
BER	Band Energy Ratio
ADC	Analog to Digital Converter
RNN	Recurrent Neural Network
CNN	Convolutional Neural Network
CRNN	Convolutional Recurrent Neural Network
Bi-LSTM	Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory
UI	User Interface
IDE	Integrated Development Environment
SVM	Support Vector Machine
k-NN / kNN	k-Nearest Neighbors

ROC	Receiver Operating Characteristic
AUC	Area Under the Curve
ADSR	Attack-Decay-Sustain-Release (sound envelope)
MI	Machine Intelligence
WAV	Waveform Audio File Format (implied from .wave files)

CHAPTER1:

Introduction

1.1 Background: In the modern era of intelligent systems, audio signal processing has become an essential component in the design of autonomous platforms used across defence, surveillance, and smart robotics applications. Environmental audio data carries critical contextual information that, when properly interpreted, can support real-time situational awareness, threat detection, and behavioural analytics in complex and dynamic environments. Manual monitoring and classification of sounds are not only labour-intensive but also unreliable, particularly under high stress or noisy conditions. This gap in operational efficiency has given rise to the need for automated audio classification systems powered by machine learning algorithms.

Historically, audio classification relied heavily on handcrafted feature extraction techniques combined with traditional classifiers such as support vector machines (SVM) and hidden Markov models (HMM). While these methods laid the groundwork for acoustic scene understanding, they often fell short in adapting to complex, real-world environments where audio signals are contaminated with noise, reverberations, and overlapping sources. The evolution of deep learning has revolutionized this field, enabling systems to learn hierarchical representations directly from raw or minimally processed audio data, thereby significantly improving classification accuracy and robustness.

Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks, a class of recurrent neural networks (RNNs), have shown exceptional promise in modelling temporal patterns in sequential data such as audio signals. By leveraging their ability to retain long-range dependencies, LSTMs enable machines to understand and differentiate between a wide range of acoustic events — from human speech and

mechanical noise to animal vocalizations and environmental sounds. This capability is vital in mission-critical domains such as military surveillance, autonomous vehicles, industrial automation, and public safety monitoring.

However, to further enhance performance, Convolutional Recurrent Neural Networks (CRNNs) have emerged as a powerful alternative. CRNNs combine the feature extraction strength of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with the temporal modelling capability of RNNs (typically using LSTM or GRU layers). This hybrid approach allows CRNNs to capture both local spatial patterns (like frequency-time correlations in spectrograms) and global temporal dynamics, making them particularly effective for complex and noisy audio classification tasks. In practical scenarios, CRNNs often outperform standalone LSTM or CNN models, offering improved robustness and accuracy in real-world audio recognition applications.

In robotics, especially autonomous and semi-autonomous platforms, the ability to classify ambient sounds enhances navigation, obstacle avoidance, and human-robot interaction, making systems more adaptive and context-aware. Furthermore, the integration of audio classification with other sensory modalities like video and lidar in multimodal systems further strengthens situational awareness and operational reliability.

Despite significant advances, challenges remain in building generalized audio classification systems capable of performing reliably in diverse, uncontrolled environments. This project focuses on developing a CRNN-based audio classification system designed to address these challenges by combining robust feature extraction techniques with state-of-the-art hybrid sequence modelling.
The goal is to contribute a practical and scalable solution that can be integrated into autonomous systems requiring dependable auditory perception in complex, real-world scenarios. By leveraging the spatial sensitivity of CNNs and the temporal awareness of RNNs,

the CRNN architecture provides enhanced performance and generalization across varied acoustic conditions.

1.2 Problem Statement

The objective of this project is to develop a robust, intelligent audio classification system capable of detecting and identifying a wide variety of environmental and contextual sounds. This system is built using advanced deep learning architectures—specifically Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) with Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) units, and Convolutional Recurrent Neural Networks (CRNNs). The CRNN architecture was ultimately selected as the primary model due to its superior accuracy and ability to capture both spatial and temporal features in audio signals.

The foundation of this work is supported by an in-depth study of ***Fundamentals of Speech Recognition*** **by Rabiner and Juang**, which provided essential insights into speech signal processing, acoustic modelling, and pattern recognition. These concepts guided the development of a comprehensive feature extraction pipeline, incorporating both time-domain and frequency-domain characteristics including MFCCs, Mel spectrograms, amplitude envelopes, and FFT-based spectral analysis.

Unlike static data, audio signals are sequential and time-dependent, requiring models that not only understand short-term spectral patterns (captured by CNNs) but also model long-range temporal dependencies (handled effectively by LSTMs). CRNNs integrate both these abilities into a unified framework.

The project also explores real-time and offline audio classification using audio captured from local microphones and the Pod Track system, in addition to pre-existing datasets such as UrbanSound8K and environmental sound datasets from Kaggle. A separate component of the work includes **audio source localization**, where microphone array geometry and time-difference-of-arrival (TDOA) techniques are used to calculate the angle of incoming sound sources.

Key Challenges Addressed:

- Preprocessing and denoising of real-world waveform audio

- Frame-wise and full-sequence feature extraction (MFCC, spectral centroid, energy, entropy, etc.)
- Dimensionality reduction and efficient representation of audio data
- Design and training of a deep sequential model that captures spatiotemporal patterns
- Testing on diverse audio datasets and evaluation using standard classification metrics
- Handling background noise, overlapping sources, and variable audio quality in field recordings

1.3 Scope of Work

The scope of this project spans the full pipeline of environmental sound classification — from real-time data acquisition to deep learning model deployment. It includes local audio capture, signal processing, feature engineering, deep neural network training, and evaluation.
This system is designed to serve practical applications in areas such as smart surveillance, autonomous robotics, wildlife monitoring, and intelligent ambient sensing, with adaptability to real-world acoustic complexity.

Key features and deliverables of the module include:

- Dual-Mode Audio Input:
  Support for both real-time microphone input (via PodTrack and system microphones) and offline WAV files. This makes the system versatile for prototyping and future deployment.
- Advanced Feature Extraction:
  Extraction of frame-based and full-audio features including MFCCs, spectral flux, Mel spectrograms, entropy, amplitude envelopes, FFT, and zero-crossing rate using the Librosa library.
- Signal Preprocessing:
  Noise reduction, normalization, silence trimming, and segmentation

of long recordings into frames to prepare inputs for machine learning models.

- CRNN Model Design:
  Implementation of a hybrid CNN + LSTM architecture capable of learning both spatial and temporal dependencies. This model significantly outperformed standalone CNN or LSTM approaches in experiments.
- Model Training and Evaluation:
  Training on the UrbanSound8K dataset and custom-recorded data. Evaluation through accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and confusion matrices.
- Audio Source Localization:
  Calculation of direction of arrival (DoA) of sound using a multi-mic array setup and time-delay estimation algorithms.
- Modularity and Scalability:
  The codebase is modular, allowing future enhancements such as audio-event detection, sensor fusion, or integration into embedded systems for robotics.
- Future Extensibility:
  Support for future improvements such as multimodal data fusion (e.g., audio + video), online learning, edge deployment, or wide-area sensor networks.

1.4 Tools and Software Used

To implement and evaluate this system, the following software tools, libraries, and environments were used:

Programming Languages

- **Python**: Core language for audio processing, model development, and evaluation
- **MatLab** For optional UI and system integration components

Libraries & Frameworks

- **Librosa**: For audio feature extraction (MFCCs, Mel Spectrograms, spectral stats)
- **NumPy, Pandas**: For data processing and numerical operations
- **Matplotlib, Seaborn**: For visualization of signals and training performance
- **TensorFlow + Keras**: For designing and training CRNN, CNN, and LSTM architectures

Development Environment

- **Jupyter Notebook**: For exploratory data analysis, prototyping, and model development
- **Anaconda**: For environment and dependency management
- **Visual Studio**: Used for interfacing with external systems and managing C# components

Hardware and Data Tools

- **PodTrack Audio Recorder + External Microphones**: For high-quality, local sound recordings
- **Real-Time Audio Streaming Tools**: For continuous input testing
- **Custom Dataset Utilities**: For segmentation, augmentation, labelling, and preprocessing

1.5 Problem Definition

Audio classification involves identifying and categorizing sound into meaningful classes such as human speech, machinery noise, natural sounds, and more. This task becomes challenging in real-world settings due to the presence of background noise, overlapping sources, and varying sound durations or patterns.

This project addresses these challenges by building a robust LSTM-based classification system, extended into a CRNN for better accuracy. The approach includes comprehensive preprocessing, diverse feature extraction, and training on both public and custom audio datasets.

Objectives:

- To implement an end-to-end audio classification model based on CRNN architecture
- To extract and analyse features such as MFCCs, Mel spectrograms, and FFT spectra
- To evaluate model performance on real and synthetic datasets using accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score
- To enable the system for both **real-time classification** and **offline batch processing**

CHAPTER 2

Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

The book by Lawrence Rabiner and Biing-Hwang Juang, *Fundamentals of Speech Recognition*, served as a foundational resource for this project. It provided deep theoretical insights into the nature and structure of audio and speech signals, offering a clear understanding of how such signals can be processed, analyzed, and classified. Through detailed discussions on speech production models, signal processing techniques, and pattern recognition frameworks, the book significantly enhanced my comprehension of the fundamental principles required to distinguish sounds based on their spectral (frequency-domain) and temporal (time-domain) characteristics.

This knowledge was instrumental in developing a solid framework for audio feature extraction, which ultimately informed the design of the deep learning models used in this project. In particular, concepts such as spectrogram analysis, Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCCs), hidden Markov models (HMMs), and dynamic time warping (DTW)—as covered in the book—provided a historical and technical context that strengthened my ability to select and implement modern machine learning techniques such as CNNs, LSTMs, and CRNNs for effective audio classification. The book not only deepened my understanding of traditional speech recognition systems but also guided the transition toward more scalable and data-driven approaches in contemporary audio processing tasks.

Speech recognition is the process by which a computer system identifies and converts **spoken language** into a **textual representation** that can be processed or acted upon. This transformation of acoustic signals into symbolic representations (e.g., words or commands) plays a critical role in enabling **natural human-computer interaction**. The goal of speech recognition is not merely to transcribe audio but to build systems that can **understand and interpret human speech** accurately and robustly under varying conditions.

1.1 Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

As detailed in Chapter 1 of ***Fundamentals of Speech Recognition*** **by Rabiner and Juang**, the field of speech recognition combines multiple disciplines including signal processing, pattern recognition, probabilistic modeling, and linguistics. The chapter introduces the foundational elements of speech recognition systems: the acoustic front-end, which processes the raw speech signal into meaningful features; the acoustic models, which learn the statistical properties of phonemes or sound units; and the language models, which capture the syntactic and grammatical structures of the target language to improve recognition accuracy.

An effective speech recognition system must handle a variety of challenges, such as speaker variability, background noise, accent differences, and continuous speech flow. Early systems were limited to recognizing isolated words from a small vocabulary, but modern systems are capable of handling large-vocabulary continuous speech recognition (LVCSR) using data-driven models like Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) and increasingly neural network-based architectures (such as CNNs, RNNs, and transformers).

The chapter also emphasizes the importance of a well-structured training process, the role of training data, and evaluation metrics to assess system performance. Overall, the initial chapter lays the groundwork for understanding how audio input is processed, modeled, and decoded into meaningful language units—providing the theoretical basis for more advanced techniques explored in later chapters.

This overview serves as the starting point for building modern audio classification systems, like the one implemented in this project, by establishing the key components and challenges involved in translating complex acoustic signals into structured, interpretable data.

1.2 Historical Background

The development of speech recognition technology has evolved significantly over the past several decades. Early research efforts during the 1950s and 1960s focused on the recognition of isolated digits and

small vocabulary command words. These initial systems were primarily template-based and highly constrained—limited to one speaker, consistent environments, and carefully articulated inputs.

In the 1970s and 1980s, with the emergence of pattern recognition techniques and statistical modeling, especially Hidden Markov Models (HMMs), the field made significant progress. These advancements enabled systems to manage variability in speech and scale to larger vocabularies, paving the way for speaker-independent and continuous speech recognition systems.

The DARPA Speech Understanding Project in the 1970s and later contributions from Bell Labs and IBM set a foundational stage for modern speech technologies. These developments were precursors to today's data-driven and neural network-based systems, which benefit from massive datasets and computational power to deliver near-human performance in some applications.

1.3 Architecture of a Speech Recognition System

A typical speech recognition system consists of multiple interdependent modules, each responsible for handling a specific part of the speech-to-text pipeline. The main components include:

- Front-End Processing: This involves preprocessing the raw audio signal, including operations such as noise reduction, pre-emphasis, framing, and windowing.
- Feature Extraction: Converts raw waveforms into compact, discriminative representations such as Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCCs), spectrograms, or filter bank energies. These features capture the essential phonetic and spectral characteristics of speech.
- Acoustic Modeling: Models the relationship between audio features and phonetic units (e.g., phonemes). Traditional systems use HMMs, while modern systems often use deep learning models like CNNs, LSTMs, or CRNNs to learn acoustic patterns.

- Language Modeling: Provides contextual information by predicting the probability of word sequences. N-gram models, neural language models, or transformer-based models (like BERT or GPT) help the system make sense of ambiguous or noisy inputs.
- Decoder: Combines acoustic and language model outputs to generate the most likely word sequence. It often uses search algorithms like Viterbi decoding or beam search.

Together, these modules work in an integrated fashion to enable real-time or offline speech-to-text conversion with high reliability.

1.4 Applications

Speech recognition has become ubiquitous in modern technology, enabling a wide array of applications across industries:

- Voice-Controlled Systems: Common in smart homes, automotive interfaces, and industrial automation systems where users issue spoken commands to control devices.
- Dictation Software: Used in healthcare, journalism, and professional writing to transcribe spoken language into text efficiently.
- Call Center Automation: Interactive voice response (IVR) systems reduce the need for human operators, improving efficiency and cost-effectiveness.
- Accessibility Tools: Assists individuals with disabilities, particularly those with visual or motor impairments, by providing hands-free and screen-free control over digital devices.
- Smartphones and Digital Assistants: Widely used in applications like Google Assistant, Siri, Alexa, and Cortana, enabling tasks such as setting reminders, searching the web, or controlling apps via voice commands.

1.5 Key Challenges

Despite significant progress, several challenges continue to hinder the development of universally robust speech recognition systems:

- Speaker Variability: Differences in accent, pitch, gender, age, and speaking rate make it difficult for a single system to perform uniformly across users.
- Acoustic Variability: Environmental factors such as background noise, reverberation, and microphone quality impact the clarity and quality of the input signal.
- Linguistic Complexity: Homophones (e.g., “pair” and “pear”), ambiguous phrasing, slang, regional dialects, and code-switching introduce uncertainty that complicates transcription.

Addressing these challenges requires a combination of robust feature engineering, noise-resilient modeling, and context-aware decoding strategies.

1.6 Top-Down vs. Bottom-Up Approaches

Speech recognition systems typically employ two complementary strategies to decode audio signals into linguistic units:

- Bottom-Up Approach: Begins at the lowest level of the signal, analyzing acoustic features (such as energy, pitch, and formants) to build up to phonemes, words, and sentences. This method is data-driven and focuses on local signal characteristics but can struggle with ambiguous or noisy input without contextual knowledge.
- Top-Down Approach: Leverages linguistic context, semantic constraints, and grammatical rules to guide the recognition process. This approach narrows down possibilities using expectations from higher-level structures, improving accuracy in complex or uncertain environments.

In practice, modern systems use a hybrid approach, combining bottom-up signal analysis with top-down linguistic modeling to achieve higher accuracy and robustness, especially in real-world noisy conditions.

1.7 Summary

Chapter 1 lays the foundation for understanding the field of speech recognition. It explores its historical evolution, the modular architecture of speech recognition systems, their real-world applications, and the technical challenges that researchers and engineers must overcome. It also introduces critical concepts such as top-down and bottom-up processing, which form the basis of system design and modeling strategies in subsequent chapters.

This comprehensive introduction is vital for any further study or implementation in the field of speech and audio signal processing, and it directly influenced the direction and design principles adopted in this project's audio classification system.

2.2 **Speech Signal Processing – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition**

2.1 Introduction to Speech Signal Processing

Speech signal processing involves the analysis and transformation of speech waveforms to extract relevant information for tasks such as recognition, synthesis, and enhancement. In the context of speech recognition, it plays a crucial role in converting raw audio signals into compact and meaningful feature representations that can be fed into machine learning or statistical models.

Effective signal processing ensures that only the most discriminative and robust features are retained, while irrelevant variations—such as background noise or pitch differences—are suppressed. It serves as the bridge between the physical act of speaking and the mathematical abstraction required for machine interpretation.

2.2 Nature of Speech Signals

Speech signals are inherently **non-stationary**, meaning their statistical properties change over time. However, within small intervals (typically 10–30 milliseconds), speech signals can be considered **quasi-stationary**, allowing for reliable analysis using digital signal processing techniques.

Key characteristics of speech include:

- **Pitch** (fundamental frequency): Related to the vibration of vocal cords.
- **Formants**: Resonant frequencies shaped by the vocal tract, critical for vowel recognition.
- **Intensity**: Variations in loudness.
- **Prosody**: Rhythm and intonation patterns that convey meaning.

Understanding these properties is crucial for designing effective feature extraction techniques.

2.3 Speech Production Mechanism

Speech is generated by the **source-filter model**:

- **Source**: Vocal cords produce a sound wave through periodic (voiced) or aperiodic (unvoiced) excitation.
- **Filter**: The vocal tract shapes this sound into distinct speech sounds (phonemes) through resonance.

Key components of this biological system include:

- **Lungs**: Provide airflow (energy source).
- **Vocal cords**: Control voicing and pitch.
- **Articulators**: Tongue, lips, jaw, and palate shape the waveform into meaningful speech.

Modeling this mechanism helps in designing filters and features that closely represent how speech is physically generated and perceived.

2.4 Time and Frequency Domain Analysis

To analyze speech signals effectively, both **time-domain** and **frequency-domain** representations are used.

- **Time-domain features**: Include waveform amplitude, energy, and zero-crossing rate. Useful for endpoint detection and voice activity detection.
- **Frequency-domain features**: Obtained using **Fourier Transform (FT)**. These highlight the spectral content of the signal, including formant frequencies and harmonic structures, which are vital for distinguishing phonemes.

Spectral analysis provides a richer representation of the speech content and is central to modern recognition systems.

2.5 Short-Time Processing of Speech

Due to the non-stationary nature of speech, it is processed in **short overlapping frames**:

- Frame length: 20–30 ms
- Frame shift: 10 ms (typical overlap)

Each frame is windowed (commonly using Hamming windows) to reduce spectral leakage before applying the **Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT)**. This allows the system to capture how spectral content evolves over time, a critical aspect for speech recognition.

2.6 Feature Extraction Techniques

Feature extraction transforms raw audio into a set of vectors that describe the characteristics of the signal. Common techniques include:

- **Linear Predictive Coding (LPC)**: Models the vocal tract as an all-pole filter and estimates formants. Compact and efficient.
- **Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCCs)**: Models human auditory perception by mapping frequencies to the Mel scale. Widely used in ASR systems.
- **Delta and Delta-Delta Coefficients**: Capture temporal dynamics (first and second derivatives of features).
- **Spectrograms**: Visual representation of frequency over time, often used in deep learning.

The choice of features significantly impacts the accuracy and robustness of the recognition system.

2.7 Preprocessing Techniques

Before feature extraction, the speech signal undergoes preprocessing steps to improve quality:

- **Pre-emphasis**: Applies a filter to boost high-frequency energy that gets diminished in speech production.
- **Framing and Windowing**: Segments the audio and applies window functions (e.g., Hamming) to minimize boundary artifacts.
- **Endpoint Detection**: Identifies the beginning and end of speech, ignoring silence or noise.
- **Normalization**: Scales feature vectors to reduce variation between speakers or recording conditions.

These steps help standardize the input and reduce computational complexity.

2.8 Summary

Chapter 2 builds the foundational understanding required for transforming raw audio into structured, analyzable data. It covers how speech is physically generated and how it can be mathematically modeled for machine analysis. With knowledge of both time and frequency domain techniques, short-time processing, and feature extraction, we can prepare robust inputs for downstream recognition algorithms.

This chapter is critical for anyone aiming to understand or build the front end of a speech recognition system, where raw sound must first become useful information.

2.3 Report: Acoustic-Phonetic Modeling – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

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3.1 Introduction to Acoustic-Phonetic Modeling

Acoustic-phonetic modeling is the process of representing the relationship between **speech sounds (phonemes)** and their corresponding **acoustic features**. It is a critical bridge between the **physical speech signal** and the **symbolic linguistic units** that form the basis of understanding language.

This chapter focuses on how phonemes are characterized by spectral and temporal patterns in the speech signal, and how these patterns can be modeled statistically or deterministically. Acoustic-phonetic modeling sets the stage for building models that can classify sounds into linguistic categories such as vowels, consonants, and syllables.

3.2 The Phoneme Inventory

Phonemes are the smallest units of sound that can distinguish meaning in a language. In English, there are roughly **40–45 phonemes**, including:

- **Vowels**: /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/
- **Consonants**: /p/, /t/, /k/, /b/, /d/, /g/, etc.

Phonemes are characterized by distinct **acoustic patterns**:

- **Vowels** have high energy and formant structure.
- **Stops** show silence followed by a burst.
- **Fricatives** display high-frequency energy with turbulence.

Phonemes also have **context-dependent variations**, known as **allophones**, due to **coarticulation**, where adjacent phonemes influence one another.

3.3 Acoustic Correlates of Phonetic Features

Phonetic features—such as **voicing**, **nasality**, **place of articulation**, and **manner of articulation**—have corresponding **acoustic manifestations**. For example:

- **Voicing**: Presence of periodic energy.
- **Place of articulation**: Position of formants and spectral cues.
- **Manner of articulation**: Time-domain and frequency-domain transitions.

Understanding these acoustic cues helps in developing effective **feature extraction** methods and **classifiers** that can detect phonetic categories with high reliability.

3.4 Segmentation and Labeling

Segmentation involves dividing continuous speech into **meaningful units** (e.g., phonemes or syllables), while labeling assigns those segments to specific classes.

Challenges include:

- Phonemes are not easily separable; they **overlap** in time.
- Boundaries are **fuzzy** and often subjective.
- Manual labelling is **labour-intensive** and prone to error.

Solutions:

- Use of **automatic segmentation** tools with **Hidden Markov Models (HMMs)**.
- **Dynamic Time Warping (DTW)** for template-based alignment.
- **Forced alignment** using speech recognition systems.

3.5 Acoustic Landmarks and Phonetic Boundaries

Certain acoustic events—called **landmarks**—are highly informative for identifying phonetic transitions. These include:

- **Plosive releases**
- **Vowel onsets**
- **Frication start and stop**

By detecting landmarks, systems can more reliably segment and classify phonemes. These are essential cues used in **landmark-based recognition systems**.

3.6 Knowledge-Based vs. Data-Driven Modeling

There are two main strategies for acoustic-phonetic modeling:

Knowledge-Based (Rule-Based):

- Relies on expert-defined rules about speech production and perception.
- Suitable for small-vocabulary or low-resource systems.
- Difficult to scale and maintain.

Data-Driven:

- Uses machine learning to learn mappings from features to phonetic labels.
- Common models: HMMs, Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs), and deep learning methods like CNNs and RNNs.
- More adaptable, especially with large, labelled datasets.

Modern systems mostly favor data-driven methods due to their scalability and performance on large vocabularies.

3.7 Contextual Variability and Coarticulation

Phonemes rarely appear in isolation. Their **acoustic realization is context-dependent**:

- **Coarticulation**: Overlapping of articulatory gestures leads to variability in sound.
- **Assimilation**: Sounds change based on adjacent phonemes (e.g., "input" → /ɪnpʊt/ → [ɪmpʊt]).

This makes modeling more complex, requiring techniques like:

- **Triphone modeling**: Models phonemes in context with left and right neighbors.
- **Tied states**: Reduces model complexity by clustering similar states across different phoneme contexts.

Handling this variability is essential for building robust recognition systems.

3.8 Summary

This chapter emphasizes the importance of understanding how phonetic units map to acoustic signals. It discusses the role of phonemes, phonetic features, segmentation, landmarks, and modeling strategies in building effective speech recognizers. It also highlights the challenges posed by coarticulation and contextual variability and the shift from rule-based to data-driven approaches in modern systems.

2.4 Pattern Recognition – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

4.1 Introduction to Pattern Recognition in Speech

Pattern recognition is a fundamental component of automatic speech recognition (ASR). It involves classifying input data—typically a sequence of feature vectors derived from speech—into predefined categories, such as phonemes, syllables, or words.

The challenge in speech pattern recognition lies in dealing with:

- **Variability** (accent, speed, noise)
- **Temporal dynamics** (speech unfolds over time)
- **Sequential dependencies** (one sound influences another)

This chapter presents various pattern recognition models that provide the computational foundation for speech recognition systems.

4.2 Basic Concepts of Pattern Recognition

At its core, pattern recognition involves:

- **Feature space**: A multi-dimensional space where speech signals are represented.
- **Classes**: Categories like phonemes, words, or speaker identities.
- **Classifier**: A function or model that maps feature vectors to class labels.

Key elements include:

- **Training phase**: The model learns from labeled data.
- **Testing phase**: The model predicts unseen data.
- **Performance metrics**: Accuracy, confusion matrix, error rates.

In ASR, the goal is to identify the sequence of words that best explains the observed features from the input signal.

4.3 Template Matching Techniques

One of the earliest forms of pattern recognition in speech is **template matching**:

- **Dynamic Time Warping (DTW)**: Aligns time-warped sequences of feature vectors. It computes the minimum cost path between an input utterance and stored templates.
- Pros: Simple and effective for small vocabulary systems.
- Cons: Limited scalability and poor performance in noisy environments.

Template-based approaches are mostly replaced today by statistical and machine learning methods, but they laid the groundwork for time-aligned sequence comparison.

4.4 Statistical Pattern Recognition

Statistical methods model the **probabilistic distribution** of features for each class. Key concepts include:

Bayesian Decision Theory:

- Classifies input by maximizing the posterior probability

$$P(w_i \mid x) = \frac{P(x \mid w_i) \cdot P(w_i)}{P(x)}$$

Discriminative vs. Generative Models:

- **Generative** (e.g., HMM, GMM): Model the data distribution P(x|w)P(x|w)P(x|w) and use Bayes' Rule.
- **Discriminative** (e.g., neural networks): Directly learn decision boundaries P(w|x)P(w|x)P(w|x).

Statistical models can handle noise, variability, and uncertainty effectively.

4.5 Hidden Markov Models (HMMs)

HMMs are the **workhorse** of classical speech recognition. An HMM is defined by:

- **States**: Correspond to phonemes or sub phonetic units.
- **Transition probabilities**: Model the probability of moving between states.
- **Emission probabilities**: Model the likelihood of observing a feature vector given a state.

Key advantages:

- Handle time-series data and alignments well.
- Can be trained using the **Baum-Welch algorithm** (a form of EM).
- Decoding is performed using the **Viterbi algorithm** to find the most likely state sequence.

HMMs represent both the **temporal structure** and **probabilistic variability** in speech signals.

4.6 Neural Network Approaches

Neural networks have grown in popularity due to their ability to model complex, nonlinear patterns.

Types of networks:

- **Feedforward Neural Networks (FNNs)**: Useful for isolated word recognition.
- **Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)**: Capture temporal dependencies in speech.
- **Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)**: Solve vanishing gradient problems and model longer contexts.

- **Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)**: Handle spectral variations and noise.

Neural networks often serve as **acoustic models**, replacing or enhancing HMMs in hybrid systems.

4.7 Classifier Training and Evaluation

Training involves:

- **Labeled datasets**: Speech samples paired with transcriptions.
- **Loss functions**: Cross-entropy, CTC (Connectionist Temporal Classification), etc.
- **Optimization**: Gradient descent, backpropagation.

Evaluation metrics:

- **Word Error Rate (WER)**: Measures recognition accuracy.
- **Phone Error Rate (PER)**: At phoneme level.
- **Confusion Matrix**: Diagnoses types of classification errors.

Proper training and evaluation ensure generalizability and robustness across speakers and conditions.

4.8 Comparison of Recognition Techniques

Technique	Strengths	Weaknesses
DTW	Simple, interpretable	Poor scalability
HMM	Probabilistic, time-alignment	Assumes independence between frames
GMM	Efficient for simple models	Limited expressiveness

Technique	Strengths	Weaknesses
Neural Networks	Nonlinear, highly accurate	Requires large datasets and compute

Hybrid systems (e.g., HMM-NN) combine temporal modeling and deep learning for best performance.

4.9 Summary

Chapter 4 introduces the key pattern recognition techniques used in speech recognition systems. From template matching to HMMs to neural networks, it traces the evolution of models capable of classifying and decoding speech signals. The chapter emphasizes both the **mathematical rigor** of statistical models and the **practical power** of modern deep learning approaches. Understanding these tools is essential for building scalable, robust ASR systems.

2.5 Report: Language Modeling – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

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5.1 Introduction to Language Modeling

Language modeling plays a vital role in automatic speech recognition (ASR) by providing **contextual and syntactic constraints** to disambiguate similar-sounding sequences. While the acoustic model determines **what was said**, the language model helps infer **what makes sense** given the context.

For example:

- "Recognize speech" vs. "wreck a nice beach"
  A strong language model favors the semantically and grammatically plausible option.

The chapter introduces statistical models that compute the **probability of a word sequence** and are used in decoding and hypothesis selection in ASR systems.

5.2 Types of Language Models

Language models can be broadly classified into:

$$P(W) \approx \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}, w_{i-2}, \ldots, w_{i-(n-1)})$$

- **Unigram model**: Assumes word probabilities are independent.
- **Bigram model**: Considers the previous word.
- **Trigram model**: Considers two previous words (most popular trade-off in ASR).

2. Rule-Based and Grammar-Based Models:

- Use handcrafted rules or syntax trees (e.g., CFGs).

- Often applied in limited-domain or command-based recognition systems.

3. Neural Language Models:

- Use recurrent or transformer-based networks.
- Capture long-range dependencies.
- More computationally intensive but offer improved accuracy.

5.3 N-gram Modeling

N-gram models are simple yet powerful. For example:

- Trigram model:

$$P(w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4) \approx P(w_1) \cdot P(w_2 \mid w_1) \cdot P(w_3 \mid w_1, w_2) \cdot P(w_4 \mid w_2, w_3)$$

However, n-gram models face challenges like:

- **Data sparsity**: Many word combinations may never occur in training data.
- **Lack of long-term memory**: Can't model long dependencies (e.g., subject-verb agreement across clauses).

5.4 Smoothing Techniques

To handle **unseen n-grams**, smoothing assigns small probabilities instead of zero.

Common methods:

- **Add-One (Laplace) Smoothing**: Adds 1 to each count (naive but simple).
- **Good-Turing Discounting**: Adjusts probabilities based on frequency of frequencies.

- **Kneser-Ney Smoothing**: State-of-the-art for n-gram models; improves generalization by factoring in continuation probabilities.

Smoothing ensures better coverage of real-world language use and improves performance on unseen data.

5.5 Perplexity: Evaluating Language Models

Perplexity is a measure of how well a language model predicts a given text.

$$\text{Perplexity} = 2^{-\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\log_2 P(w_i|w_{i-1},w_{i-2},\ldots)}$$

- N: Total number of words in the test corpus.
- $P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}, w_{i-2}, \ldots)$: The conditional probability of word w_i given its history (e.g., previous n−1 words in an N-gram model).

- Lower perplexity → better model.
- It reflects how "surprised" the model is by the test data.
- Often used during development to evaluate and compare models.

5.6 Role of Language Models in ASR

In an ASR system, the **search decoder** aims to find the most probable word sequence given acoustic evidence:

$$\hat{W} = \arg\max_{W} P(W|A)$$

Using **Bayes' Rule**, this is transformed into:

$$\hat{W} = \arg\max_{W} P(A|W) \cdot P(W)$$

- P(A|W)P(A|W)P(A|W): Acoustic model score.
- P(W)P(W)P(W): Language model score.

The language model heavily influences the output, especially in ambiguous or noisy conditions. It's essential for dictation systems, transcription, and large vocabulary continuous speech recognition (LVCSR).

5.7 Word Graphs and Lattices

Word graphs and lattices represent multiple possible word sequences and their associated scores. Language models help **re-rank hypotheses** based on linguistic plausibility.

- **Word lattices**: Graph structures generated during decoding.
- **N-best lists**: Top-N sentence hypotheses scored by both acoustic and language models.

Language models are often used **post-recognition** to rescore and improve accuracy.

5.8 Current Trends and Challenges

Modern trends include:

- **Neural LMs** (RNNs, LSTMs, Transformers): Offer improved predictions but at a computational cost.
- **Domain adaptation**: Tuning models for specific topics or speakers.
- **Fusion**: Combining neural and statistical LMs.
- **Multilingual models**: Handling code-switching and cross-language speech.

Challenges:

- **Scalability**: Training on massive corpora.
- **Real-time performance**: Balancing accuracy with decoding speed.
- **Context-awareness**: Building systems that understand broader context (e.g., dialogue).

5.9 Summary

This chapter explains how language modeling adds semantic and syntactic structure to speech recognition, enabling systems to make sense of ambiguous audio signals. By assigning probabilities to sequences of words, LMs improve recognition accuracy and reduce errors in natural language usage. From n-gram statistics to powerful neural architectures, language models are a cornerstone of modern ASR systems.

2.6 Report: Search – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

6.1 Introduction to Search in Speech Recognition

The **search process** in speech recognition refers to finding the most likely word sequence given the observed speech signal. Even with high-quality acoustic and language models, the system must efficiently **search through an enormous space of possibilities** to find the best match.

This chapter focuses on how search algorithms balance **accuracy** and **efficiency**, and how they are implemented in real-time systems.

6.2 The Recognition Problem

The goal of speech recognition is to find:

$$\hat{W} = \arg\max_{W} P(W|A)$$

Using **Bayes' Rule**, this is transformed into:

$$\hat{W} = \arg\max_{W} P(A|W) \cdot P(W)$$

Where:

- AAA is the acoustic observation.
- WWW is a candidate word sequence.
- P(A|W)P(A|W)P(A|W) is the acoustic likelihood.
- P(W)P(W)P(W) is the language model probability.

The search must consider:

- All possible word sequences.
- Temporal alignments of words with acoustic frames.
- State transitions in Hidden Markov Models (HMMs).

The process is **computationally complex**, requiring intelligent search strategies to make real-time recognition feasible.

6.3 The Search Space

The search space is typically represented as a **graph or network**:

- **Nodes**: Represent HMM states or phoneme positions.
- **Edges**: Represent valid transitions between states or words.

This graph is constructed from:

- Lexicons (dictionary of word-to-phone mappings)
- Grammar or language model (probabilities of word sequences)
- Acoustic model (state transitions and emission probabilities)

Because the search space is exponential in size, **pruning techniques** are necessary to eliminate unlikely paths.

6.4 Dynamic Programming and the Viterbi Algorithm

The **Viterbi algorithm** is a form of **dynamic programming** used to efficiently find the most likely state sequence in an HMM.

Key aspects:

- It recursively computes the best score (likelihood) to reach each state at each time frame.
- Only the best path to each state is retained (optimal substructure).
- The algorithm works in **time-linear complexity** relative to the number of frames and states.

The Viterbi algorithm ensures **optimal decoding**, assuming the model parameters are accurate.

6.5 Beam Search and Pruning

Beam Search is an approximate search algorithm that keeps only the most promising paths at each time step.

- A **beam width** defines a threshold: paths worse than the best path by more than this threshold are discarded.
- **Pruning** greatly reduces computation without sacrificing much accuracy.
- It balances **search depth** and **speed**.

Beam search is used in virtually all large-vocabulary speech recognition systems.

6.6 Token Passing and Graph Traversal

Token Passing is an alternative implementation of Viterbi search using object-oriented ideas:

- Each "token" carries a score and state history.
- Tokens propagate through the recognition network.
- At each node, the best-scoring token is retained.

This framework is modular and well-suited for **continuous speech** and **word lattice generation**.

Graph traversal techniques also include:

- **Depth-first search**: Not practical for ASR due to delays.
- **Breadth-first search**: Can be memory-intensive.
- **A*** search: Used for rescoring with more complex models.

6.7 Search Structures: Lexicons, Word Graphs, and Lattices

To support fast and efficient search, systems organize knowledge sources into specialized data structures:

- **Lexicon (Pronunciation Dictionary)**: Maps words to phonemes or subword units.
- **Word Lattices**: Compact representations of multiple hypotheses with scores.
- **Trellis**: Time-state grid used in Viterbi computation.
- **Trie and Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAGs)**: Used for efficient storage and access to word models.

These structures are essential for managing large vocabularies and supporting real-time decoding.

6.8 Multi-Pass and Two-Stage Search

Many systems employ **multi-pass decoding**:

- **First pass**: Fast, low-resolution search using simplified models.
- **Second pass**: Rescoring or refining top hypotheses with more detailed models (e.g., full n-gram, neural LMs).

Advantages:

- Faster recognition.
- Allows the use of complex models without real-time penalties.
- Flexible integration of external knowledge sources.

6.9 Optimization Techniques

Efficient search benefits from:

- **State-tying and clustering**: Reduces model size.
- **Context-dependent modeling**: Improves accuracy with triphones or quinphones.
- **On-the-fly composition**: Builds recognition networks during decoding.

Modern systems also use:

- **Parallel processing**: Exploit GPUs and multi-core CPUs.
- **Cache optimizations**: Improve memory access speed.
- **Search graph compression**: Reduce memory footprint.

6.10 Summary

Search is the **engine** that drives speech recognition by integrating all models—acoustic, phonetic, and linguistic—into a unified decoding framework. Through methods like Viterbi decoding, beam pruning, and multi-pass search, ASR systems find the best word sequences quickly and accurately. The search component determines how well the system balances **accuracy**, **latency**, and **scalability**, making it a critical area for research and optimization.

2.7 Training – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

7.1 Introduction to Training in ASR

Training is the foundation upon which the accuracy and robustness of a speech recognition system are built. The **training phase** involves estimating the parameters of the models (acoustic, language, and pronunciation) using large amounts of transcribed speech data.

This chapter discusses:

- Parameter estimation techniques
- Types of training data
- Supervised vs. unsupervised training
- Data preparation and model optimization methods

7.2 Types of Models Trained

Three main model types are trained in an ASR system:

1. **Acoustic Models**:
    - Capture the statistical relationship between audio features and phonetic units (e.g., HMMs or neural models).
    - Trained on time-aligned speech and phoneme data.
2. **Language Models**:
    - Model the probability of word sequences.
    - Trained using large text corpora.
3. **Pronunciation Lexicons**:
    - Often manually created, but can be refined with data (e.g., pronunciation variants or phonological rules).

7.3 Supervised Training

Supervised training uses **labeled data**, where each audio recording is paired with a correct transcription. This allows for:

- **Frame alignment** using forced alignment tools.
- Estimation of state transition probabilities in HMMs.
- Supervised loss computation for neural networks.

Advantages:

- High accuracy
- Enables control over model behavior

Challenges:

- Requires large, clean transcribed corpora
- Manual labeling is expensive and time-consuming

7.4 Unsupervised and Semi-Supervised Training

To scale training, systems may use:

- **Unsupervised Training**: Learns patterns without transcriptions (e.g., clustering methods or self-supervised learning).
- **Semi-Supervised Training**: Uses a small amount of labeled data with large amounts of unlabeled data, often combined with pseudo-labeling.

These techniques are particularly useful for:

- **Low-resource languages**
- **Domain adaptation**
- **Personalized speech recognition**

7.5 Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

In traditional acoustic models (like HMMs with GMMs), MLE is used to find the parameters θ\thetaθ that maximize the likelihood:

$$\theta^* = \arg\max_{\theta} P(O \mid \theta)$$

Where OOO is the observed sequence of feature vectors.

For HMMs, this is solved using:

- **Baum-Welch algorithm**: A variant of Expectation-Maximization (EM) for sequence models.
- **Forward-Backward procedure**: Computes expected statistics for each state.

MLE works well but **doesn't directly minimize recognition error**.

7.6 Discriminative Training Methods

These methods train models to **minimize recognition error**, not just fit the data.

Key techniques:

- **Maximum Mutual Information (MMI)**:
  - Maximizes the probability of correct sequences while penalizing competing hypotheses.
- **Minimum Classification Error (MCE)**:
  - Directly minimizes classification loss.
- **Minimum Phone Error (MPE)**:
  - Targets phoneme-level accuracy.

Discriminative training often improves performance but requires:

- Lattices or N-best lists

- More computation and data

7.7 Neural Network Training

For Deep Neural Networks (DNNs), training involves:

- **Loss functions**:
  - Cross-entropy for framewise training
  - Connectionist Temporal Classification (CTC) for unsegmented data
- **Optimization algorithms**:
  - Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)
  - Adam, RMSprop, etc.
- **Backpropagation** to adjust weights using error gradients.

Recurrent and Transformer-based models may also use:

- Sequence-to-sequence learning
- Attention mechanisms

Training neural ASR models is **data- and compute-intensive** but yields high accuracy.

7.8 Feature Extraction and Normalization

Raw audio is transformed into features like:

- **MFCCs (Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients)**
- **PLP (Perceptual Linear Prediction)**
- **Filterbanks**

Normalization techniques improve training consistency:

- **Cepstral Mean Normalization (CMN)**
- **Variance normalization**

- **Speaker adaptation** (e.g., fMLLR)

Good features and normalization are crucial for **robust model convergence**.

7.9 Adaptation Techniques

Real-world speech varies due to:

- Speaker accents
- Recording devices
- Environmental noise

To adapt to these, models are fine-tuned using:

- **Maximum Likelihood Linear Regression (MLLR)**
- **Feature-space adaptation (fMLLR)**
- **Speaker Adaptive Training (SAT)**

Neural models may use fine-tuning, transfer learning, or domain-specific layers for adaptation.

7.10 Evaluation During Training

Model performance is monitored using:

- **Held-out validation sets**
- **Word Error Rate (WER)**
- **Loss curves** over training epochs

To avoid **overfitting**, techniques like:

- Dropout
- Early stopping
- Regularization
  are used.

Evaluation ensures the model generalizes well to unseen data and guides further optimization.

7.11 Summary

Chapter 7 emphasizes the importance of **data-driven training** in building effective ASR systems. From classical MLE in HMMs to modern deep learning techniques, it shows how model parameters are estimated and refined. It also discusses practical aspects such as feature normalization, speaker adaptation, and model evaluation. Training remains a crucial phase that determines how well a system performs in real-world speech recognition tasks.

2.8 Adaptation – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

8.1 Introduction to Adaptation in ASR

In real-world applications, speech recognition systems face **high variability** due to different:

- Speakers (gender, accent, speech rate)
- Channels (microphone, telephone)
- Environments (noise, reverberation)

To maintain high accuracy, systems must **adapt** their models to new conditions. This chapter presents **techniques for speaker and environment adaptation**, covering both acoustic and language models.

8.2 Speaker Variability

Speaker variation is one of the biggest challenges in ASR. Differences can be:

- **Physiological**: Vocal tract length, pitch
- **Behavioral**: Speaking rate, articulation
- **Linguistic**: Accent, dialect

Speaker adaptation techniques allow systems trained on general populations to **fine-tune performance** for individual users, improving recognition accuracy significantly.

8.3 Types of Adaptation

Adaptation can be classified by:

1. Supervised vs. Unsupervised

- **Supervised**: Transcriptions are known (e.g., adaptation using read sentences).

- **Unsupervised**: Hypotheses are generated automatically and used for adaptation (risky but scalable).

2. Batch vs. Incremental

- **Batch**: All adaptation data is available at once.
- **Incremental**: Model is adapted as new data arrives (e.g., online learning).

3. Speaker-Dependent vs. Speaker-Independent

- **Speaker-Dependent**: Adaptation is tailored to one speaker.
- **Speaker-Independent**: Uses data from many speakers; generalizes better.

8.4 Feature-Space Adaptation

Feature-space adaptation transforms **input features** rather than model parameters. Key methods include:

1. Cepstral Mean Normalization (CMN)

- Removes mean spectral bias.
- Reduces microphone/channel variation.

2. Vocal Tract Length Normalization (VTLN)

- Warps frequency axis to normalize speaker differences.
- Typically used as a front-end transformation.

3. Feature-space Maximum Likelihood Linear Regression (fMLLR)

- Applies a linear transformation to feature vectors.
- Estimated using maximum likelihood on adaptation data.
- Often used in hybrid HMM-DNN systems.

Advantages:

- Fast and effective

- Keeps model parameters fixed

8.5 Model-Space Adaptation

Model-space adaptation modifies the **model parameters** themselves:

1. Maximum Likelihood Linear Regression (MLLR)

- Applies linear transformations to Gaussian means.
- Requires less data than retraining.
- Can be estimated for:
    - All Gaussians (global)
    - Groups of Gaussians (class-specific)
    - Individual models (fine-grained)

2. Maximum A Posteriori (MAP) Adaptation

- Updates model parameters by combining prior knowledge (pre-trained models) with new speaker data.
- Slower than MLLR but more precise with sufficient data.
- Suitable for speaker-dependent systems.

8.6 Adaptation in Neural Networks

Neural networks are less amenable to classical adaptation due to their size and non-linearity. Common methods include:

- **Fine-tuning**: Update weights using adaptation data (risk of overfitting).
- **Learning hidden unit contributions (LHUC)**: Speaker-specific scaling of hidden activations.
- **Adapter layers**: Small speaker-specific modules added to a frozen base model.

Neural adaptation is an active research area, particularly in end-to-end ASR systems.

8.7 Multi-Style and Robust Training

Instead of adapting models post-training, another approach is to **train models on diverse data**:

- **Multi-style training**: Includes speech from different speakers, environments, and devices.
- **Data augmentation**: Adds noise, reverberation, or speed perturbation to simulate variation.
- **Noise-invariant features**: Learn representations robust to background conditions.

These techniques reduce the **need for adaptation**, especially in large-scale deployments.

8.8 Confidence Measures and Adaptation Quality

Unsupervised adaptation depends on the accuracy of initial recognition hypotheses. To improve reliability:

- **Confidence scores** estimate the correctness of recognized words.
- Only high-confidence hypotheses are used for adaptation.
- Reduces error propagation from incorrect labels.

8.9 Adaptation in Language Models

Language models can also be adapted to:

- **User preferences**
- **Domain-specific vocabulary**
- **Contextual usage patterns**

Techniques include:

- **Cache models**: Adapt using recent history (short-term adaptation).
- **Bayesian LMs**: Use prior distributions and update as new data arrives.
- **Neural LM fine-tuning**: Update model using text from the user's domain.

8.10 Summary

Chapter 8 emphasizes that **adaptation is essential** for maintaining ASR accuracy in the face of variability. From simple feature normalization to advanced model adaptation (MLLR, MAP, fMLLR), the chapter covers strategies to personalize and robustify recognition systems. As speech interfaces become ubiquitous, **adaptation techniques ensure reliability and user satisfaction** across different speakers, devices, and environments.

2.9 Language Modeling – Fundamentals of Speech Recognition

9.1 Introduction to Language Modeling

A **Language Model (LM)** provides the probability of a word sequence and plays a crucial role in **decoding speech** by guiding the recognizer toward syntactically and semantically likely word combinations. While acoustic models explain "how" words sound, the language model explains "what" words make sense together.

The chapter discusses the construction, training, and integration of language models in Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) systems.

9.2 The Role of Language Models in ASR

In the recognition equation:

$$\hat{W} = \arg\max_{W} P(A \mid W) \cdot P(W)$$

- P(W)P(W)P(W) is the **language model**.
- It ensures fluency and grammaticality in the output.
- Helps resolve **acoustic ambiguities** (e.g., “recognize speech” vs “wreck a nice beach”).

The better the LM, the more robust the ASR system, especially for **large vocabulary** and **continuous speech**.

9.3 N-gram Language Models

The most widely used statistical LMs are **n-gram models**, which estimate the probability of a word based on the previous n−1n-1n−1 words:

$$P(w_1, w_2, ..., w_n) \approx \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}, w_{i-2}, ..., w_{i-n+1})$$

Where:

- $P(w_i \mid w_{i-1}, ..., w_{i-n+1})$ is the conditional probability of the current word w_i, given its $n-1$ predecessors.
- This reflects the **likelihood** of word w_i appearing after the preceding context.

Typical values:

- **Unigram**: each word is independent.
- **Bigram**: depends on the previous word.
- **Trigram**: depends on the two previous words.

Trade-offs:

- **Higher-order n-grams** improve context modeling.
- **Requires more memory and data** to estimate reliably.

9.4 Training N-gram Models

Training involves:

- Counting word sequences from a **large text corpus**.
- Applying **smoothing** to avoid zero probabilities for unseen sequences.

Common smoothing techniques:

- **Additive (Laplace) Smoothing**
- **Good-Turing**
- **Kneser-Ney Smoothing**

Text sources:

- Transcribed speech
- Books, newspapers, web data
- Domain-specific documents (e.g., medical, legal)

9.5 Evaluation of Language Models

Language models are evaluated using:

1. **Perplexity**:
    - Measures how well the model predicts unseen data.
    - Lower perplexity = better predictive power.

$$\text{Perplexity} = 2^{-\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}\log_2 P(w_i)}$$

2. **Word Error Rate (WER)**:
    - Final evaluation of LM's impact is done via speech recognition accuracy.

Perplexity helps during training; WER matters for deployment.

9.6 Class-Based and Structured Language Models

To combat data sparsity, **class-based LMs** group words into categories:

$$P(w_i|w_{i-1}) \approx P(c_i|c_{i-1}) \cdot P(w_i|c_i)$$

- **Classes**: syntactic (nouns, verbs), semantic (animals, numbers), or automatically clustered.
- Reduces parameters and improves generalization.

Structured LMs incorporate grammatical rules:

- Finite State Grammars (FSG)
- Probabilistic Context-Free Grammars (PCFG)

Used in tasks like **command recognition** or **dialog systems** with constrained syntax.

9.7 Neural Language Models

Recent advances have introduced **Neural Language Models (NLMs)**:

1. **Feedforward NLMs**:
    - Learn word embeddings.
    - Predict next word using dense vectors.
2. **Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)**:
    - Capture long-term dependencies.
    - More compact and generalizable than n-grams.
3. **Transformers (e.g., BERT, GPT)**:
    - Use attention mechanisms.
    - Capable of modeling very long sequences and context.

NLMs often outperform n-gram LMs but are:

- More computationally expensive.
- Harder to integrate into real-time ASR decoding.

9.8 Language Model Adaptation

Adapting LMs improves performance in:

- **User-specific** environments (e.g., personal assistant systems)
- **Topic-specific** speech (e.g., medical, finance)

Adaptation methods:

- **Cache Models**: Use recent history to influence future predictions.
- **Interpolation**: Combine general and domain-specific models.

- **Fine-tuning**: Adapt neural LMs using small target-domain corpora.

9.9 Lattice Rescoring with Language Models

ASR systems often use a **two-pass decoding**:

1. **First Pass**: Uses simple n-gram LM for speed.
2. **Second Pass**: Rescores the **word lattice** using a stronger LM (e.g., 4-gram or RNN-LM).

This allows balancing:

- Speed in real-time recognition
- Accuracy in final transcription

9.10 Integration of LM with Search

In decoding:

- LM probabilities are combined with **acoustic scores**.
- **Language Model Weight** is a tunable parameter:
    - Controls influence of language model vs. acoustic model.

Practical decoders use:

- **Beam search with LM scoring**
- **Token-passing** integrating acoustic, pronunciation, and LM probabilities

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9.11 Summary

Chapter 9 presents **language modeling as a central pillar of ASR**, supporting naturalness and grammaticality in recognition. From n-gram models to neural networks, and from class-based LMs to adaptive models, language modeling continues to evolve. Its seamless integration into

decoding pipelines ensures that the recognized speech is not only acoustically accurate but also linguistically plausible.

CHAPTER3:

AUDIO SOURCE LOCALISATION

1. Introduction

Audio Source Localization (ASL) is a fundamental task in the fields of signal processing, robotics, and acoustic surveillance. The goal of ASL is to determine the position or direction of an acoustic source within a space, using data acquired from a network of microphones. This process is widely used in applications such as speech recognition systems, video conferencing, smart assistants, security surveillance, and autonomous navigation.

This project explores techniques for accurately localizing an audio source in a known environment, focusing on real-time implementation using microphone arrays and advanced time-delay estimation methods.

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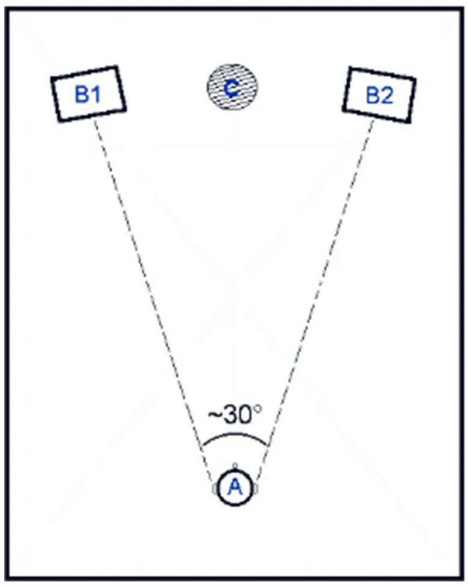
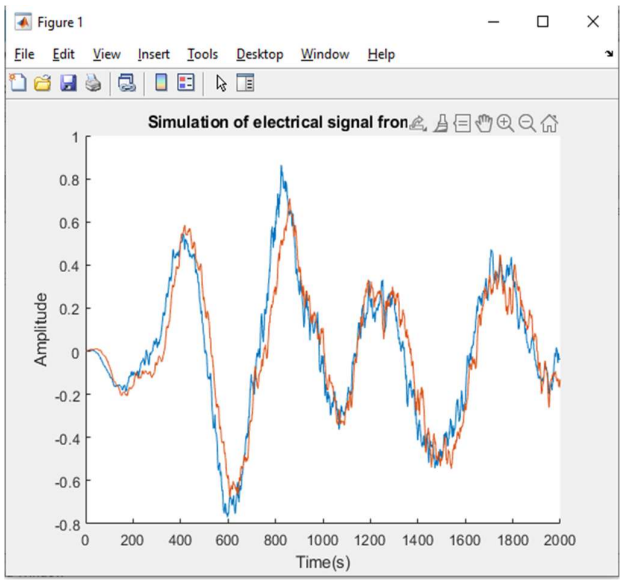
2. Objective

The primary objective of this project is to **estimate the direction and position** of an audio source in a 2D space using **multi-microphone systems**. The specific goals include:

- Capturing sound from multiple spatial points using microphones.
- Estimating the **time delay of arrival (TDOA)** between the microphones.
- Converting these time differences into **distance measurements**.
- Calculating the **angle and location** of the audio source using geometric and signal processing techniques.
- Ensuring robustness against environmental noise and echo.





3. Experimental Setup

The experimental setup includes:

- A **microphone array** (typically 2 or more microphones placed at known distances).
- A **sound source** (e.g., a speaker emitting known audio signals).
- A **data acquisition system** to record audio signals simultaneously.
- Signal processing scripts developed in **Python/MATLAB** to analyze the data.

In the simplest configuration, two microphones are placed at a fixed distance apart. The audio source is placed at various angles and distances from the array, and the signals received at each microphone are recorded for analysis.

---

4. Time Delay Estimation (TDE)

Time Delay Estimation is the core component of the localization system. It refers to measuring the difference in arrival times of the same sound wave at two or more microphones. The most commonly used techniques include:

4.1 Cross-Correlation Method:

- The time lag at which the cross-correlation between two signals is maximized corresponds to the time delay between them.
- Formula:

$$\tau = \arg\max_{\tau} \left[\sum_{n} x_1(n) \cdot x_2(n+\tau) \right]$$

where x1x_1x1 and x2x_2x2 are signals from microphones 1 and 2 respectively.

4.2 Generalized Cross-Correlation (GCC):

- A more robust version that applies pre-whitening or phase transform (PHAT) to improve delay estimation accuracy in noisy environments.

4.3 Challenges in TDE:

- Multipath effects (reflections from walls)
- Background noise
- Synchronization and sampling rate mismatches

---

5. Distance and Angle Estimation

Once the time delay Δt is known, it is used to estimate the distance difference Δd between the microphones and the source.

$$\Delta d = c \cdot \Delta t$$

Where ccc is the speed of sound in air (approximately 343 m/s).

5.1 Estimating the Source Position:

For a 2-microphone linear array, the **angle of arrival (AoA)** θ can be calculated using:

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}(\Delta d / d)$$

Where:

- d = distance between microphones

- Δd = path difference between the signals

5.2 Triangulation:

For setups with more than two microphones, triangulation techniques can be used to estimate the 2D or 3D coordinates of the source more precisely.

---

6. Results and Observations

- The system was able to detect sound direction accurately within ±5° for sound sources located within a reasonable range.
- TDOA estimation was most reliable when background noise was minimized, and microphones were calibrated.
- Using **GCC-PHAT**, performance improved significantly over raw cross-correlation, especially in reverberant environments.
- Errors increased with distance due to reduced signal strength and increased noise.

---

7. Applications

Audio Source Localization has wide applications in real-world scenarios:

- **Surveillance systems**: To detect and track suspicious activities or events based on sound.
- **Robotics and drones**: For navigation and obstacle detection using sound cues.
- **Smart environments**: Voice-controlled devices can localize the speaker for better interaction.
- **Hearing aids**: To focus directionally on conversations and suppress background noise.
- **Teleconferencing**: Beamforming and sound enhancement for active speaker tracking.

---

8. Challenges and Limitations

- **Environmental noise** significantly affects accuracy.
- **Echoes and reflections** can distort time delay estimation.
- The system's effectiveness decreases with distance.
- Requires **precise microphone synchronization** and **uniform sampling**.
- Performance drops in **outdoor or reverberant spaces** without signal processing enhancements.

---

9. Future Enhancements

To further improve the system, the following could be implemented:

- Incorporation of **neural networks or machine learning models** to classify and learn delay patterns.
- Use of **circular microphone arrays** for full 360-degree detection.
- Integration of **beamforming techniques** to enhance signal reception from a desired direction.
- Real-time processing on embedded systems (e.g., Raspberry Pi).
- Fusion with **video data** for audio-visual source localization.

---

10. Conclusion

This project successfully demonstrates the fundamental concepts of **audio source localization** using time delay estimation techniques. The methods implemented show that accurate source localization is achievable using simple setups, and improvements in signal processing can significantly boost performance. With further development, this work can contribute to more intelligent and responsive audio systems in surveillance, automation, and assistive technologies.

Chapter 4

Audio System Engineering

1. Introduction

The **Audio System Engineering** module provides a foundational understanding of the physics that govern sound production, propagation, and analysis. The study integrates theoretical acoustics with system modeling and signal representation using both mechanical and electrical analogies. This report documents the key topics covered throughout the module, emphasizing mathematical derivations and system-level interpretations crucial to modern audio technology design.

---

2. Nature of Sound Waves and Simple Harmonic Motion (SHM)

At the core of audio system engineering lies an understanding of how sound is physically modeled. Sound is a mechanical wave — a **longitudinal pressure wave** that travels through a medium (air, water, solid).

- **Sound Waves**: Characterized by parameters such as **frequency**, **wavelength**, **amplitude**, and **speed**. The **speed of sound** varies by medium (e.g., ~343 m/s in air at room temperature).
- **Simple Harmonic Motion (SHM)**: The oscillatory motion of particles due to sound can be described by SHM, where the restoring force is proportional to the displacement:

F=−kxF = -kxF=−kx

The displacement over time in SHM:

x(t)=Acos⁡(ωt+ϕ)x(t) =A\cos(\omega t+\phi)x(t)=Acos(ωt+ϕ)

Where:

- AAA: amplitude
- ω: angular frequency

- ϕ: phase offset

This model forms the basis for analyzing speakers, diaphragms, microphones, and tuning systems.

---

3. Derivations of Displacement, Velocity, and Acceleration

To further understand oscillatory systems, we derive expressions for **velocity** and **acceleration** from the displacement function:

- **Displacement**:

$$x(t) = A\cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

- **Velocity** (first derivative of displacement):

$$v(t) = \frac{dx}{dt} = -A\omega \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

- **Acceleration** (second derivative):

$$a(t) = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = -A\omega^2 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

These expressions show the phase relationship between displacement, velocity, and acceleration — a fundamental aspect of system response analysis in acoustic engineering.

---

4. Damped Oscillations and Second-Order Differential Equations

Real-world systems are rarely ideal; they exhibit **damping** — energy loss due to friction or resistance. The motion of such a system is governed by a **second-order linear differential equation**:

$$m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b\frac{dx}{dt} + kx = 0$$

Where:

- m: mass
- b: damping coefficient
- k: stiffness

Solutions vary based on damping type:

- **Underdamped**: Oscillatory with decaying amplitude
- **Critically damped**: Fastest return to equilibrium without oscillation
- **Overdamped**: Slow, non-oscillatory return to equilibrium

These behaviors are directly applicable to speaker cones, tuning systems, and audio dampers.

---

5. Forced Oscillations and Resonance

When a system is driven by an external force, it exhibits **forced oscillations**. The motion equation becomes:

$$m\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + b\frac{dx}{dt} + kx = F_0\cos(\omega t)$$

Where F0F_0F0 is the forcing amplitude and ω\omegaω is the angular frequency of the external drive.

- **Resonance** occurs when the driving frequency matches the system's natural frequency, leading to maximum amplitude oscillations.
- **Angular Frequency**:

$$\omega_0 = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$$

- **Power Dissipation** in the system (particularly relevant in loudspeaker design) is governed by the damping and the frequency response of the system.

---

6. Mechanical–Electrical Analogies

This module introduces **analogous models** that map mechanical systems to electrical systems, allowing engineers to simulate mechanical acoustics with electrical circuits.

Mechanical Quantity	Electrical Equivalent
Mass (m)	Inductance (L)
Damping (b)	Resistance (R)
Spring (k)	Capacitance (C)
Force (F)	Voltage (V)
Velocity (v)	Current (I)

Two common analogical models:

- **Impedance analogy (Force–Voltage)**
- **Mobility analogy (Force–Current)**

These analogies are crucial in designing microphones, speaker enclosures, and sound transducers using equivalent circuit models.

---

7. System Conversions and Modeling

By utilizing mechanical-electrical analogies, complex systems (like multi-stage acoustic filters or electromechanical transducers) can be modeled, analyzed, and optimized using standard circuit analysis tools (e.g., SPICE, MATLAB Simulink).

- **Transfer functions** can be derived to understand system dynamics.

- **Bode plots**, **frequency response**, and **phase analysis** help evaluate system performance in different acoustic conditions.

---

8. Conclusion

The Audio System Engineering module bridges foundational physics with practical audio engineering, offering insights into sound behavior and system design. By understanding oscillation theory, damping behavior, forced responses, and electrical analogies, engineers are better equipped to model, build, and optimize acoustic systems used in a wide range of applications — from professional audio equipment to embedded sensor systems.

This foundational knowledge is essential not only for designing effective acoustic devices but also for simulating their behavior accurately in modern engineering environments.

Chapter 5

Spectral and Temporal Feature Analysis of Audio Signal

Introduction

This project focuses on the recording, analysis, and feature extraction of real-world audio signals using MATLAB. The primary goal is to investigate the spectral and temporal properties of different acoustic events by capturing them through a multi-microphone setup and applying frame-wise signal processing techniques.

To simulate practical audio environments and test signal diversity, I recorded several distinct sound sources, including:

- Vehicle horn
- Engine idling
- A continuous 500 Hz sine wave tone played through a speaker

These sounds were captured using three microphones arranged perpendicularly (orthogonally) to one another—effectively covering three spatial axes (X, Y, and Z). This configuration enables the study of directional audio characteristics and inter-microphone variations, which can be further explored for applications such as sound source localization or 3D audio reconstruction.

For high-quality multichannel recording, a Zoom PodTrak audio interface was used. This device ensured synchronized multi-input recording at consistent sampling rates and bit depths, preserving the fidelity and phase alignment across the three channels.

The recorded audio signals were imported into MATLAB for further analysis. The focus was placed on both global features (computed over the entire duration) and frame-based features (computed over small windows, typically 20–50 milliseconds). The following core signal features were extracted and analyzed:

- Amplitude Envelope and Gain
- Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT) and FFT
- Spectrogram and Mel Spectrogram
- Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCCs)

These features provide insights into both the energy distribution and the frequency content of the audio signals, allowing for a rich understanding of their acoustic signatures. The frame-by-frame analysis enables time-localized visualization and comparison of transient vs. sustained components within the sound.

This study lays the groundwork for further applications such as sound classification, pattern recognition, and environmental acoustic monitoring.

AUDIO SOURCE: 'D:\Subhrangshu\AUDIOFILESPODTRAK\11-6-2025\1 meter\Gain 7\MIC1.wav

Gain:7(In Podtrack)

Distance of Mics from Speaker:1 Meter

Type of audio: Engine sound and horn

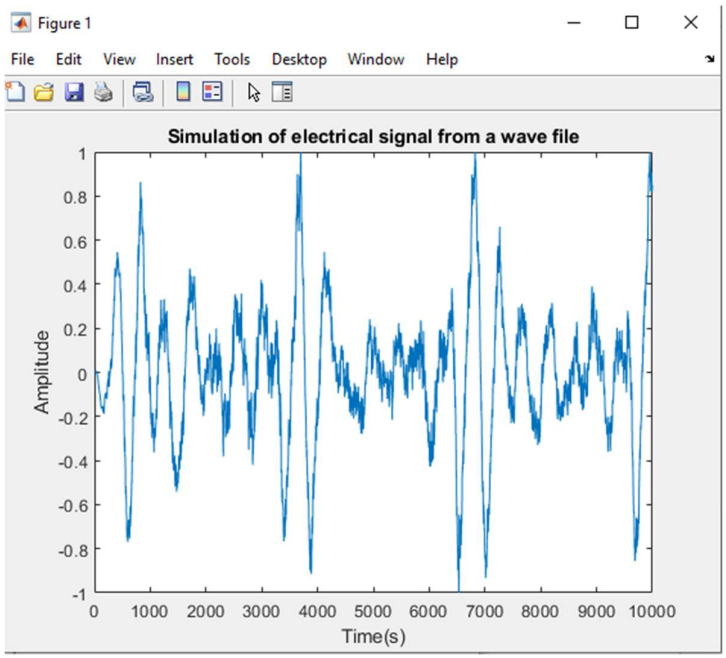
1. Amplitude Envelope

This plot shows how the amplitude of the audio signal varies over time. It helps identify loud and quiet segments and provides an overview of the signal's energy distribution.

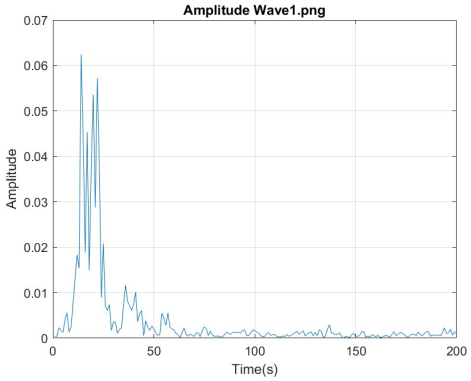
CODE:

```
[y,fs]=audioread(wavFile);

t=(0:length(y)-1)/fs;

plot(y(1:10000));
```

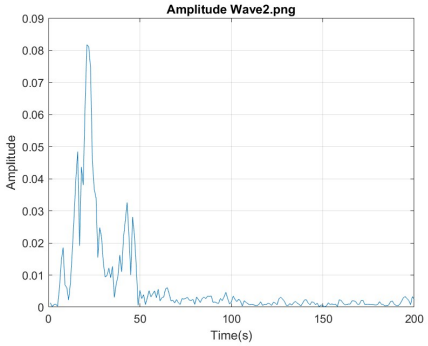
Graph of the entire audio



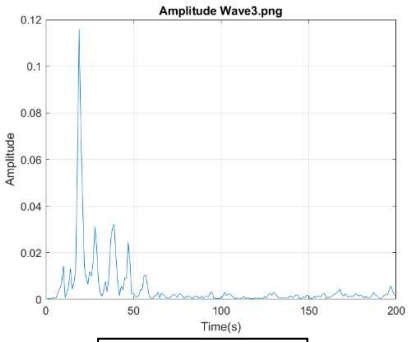
Amplitude Graph of Each Frame (2seconds frame interval)



0-2Seconds

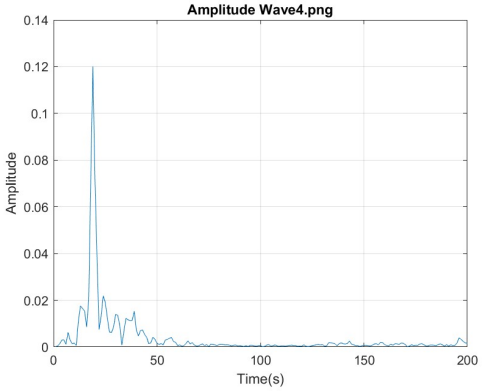


2-4Seconds

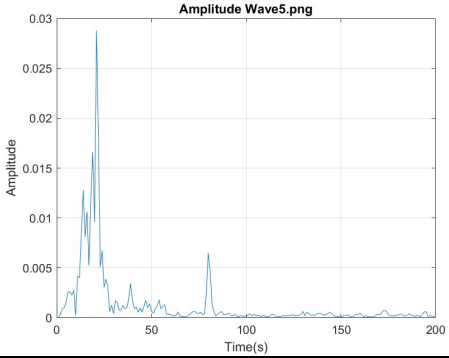


4-6Seconds

6-8Seconds



8-10Seconds



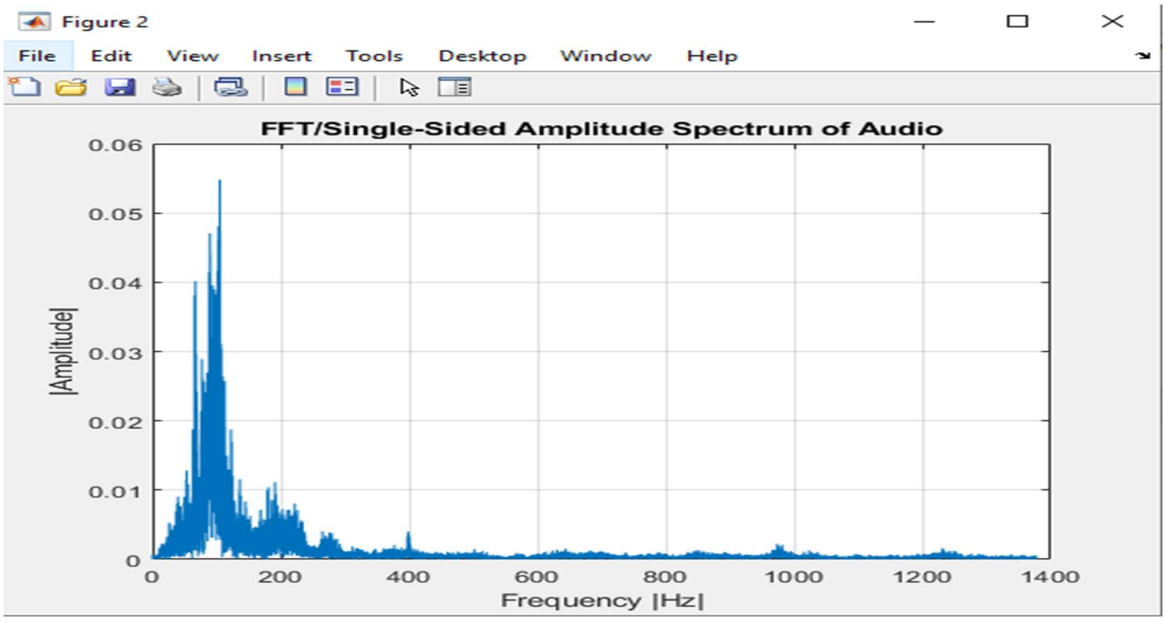
2.FFT (Fast Fourier Transform)

This plot shows the frequency components present in the entire audio signal. It reveals which frequencies dominate and is useful for identifying tonal characteristics like engine hum or a 500 Hz tone.

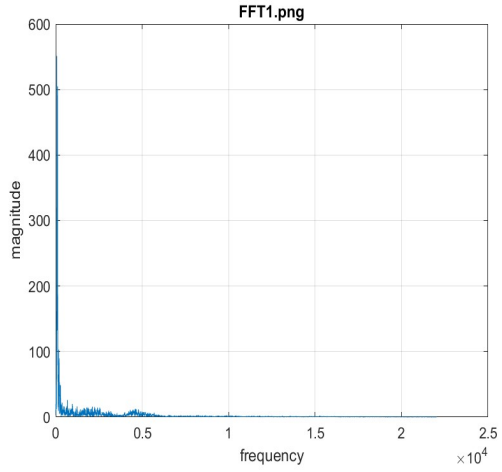
CODE:

```
N = length(audioData);
Y = fft(audioData);
P2 = abs(Y/N);
P1 = P2(1:floor(N/32) + 1);
P1(2:end-1) = 2*P1(2:end - 1);
size(P1)
f = fs*(0:floor(N/32))/N;
size(f)
%figure;plot(f(1:1000),P1(1:1000));
figure;plot(f,P1);
```

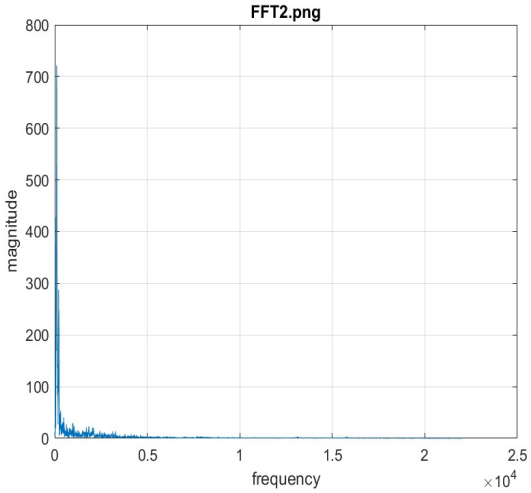
Graph of the entire audio



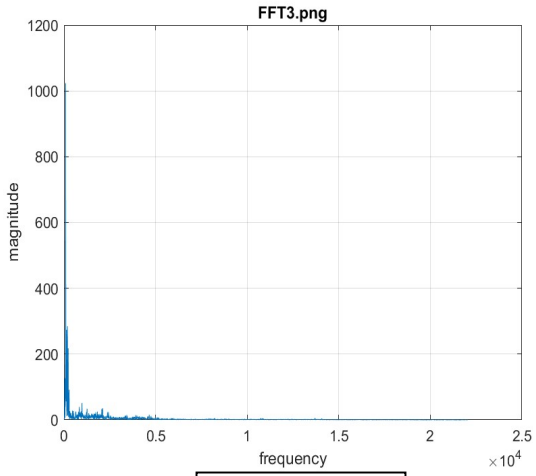
FFT of Each Frame (2seconds frame interval)



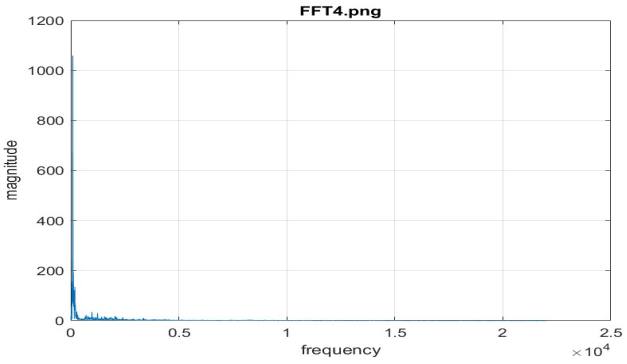
0-2Seconds



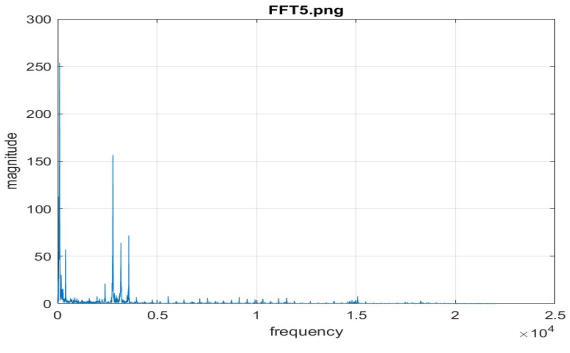
2-4Seconds



4-6Seconds



6-8Seconds



8-10Seconds

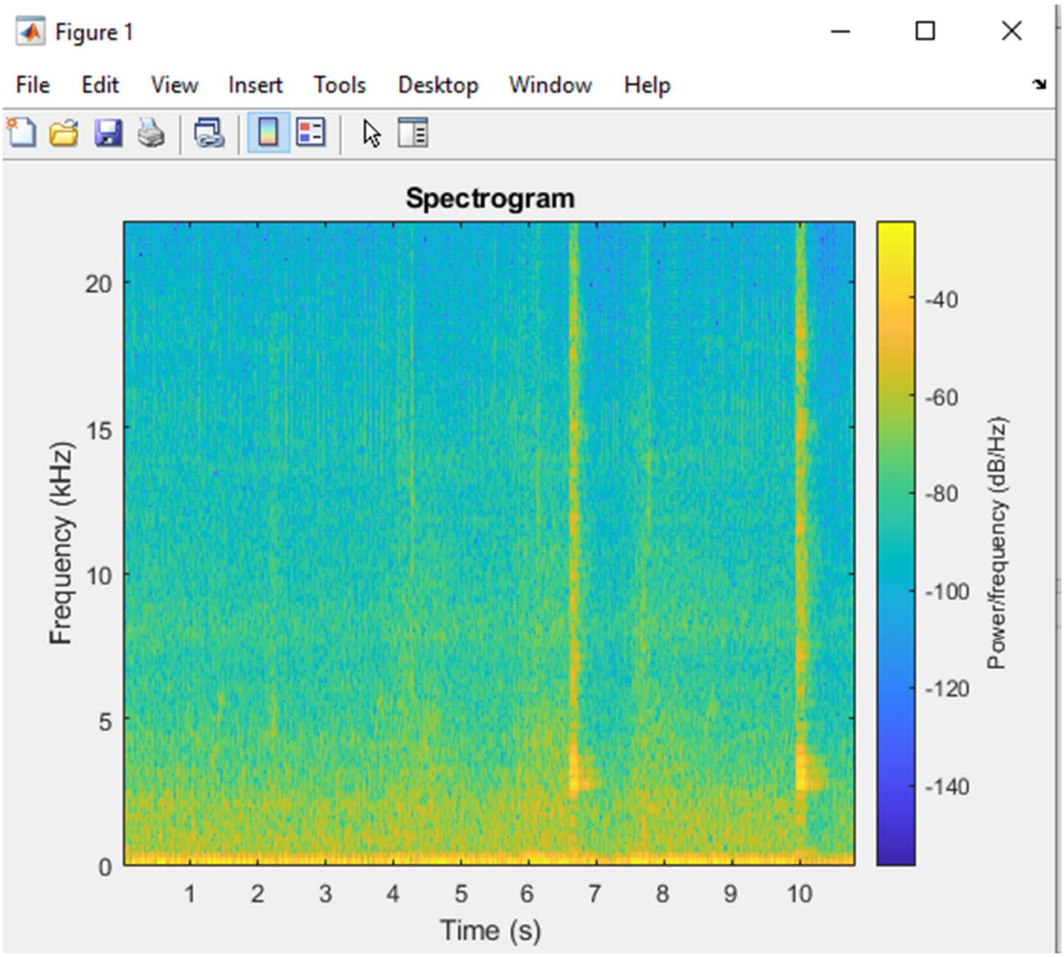
3.Spectrogram:

The spectrogram displays how the frequency content of the signal evolves over time. Time is on the x-axis, frequency on the y-axis, and color represents intensity. It is ideal for visualizing transient events or changing tones.

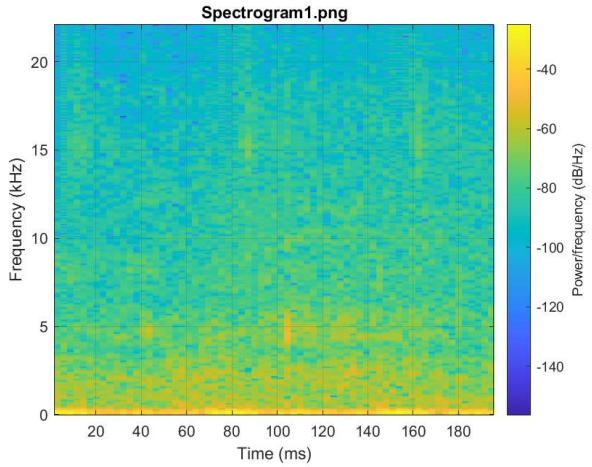
CODE:

```
spectrogram(frame,hamming(256),128,512,fs,'yaxis');
```

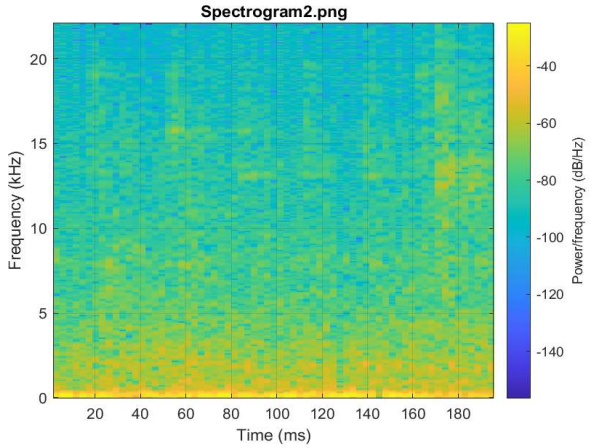
Graph of the entire audio



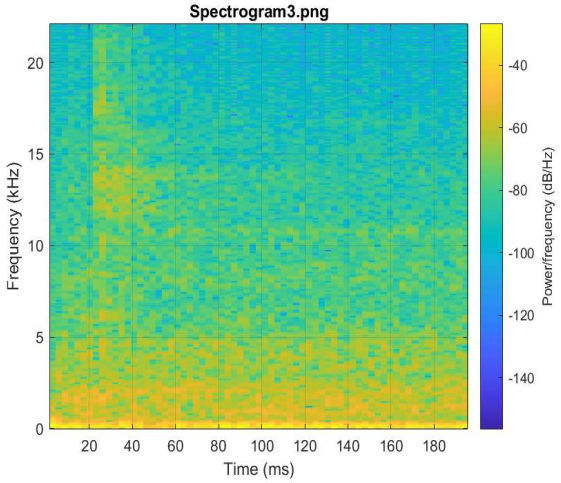
Spectrogram of Each Frame (2seconds frame interval)



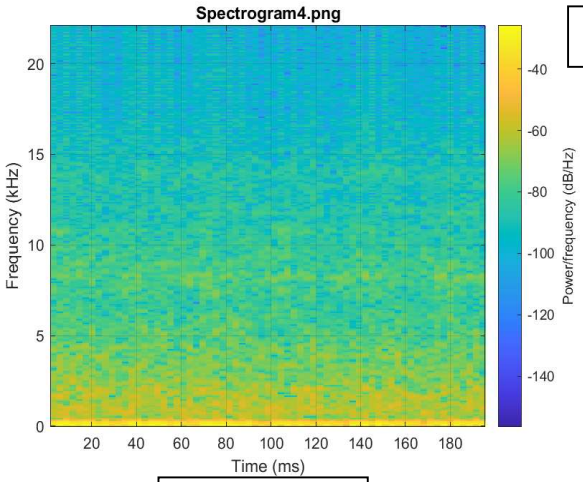
0-2Seconds



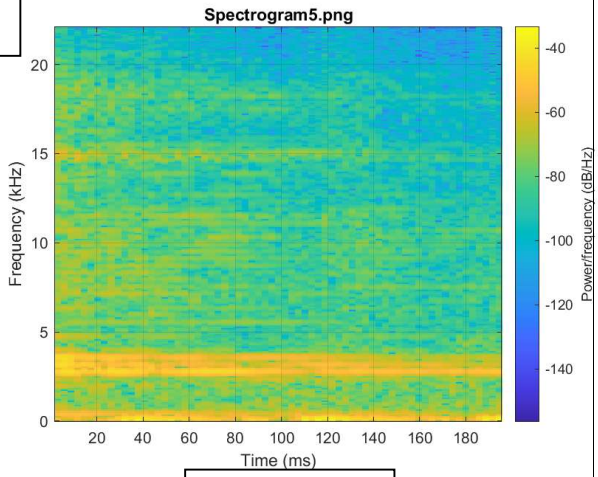
2-4Seconds



4-6Seconds



6-8Seconds



8-10Seconds

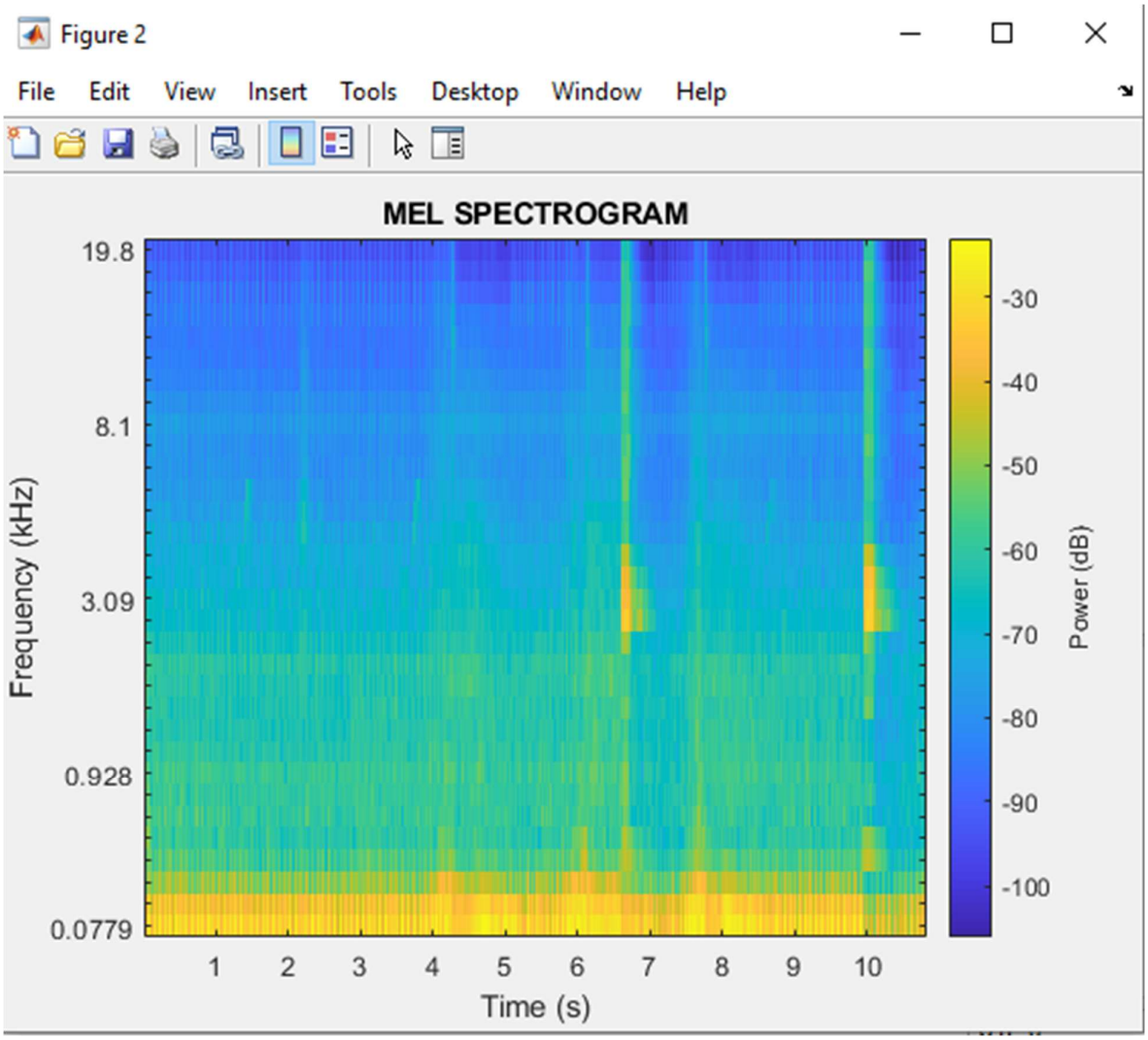
4. **Mel Spectrogram**

This is a perceptually scaled version of the spectrogram using the Mel scale, which mimics human hearing sensitivity. It emphasizes mid-range frequencies and is useful for speech and natural sound analysis.

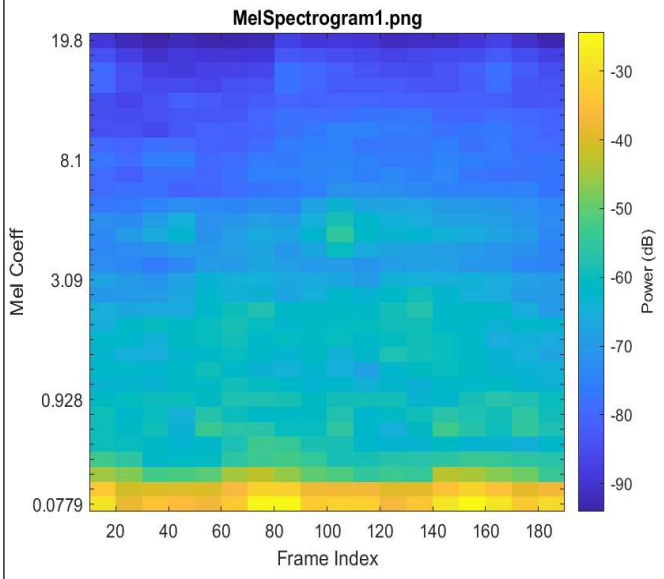
CODE:

```
figure;melSpectrogram(audioData,fs);
title('MEL SPECTROGRAM');
```

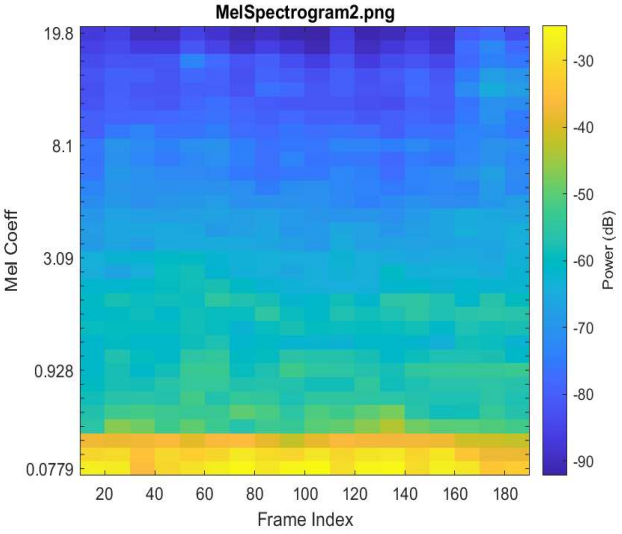
Graph of the entire audio



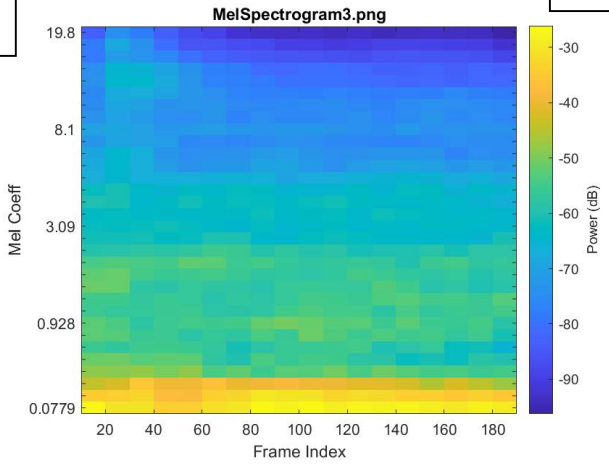
Mel Spectrogram of Each Frame (2seconds frame interval)



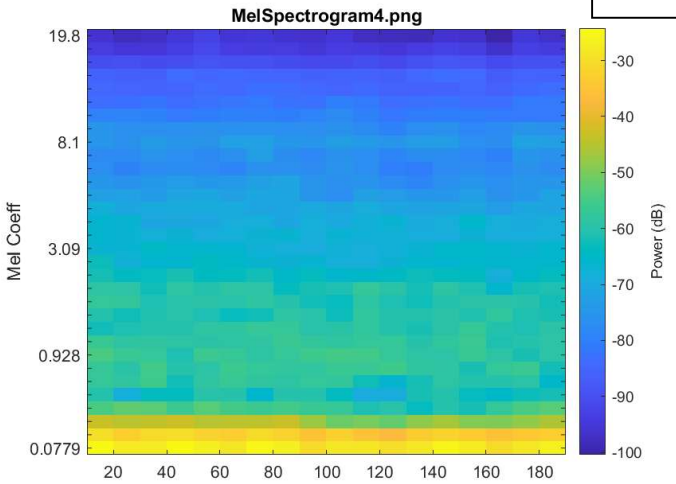
0-2Seconds



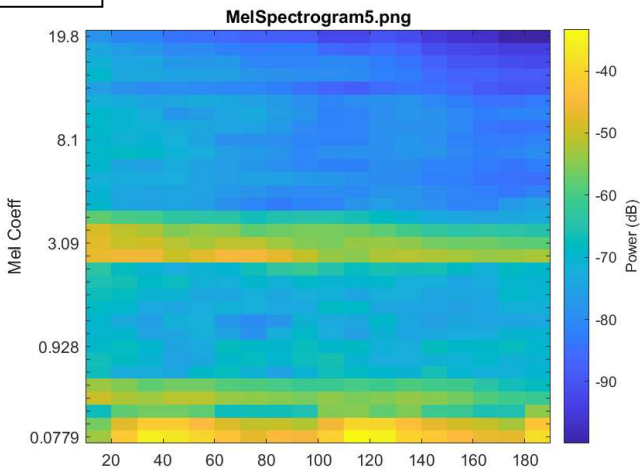
2-4Seconds



4-6Seconds



6-8Seconds



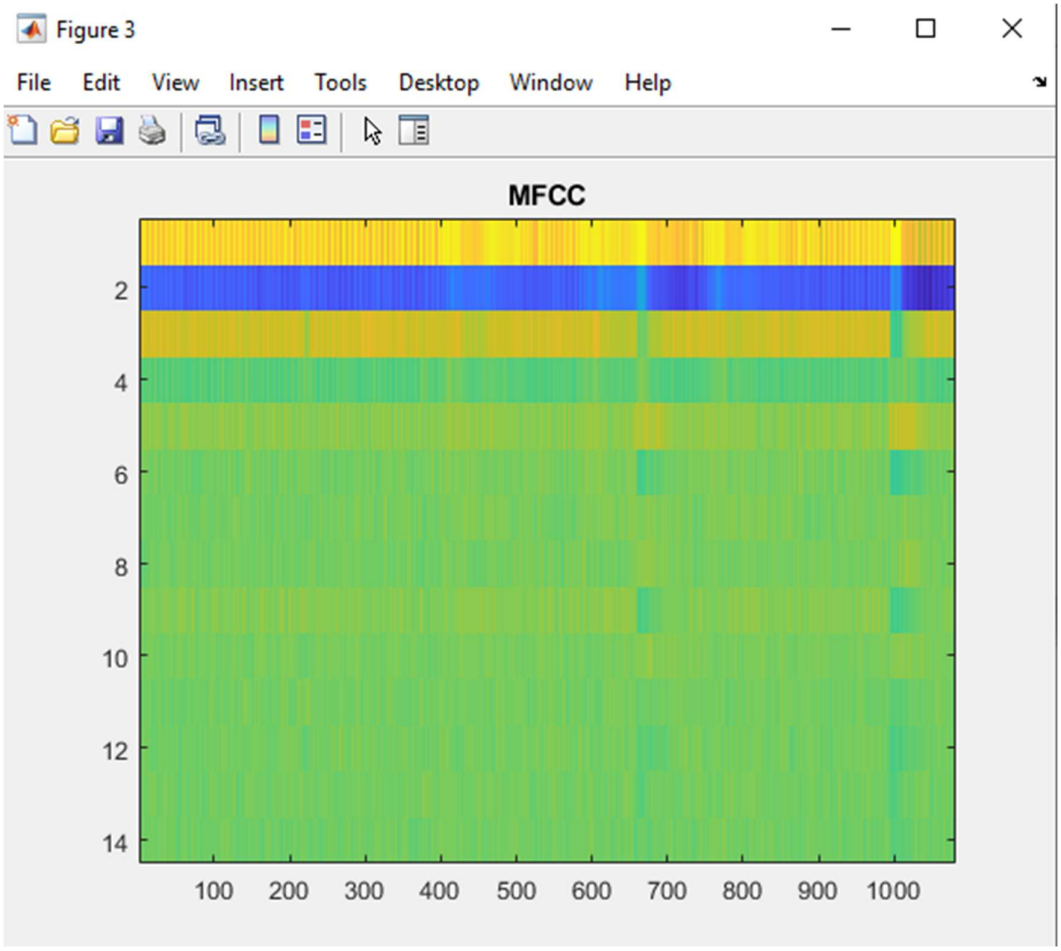
8-10Seconds

5. MFCC (Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients)

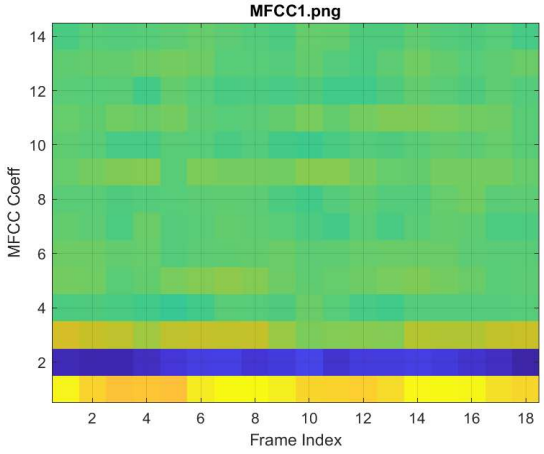
MFCCs capture the short-term spectral envelope of audio and are commonly used in audio classification and speech recognition. This plot shows how these coefficients vary over time, representing both frequency and shape information.

CODE:

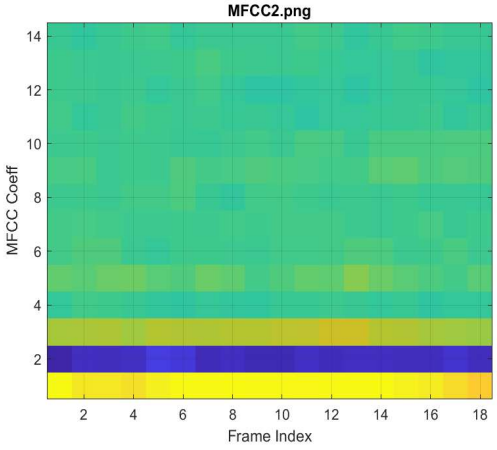
```
coeffs=mfcc(audioData,fs);
figure;imagesc(coeffs');
title('MFCC');
```



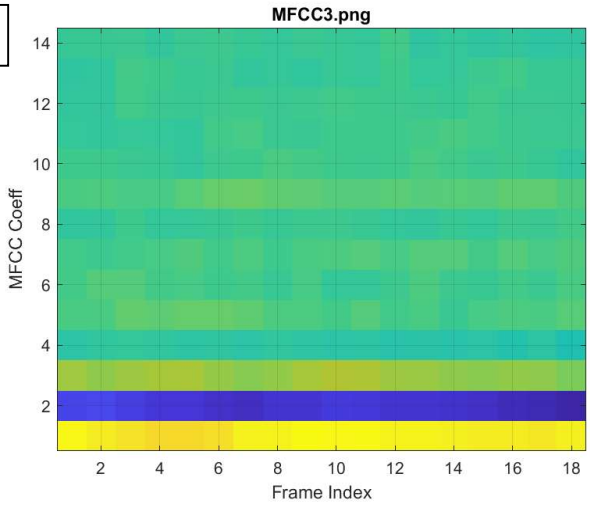
MFCC of Each Frame (2seconds frame interval)



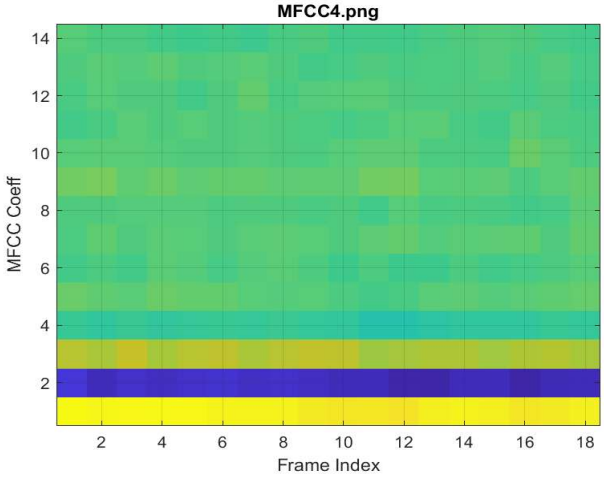
0-2Seconds



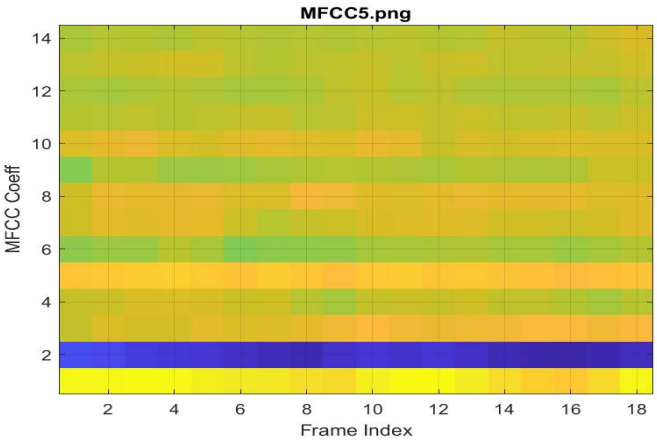
2-4Seconds



4-6Seconds



6-8Seconds



8-10Seconds

CONCLUSION

This project successfully demonstrated the recording and detailed spectral analysis of various real-world audio signals using MATLAB. By capturing sounds through a three-microphone setup and applying feature extraction techniques such as amplitude envelope, FFT, spectrograms, Mel spectrogram, and MFCCs, we gained valuable insights into the time-frequency structure of each signal. Frame-wise analysis further allowed us to observe the dynamic behavior of transient and stationary audio events. This foundational study sets the stage for more advanced applications like audio classification, source localization, and intelligent sound monitoring systems.

CHAPTER 4:

Implementation of Audio Classifier

Introduction:

Audio classification is a critical task in modern signal processing and artificial intelligence, involving the automatic identification and categorization of sounds into predefined classes. This project explores the use of deep learning architectures to effectively learn and recognize patterns within audio signals, enabling robust classification of various sound types such as speech, environmental noises, and mechanical events.

To achieve this, multiple deep learning models were implemented and compared, including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)—specifically Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks—and a hybrid approach using Convolutional Recurrent Neural Networks (CRNNs). Each model processes extracted audio features like spectrograms and Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCCs) to capture both spatial and temporal characteristics of sound.

By leveraging these architectures, the project aims to evaluate the strengths and limitations of each approach and identify the most effective model for accurate and generalizable audio classification. This comparative analysis contributes to the broader goal of building intelligent systems capable of understanding and interpreting audio cues in real-world applications.

Model Evaluation:

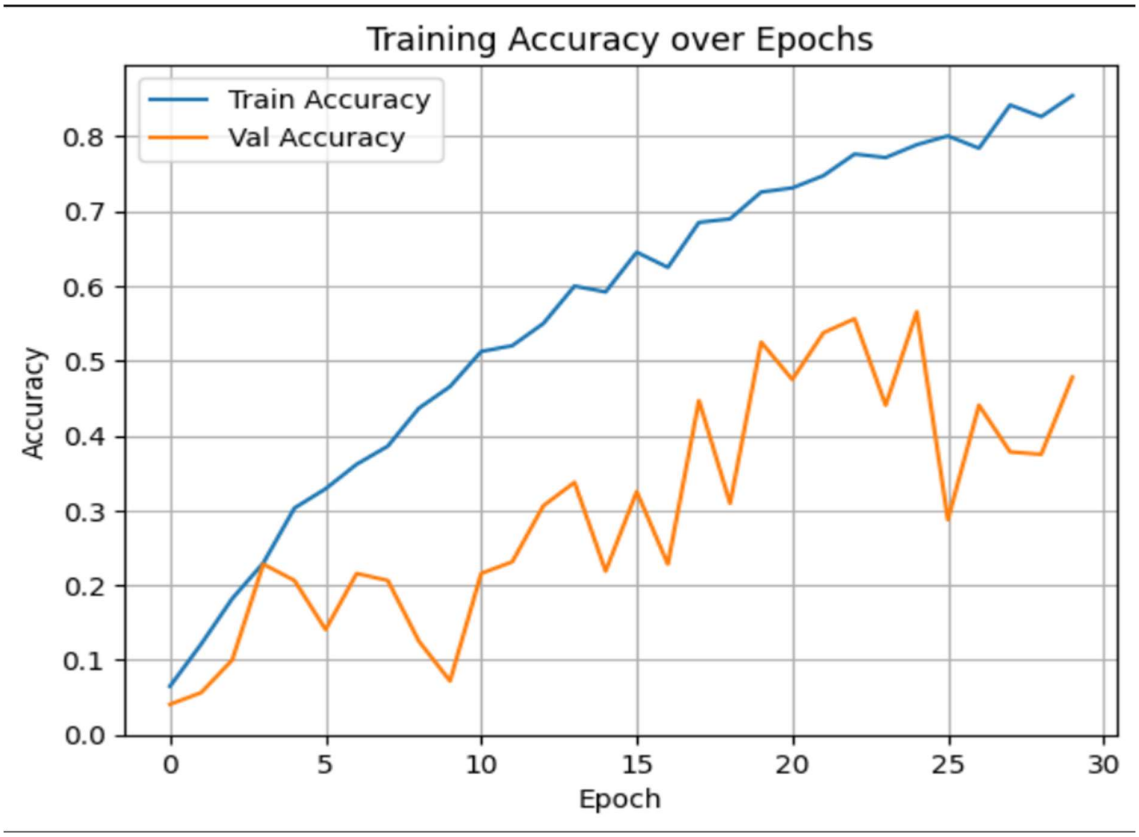
After the training phase the models were tested on different parameters and the accuracy of each of these models were found out

Convolutional Neural Networks(CNN)

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d_12 (Conv2D)	(None, 128, 216, 32)	320
batch_normalization (BatchNormalization)	(None, 128, 216, 32)	128
max_pooling2d_10 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 64, 108, 32)	0
conv2d_13 (Conv2D)	(None, 64, 108, 64)	18,496
batch_normalization_1 (BatchNormalization)	(None, 64, 108, 64)	256
max_pooling2d_11 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 32, 54, 64)	0
conv2d_14 (Conv2D)	(None, 32, 54, 128)	73,856
batch_normalization_2 (BatchNormalization)	(None, 32, 54, 128)	512
max_pooling2d_12 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 16, 27, 128)	0
global_average_pooling2d (GlobalAveragePooling2D)	(None, 128)	0
dense_10 (Dense)	(None, 128)	16,512
dropout_5 (Dropout)	(None, 128)	0
dense_11 (Dense)	(None, 50)	6,450

```
Total params: 116,530 (455.20 KB)

Trainable params: 116,082 (453.45 KB)

Non-trainable params: 448 (1.75 KB)
```

✅ **Final Test Accuracy: 49.75%**



The Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) was implemented as the baseline model for audio classification. CNNs are well-suited for processing spectrogram-like inputs, as they excel at learning local spatial patterns and hierarchical representations in two-dimensional data. In this project, the CNN was trained on pre-processed audio features, including Mel spectrograms and MFCCs, to recognize distinguishing characteristics across various sound classes.

Despite its strengths in feature extraction, the CNN model achieved a moderate classification accuracy of 49.75% on the test dataset. This performance suggests that while the model could capture some relevant frequency patterns, it struggled with temporal dependencies and contextual variations present in audio signals. These limitations highlight the need for incorporating time-based modeling techniques, which

motivated the exploration of RNN and CRNN architectures for improved performance.

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs)

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_layer_6 (InputLayer)	(None, 216, 120)	0
bidirectional_9 (Bidirectional)	(None, 216, 256)	192,000
batch_normalization_7 (BatchNormalization)	(None, 216, 256)	1,024
dropout_11 (Dropout)	(None, 216, 256)	0
bidirectional_10 (Bidirectional)	(None, 216, 128)	123,648
attention_4 (Attention)	(None, 128)	344
dense_11 (Dense)	(None, 64)	8,256
dropout_12 (Dropout)	(None, 64)	0
dense_12 (Dense)	(None, 50)	3,250

```
Total params: 328,522 (1.25 MB)

Trainable params: 328,010 (1.25 MB)

Non-trainable params: 512 (2.00 KB)
```

✅ **Test Accuracy: 55.75%**

To capture the temporal dynamics of audio signals—something CNNs struggle with—the project incorporated a Recurrent Neural Network (RNN), specifically using a Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) architecture. LSTMs are designed to retain long-term dependencies in sequential data, making them particularly effective for modeling the time-varying nature of acoustic events.

When trained on frame-wise audio features such as MFCCs and Mel spectrogram sequences, the RNN model demonstrated a noticeable improvement over the CNN. It achieved a classification accuracy of 55.75%, reflecting its ability to understand how sound evolves over time. This increase in accuracy illustrates the importance of temporal context in audio classification and validates the use of sequence-aware architectures for such tasks. However, the RNN alone was still limited in capturing fine-grained spatial patterns, motivating the use of a hybrid approach.

Convolutional Recurrent Neural Networks (CRNNs)

Libraries and Imports:

```
import os
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import librosa
import librosa.display
from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
from sklearn.preprocessing import LabelEncoder
from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, confusion_matrix
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
from tqdm import tqdm
import tensorflow as tf
from tensorflow.keras import layers, models, regularizers
from tensorflow.keras.utils import to_categorical
from tensorflow.keras.callbacks import ReduceLROnPlateau, EarlyStopping
```

Purpose:

- **os, numpy, pandas:** For file handling and data manipulation.
- **librosa:** For audio loading and feature extraction (e.g., MFCC).
- **tqdm:** For progress bars.
- **matplotlib:** For plotting model performance.
- **sklearn:** For data preprocessing.
- **tensorflow.keras:** For building and training neural networks.

Metadata and Label Mapping

Environmental Sound Classification 50: Contains Data of 50 attributes

```
# Paths

audio_dir = "esc50/ESC-50-master/wav_files"

label_file = "esc50/ESC-50-master/esc50_labels.csv"

# Load metadata

df = pd.read_csv(label_file)

label_encoder = LabelEncoder()

df['label_idx'] = label_encoder.fit_transform(df['category'])

num_classes = len(label_encoder.classes_)
```

Explanation:

This code snippet is part of a preprocessing step for the **ESC-50 environmental sound classification dataset**, which contains audio files labeled across 50 sound categories. It defines file paths, loads the metadata from a CSV file, and encodes the categorical labels into numerical indices for model training. The LabelEncoder assigns each sound category a unique integer, and the total number of classes is determined.

Audio Augmentation

```
def augment_audio(y, sr):
  if np.random.rand() < 0.3:
    y = y + 0.005 * np.random.randn(len(y))  # noise
  if np.random.rand() < 0.3:
```

```
    y = librosa.effects.pitch_shift(y=y, sr=sr, n_steps=np.random.randint(-2, 3))
  if np.random.rand() < 0.3:
    y = librosa.effects.time_stretch(y, rate=np.random.uniform(0.8, 1.2))
  return y
```

Feature Extraction: Mel Spectrogram

```
def extract_mel_spectrogram(file_path, augment=False):
  y, sr = librosa.load(file_path, sr=22050)
  if augment:
    y = augment_audio(y, sr)
  S = librosa.feature.melspectrogram(y=y, sr=sr, n_mels=128)
  log_S = librosa.power_to_db(S, ref=np.max)
  log_S = librosa.util.fix_length(log_S, size=216, axis=1)
  log_S = librosa.util.normalize(log_S)
  return log_S.T[..., np.newaxis]  # (216, 128, 1)
```

WHY MEL Spectrogram?

The Mel spectrogram is used in the CRNN model because it provides a time-frequency representation of audio that aligns closely with how humans perceive sound. By converting raw audio into a 2D image-like format with time on one axis and Mel-scaled frequency on the other, it allows CNN layers to capture local spectral patterns and RNN layers to model how those patterns evolve over time. This makes the Mel spectrogram an ideal input for CRNNs, enabling the network to effectively learn both spatial and temporal characteristics of complex audio signals.

Load Dataset and Split

```
X, y = [], []
print("🔍 Extracting features...")
for _, row in tqdm(df.iterrows(), total=len(df)):
  path = os.path.join(audio_dir, row['filename'])
```

```
    try:
        for i in range(2):  # original + one augmentation
            features = extract_mel_spectrogram(path, augment=(i == 1))
            X.append(features)
            y.append(row['label_idx'])
    except Exception as e:
        print(f"Error with {row['filename']}: {e}")

X = np.array(X)
y = to_categorical(y, num_classes)
print(f"✅ Data shape: {X.shape}, Labels: {y.shape}")

# -------------------- Split --------------------
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test = train_test_split(
    X, y, test_size=0.2, stratify=y, random_state=42
)
```

Attention Layer:

```
class Attention(tf.keras.layers.Layer):
    def __init__(self):
        super().__init__()

    def build(self, input_shape):
        self.W = self.add_weight(name='att_weight', shape=(input_shape[-1], 1),
                                 initializer='glorot_uniform', trainable=True)
        self.b = self.add_weight(name='att_bias', shape=(input_shape[1], 1),
                                 initializer='zeros', trainable=True)
        super().build(input_shape)
```

```
    def call(self, x):
        e = tf.keras.backend.tanh(tf.keras.backend.dot(x, self.W) + self.b)
        a = tf.keras.backend.softmax(e, axis=1)
        output = x * a
        return tf.keras.backend.sum(output, axis=1)
```

CRNN Model

```
def build_crnn(input_shape, num_classes):
    inp = layers.Input(shape=input_shape)

    x = layers.Conv2D(32, (3, 3), padding='same', activation='relu',
                      kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l2(1e-4))(inp)
    x = layers.BatchNormalization()(x)
    x = layers.MaxPooling2D((2, 2))(x)

    x = layers.Conv2D(64, (3, 3), padding='same', activation='relu',
                      kernel_regularizer=regularizers.l2(1e-4))(x)
    x = layers.BatchNormalization()(x)
    x = layers.MaxPooling2D((2, 2))(x)

    x = layers.Dropout(0.3)(x)
    x = layers.Reshape((x.shape[1], x.shape[2] * x.shape[3]))(x)

    x = layers.Bidirectional(layers.GRU(64, return_sequences=True))(x)
    x = layers.Dropout(0.3)(x)

    x = Attention()(x)
```

```
    x = layers.Dense(64, activation='relu')(x)
    x = layers.Dropout(0.4)(x)

    out = layers.Dense(num_classes, activation='softmax')(x)

    return models.Model(inputs=inp, outputs=out)
```

Train Model:

```
input_shape = (216, 128, 1)
model = build_crnn(input_shape, num_classes)
model.compile(optimizer='adam', loss='categorical_crossentropy',
metrics=['accuracy'])
model.summary()

callbacks = [
    ReduceLROnPlateau(monitor='val_loss', factor=0.5, patience=3, verbose=1),
    EarlyStopping(monitor='val_loss', patience=7, restore_best_weights=True)
]

history = model.fit(
    X_train, y_train,
    validation_split=0.15,
    epochs=50,
    batch_size=32,
    callbacks=callbacks,
    verbose=1
)
```

Evaluation Report

loss, acc = model.evaluate(X_test, y_test)

print(f"\n✅ Final Test Accuracy: {acc:.2%}")

OUTPUT:

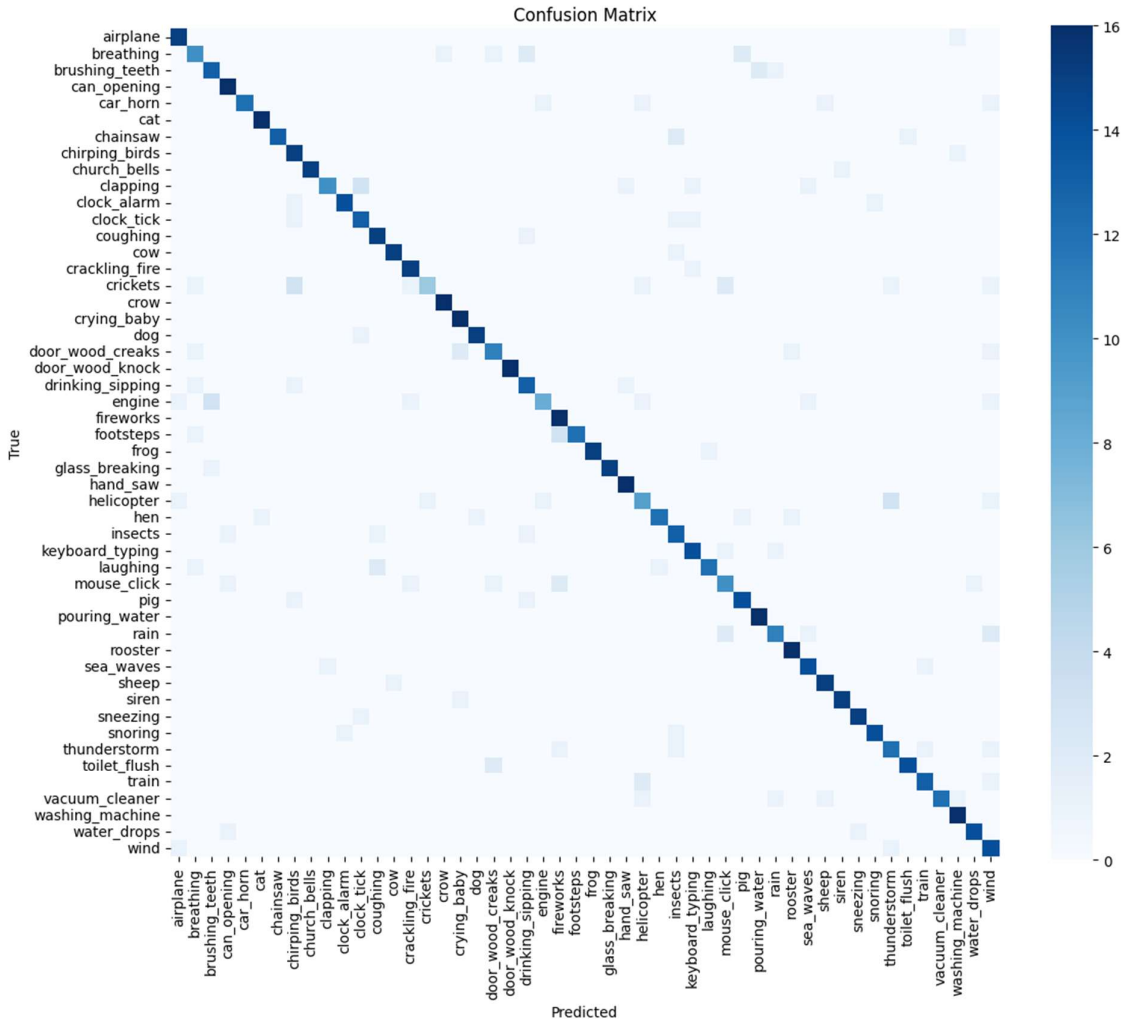
✅ Final Test Accuracy: 84.62%

Report & Confusion Matrix

y_pred = model.predict(X_test)

y_pred_labels = np.argmax(y_pred, axis=1)

y_true_labels = np.argmax(y_test, axis=1)

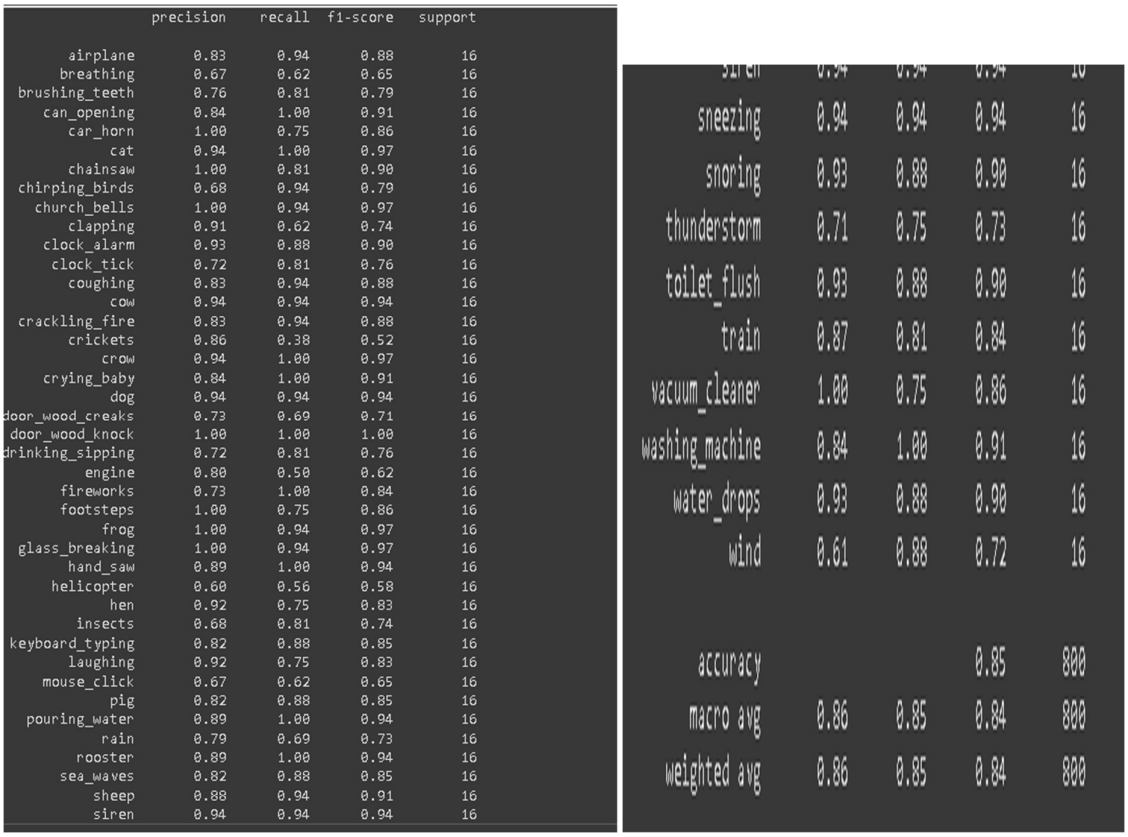


 # Confusion matrix

```
cm = confusion_matrix(y_true_labels, y_pred_labels)

plt.figure(figsize=(12, 10))

sns.heatmap(cm, cmap='Blues', xticklabels=label_encoder.classes_,
yticklabels=label_encoder.classes_, square=True)

plt.title("Confusion Matrix")

plt.xlabel("Predicted")

plt.ylabel("True")

plt.tight_layout()

plt.show()
```

Classification report:

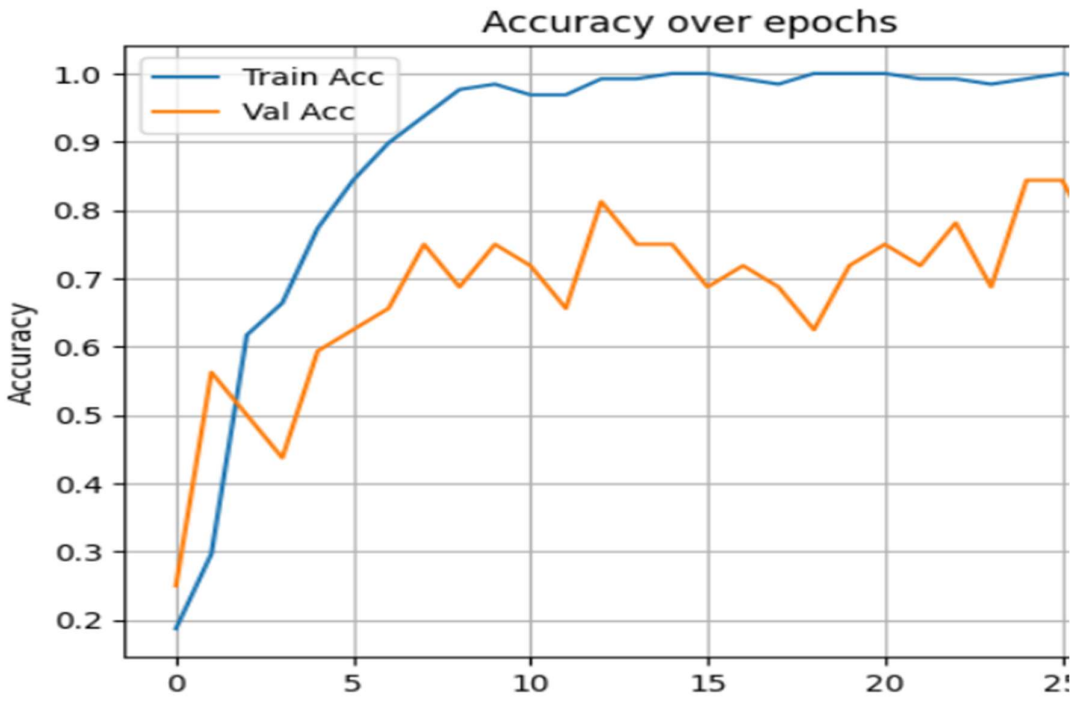
```
print(classification_report(y_true_labels, y_pred_labels,
target_names=label_encoder.classes_))
```



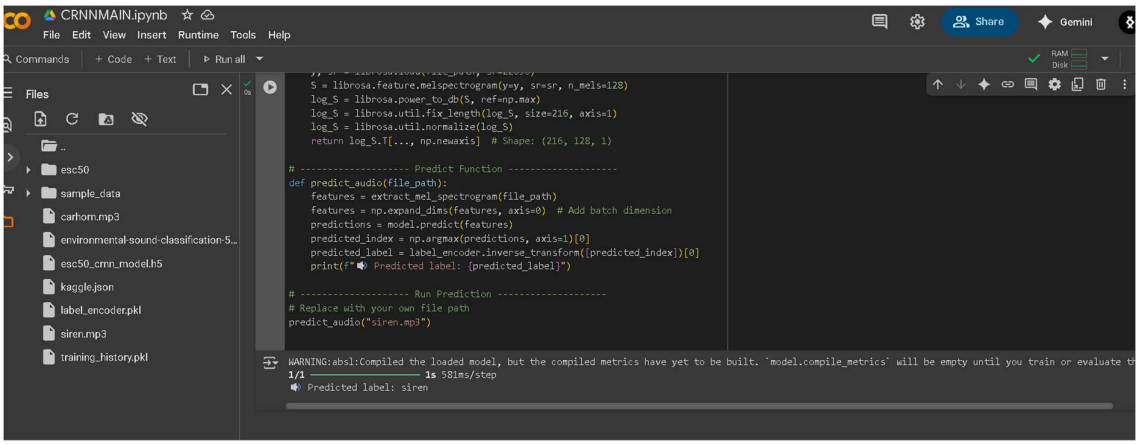
	precision	recall	f1-score	support
airplane	0.83	0.94	0.88	16
breathing	0.67	0.62	0.65	16
brushing_teeth	0.76	0.81	0.79	16
can_opening	0.84	1.00	0.91	16
car_horn	1.00	0.75	0.86	16
cat	0.94	1.00	0.97	16
chainsaw	1.00	0.81	0.90	16
chirping_birds	0.68	0.94	0.79	16
church_bells	1.00	0.94	0.97	16
clapping	0.91	0.62	0.74	16
clock_alarm	0.93	0.88	0.90	16
clock_tick	0.72	0.81	0.76	16
coughing	0.83	0.94	0.88	16
cow	0.94	0.94	0.94	16
crackling_fire	0.83	0.94	0.88	16
crickets	0.86	0.38	0.52	16
crow	0.94	1.00	0.97	16
crying_baby	0.84	1.00	0.91	16
dog	0.94	0.94	0.94	16
door_wood_creaks	0.73	0.69	0.71	16
door_wood_knock	1.00	1.00	1.00	16
drinking_sipping	0.72	0.81	0.76	16
engine	0.80	0.50	0.62	16
fireworks	0.73	1.00	0.84	16
footsteps	1.00	0.75	0.86	16
frog	1.00	0.94	0.97	16
glass_breaking	1.00	0.94	0.97	16
hand_saw	0.89	1.00	0.94	16
helicopter	0.60	0.56	0.58	16
hen	0.92	0.75	0.83	16
insects	0.68	0.81	0.74	16
keyboard_typing	0.82	0.88	0.85	16
laughing	0.92	0.75	0.83	16
mouse_click	0.67	0.62	0.65	16
pig	0.82	0.88	0.85	16
pouring_water	0.89	1.00	0.94	16
rain	0.79	0.69	0.73	16
rooster	0.89	1.00	0.94	16
sea_waves	0.82	0.88	0.85	16
sheep	0.88	0.94	0.91	16
siren	0.94	0.94	0.94	16
sneezing	0.94	0.94	0.94	16
snoring	0.93	0.88	0.90	16
thunderstorm	0.71	0.75	0.73	16
toilet_flush	0.93	0.88	0.90	16
train	0.87	0.81	0.84	16
vacuum_cleaner	1.00	0.75	0.86	16
washing_machine	0.84	1.00	0.91	16
water_drops	0.93	0.88	0.90	16
wind	0.61	0.88	0.72	16
accuracy			0.85	800
macro avg	0.86	0.85	0.84	800
weighted avg	0.86	0.85	0.84	800

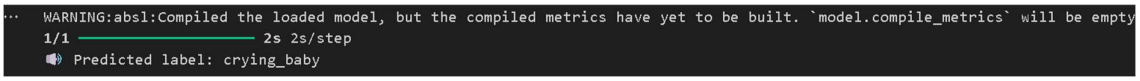
Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
input_layer (InputLayer)	(None, 216, 128, 1)	0
conv2d (Conv2D)	(None, 216, 128, 32)	320
batch_normalization (BatchNormalization)	(None, 216, 128, 32)	128
max_pooling2d (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 108, 64, 32)	0
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 108, 64, 64)	18,496
batch_normalization_1 (BatchNormalization)	(None, 108, 64, 64)	256
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 54, 32, 64)	0
dropout (Dropout)	(None, 54, 32, 64)	0
reshape (Reshape)	(None, 54, 2048)	0
bidirectional (Bidirectional)	(None, 54, 128)	811,776
dropout_1 (Dropout)	(None, 54, 128)	0
attention (Attention)	(None, 128)	182
dense (Dense)	(None, 64)	8,256
dropout_2 (Dropout)	(None, 64)	0
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 50)	3,250

Total params: 842,664 (3.21 MB)
Trainable params: 842,472 (3.21 MB)
Non-trainable params: 192 (768.00 B)



OUTPUT:





Why CRNN?

The Mel spectrogram is used in the CRNN model because it provides a time-frequency representation of audio that aligns closely with how humans perceive sound. By converting raw audio into a 2D image-like format with time on one axis and Mel-scaled frequency on the other, it allows CNN layers to capture local spectral patterns and RNN layers to model how those patterns evolve over time. This makes the Mel spectrogram an ideal input for CRNNs, enabling the network to effectively learn both spatial and temporal characteristics of complex audio signals.

Future Enhancements and Scope for Improvement

While the current project achieved promising results using CNN, RNN (LSTM), and CRNN architectures for environmental sound classification, there remains significant scope for further enhancement, both in terms of model performance and system capability.

1. Transformer-Based Architectures

One of the most exciting directions for future work involves integrating **Transformer models**, such as **Audio Spectrogram Transformers (AST)** or **Wav2Vec 2.0**, which have shown state-of-the-art performance in many audio and speech tasks. Unlike RNNs or CNNs, Transformers use **self-attention**

mechanisms to model long-range dependencies across the entire sequence, capturing both global and local relationships more effectively.

Transformers can outperform traditional architectures in recognizing complex temporal and spectral patterns, especially in noisy or overlapping sound environments. However, they require significantly more **computational resources**, including high-end GPUs, large memory capacity, and extended training time due to their **quadratic complexity** with respect to input length.

2. Real-Time Inference and Edge Deployment

To make the system usable in practical applications (like surveillance or smart devices), optimizing the model for **real-time inference** is a critical enhancement. This could involve:

- **Model quantization**
- **Pruning or distillation**
- Deployment on platforms like **NVIDIA Jetson**, **Raspberry Pi**, or **TPU accelerators**

CRNN or lightweight transformer variants can be retrained or compressed for embedded environments.

3. Multichannel and Spatial Audio Integration

Currently, the model processes mono-channel inputs. Incorporating **multichannel audio** or **binaural/microphone array data** would enable the system to learn spatial features, helping in **sound source localization** and **direction-aware classification**.

4. Data Augmentation and Self-Supervised Learning

Future iterations can benefit from more advanced **data augmentation techniques** like SpecAugment, time stretching, and background noise mixing. Also, **self-supervised learning** on large unlabeled datasets can help pretrain feature extractors, improving performance with less labeled data.

5. Expanded Datasets and Real-World Generalization

Training and testing on larger, more diverse datasets (like AudioSet) will help the model generalize better to unseen environments and real-world audio scenes. Additionally, **cross-domain evaluations** can be introduced to test robustness.

Conclusion

This project successfully demonstrates the design and implementation of an end-to-end environmental audio classification system grounded in both theoretical research and practical experimentation. Throughout the internship, significant progress was made in exploring the complete pipeline of audio signal processing—from real-time audio acquisition to advanced deep learning-based classification.

Starting with the fundamentals of speech and audio signal analysis, guided by Rabiner and Juang's seminal work, the project built a solid theoretical foundation in speech recognition, signal processing techniques, and pattern modeling. This theoretical insight was then translated into practical implementation through real-world data collection using PodTrack and external microphones, alongside standard datasets such as UrbanSound8K.

A comprehensive feature extraction pipeline was developed, utilizing both Python libraries (Librosa) and MATLAB for in-depth spectral visualization and analysis. Features such as MFCCs, Mel spectrograms, amplitude envelopes, and FFT spectra were extracted both globally and frame-wise, capturing the essential temporal and spectral characteristics of environmental sounds.

Three deep learning architectures were explored—CNN, LSTM, and CRNN—with the CRNN model achieving the highest classification accuracy due to its ability to simultaneously learn spatial and sequential patterns in the audio data. In parallel, a separate audio source localization module was implemented using microphone arrays and angle-of-arrival estimation techniques, further expanding the scope and utility of the system.

Extensive performance evaluation was conducted using standard metrics including accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and confusion matrices. The results validated the effectiveness of the CRNN model and confirmed the robustness of the feature pipeline, even under real-world noise conditions.

Overall, the project highlights the importance of combining theoretical understanding with hands-on implementation. It not only delivered a functional audio classification system but also contributed to a deeper understanding of speech and sound processing, model design, and practical deployment challenges. The modular and scalable architecture ensures that the system can be extended for future use cases such as multi-sensor fusion, real-time surveillance, and embedded intelligent systems.

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[7] Environmental Sound Classification 50

Main Dataset: https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/mmoreaux/environmental-sound-classification-50

[8] OCR using CRNN: A Deep Learning Approach for Text Recognition

https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/10170436

ADDITIONAL LEARNINGS

Hyperspectral Spectroscopy & Remote Sensing Applications

1. Overview:

In this project, I participated in an intensive technical module on Hyperspectral Spectroscopy and Remote Sensing, with a primary focus on spectral imaging, environmental analysis, and mineral identification through the use of spectral reflectance signatures. The module integrated theoretical instruction with hands-on training using the ENVI software suite, a widely used tool in the geospatial and remote sensing community.

The training aimed to build proficiency in analyzing hyperspectral data cubes, understanding spectral mixing behavior, and performing classification using spectral angle-based algorithms. The course emphasized both scientific understanding and real-world application of hyperspectral analysis in domains such as geology, defense, agriculture, and environmental monitoring.

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2. **Theoretical Concepts Explored**

Throughout the module, I gained a deep understanding of the core principles and methodologies that underpin hyperspectral imaging systems:

2.1 Hyperspectral Imaging & Data Cube

Hyperspectral imaging captures reflectance data across hundreds of contiguous spectral bands. The resulting dataset forms a hyperspectral data cube, combining two spatial dimensions with a third spectral dimension. This allows precise material identification based on fine-grained spectral differences.

2.2 Resolution Concepts

We explored the key resolutions that affect remote sensing data:

- Spatial Resolution: Determines ground pixel size.
- Spectral Resolution: Defines the number and width of spectral bands.
- Radiometric Resolution: Captures sensor sensitivity to signal variation.
- Temporal Resolution: Frequency of data acquisition over time.

2.3 Field of View (FOV) and IFOV

We learned how FOV and Instantaneous FOV (IFOV) influence spatial coverage and measurement granularity of imaging sensors.

2.4 Reflectance Spectroscopy

The physics of reflectance was discussed, distinguishing between specular (mirror-like) and diffuse (scattered) reflectance, both critical to correctly interpreting surface characteristics.

2.5 Spectral Mixtures

Real-world pixels often contain mixtures of materials. We studied linear and nonlinear mixing models and their implications for classification accuracy.

2.6 Atmospheric Scattering and Correction

Atmospheric interference (e.g., water vapor, aerosols) distorts reflectance data. I learned correction techniques using models embedded in ENVI, including aerosol model selection and water retrieval algorithms.

2.7 Dimensionality Reduction & Classification Algorithms

High dimensionality in hyperspectral data requires preprocessing techniques such as:

- Minimum Noise Fraction (MNF) and Forward MNF for noise suppression and data compression.
- Pixel Purity Index (PPI) for identifying spectrally pure pixels.
- Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM) for classifying unknown spectra based on angular similarity in n-dimensional space.

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3. **Practical Training with ENVI Software**

Hands-on sessions were conducted using ENVI software with curated hyperspectral datasets provided by instructors. These sessions included:

3.1 Atmospheric Correction & Preprocessing

- Applied bad pixel correction to remove sensor artifacts.
- Used ENVI's tools to apply residual calibration removal and standard atmospheric correction.

3.2 Spectral Feature Visualization

- Extracted and visualized spectral reflectance curves for target materials.
- Used multi-display and RGB composite visualization to interpret data layers.

3.3 Spectral Classification

- Applied Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM) to classify and identify minerals.
- Used Pixel Purity Index (PPI) to refine endmember selection.
- Performed band selection to optimize classification results and reduce noise sensitivity.

3.4 Special Applications Explored

- Practiced camouflage detection under different spectral and spatial conditions.
- Discussed detection using active vs passive sensing sources, especially in defense scenarios.

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4. **Applications and Relevance**

Hyperspectral spectroscopy has significant application across diverse fields:

- Geological Exploration: Accurate identification of minerals and rock types based on unique spectral signatures.
- Environmental Monitoring: Assessing vegetation health, water quality, and land surface changes.
- Defense and Surveillance: Detecting hidden or camouflaged objects using spectral differences.
- Precision Agriculture: Monitoring crop conditions and soil properties non-invasively.
- Disaster Management: Mapping affected zones during floods, fires, or oil spills using spectral reflectance changes.

The skills developed in this module have direct relevance to any domain involving surface mapping, chemical detection, or pattern-based material identification.

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5. **Skills and Tools Developed**

Skill/Tool	Application Area
ENVI Software	Spectral classification, data cube navigation
SAM, MNF, PPI	Dimensionality reduction and material matching
Reflectance Spectral Analysis	Mineral identification, vegetation mapping
Atmospheric Correction	Preprocessing of raw hyperspectral datasets
Visualization Techniques	RGB composite, spectral curve plotting
Analytical Reasoning	Interpreting spectral similarity and signal behavior

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6. **Conclusion**

This module provided a comprehensive and immersive introduction to hyperspectral spectroscopy and remote sensing, balancing theoretical rigor with applied data analysis. Through intensive practice using ENVI software, I developed a solid understanding of the complete spectral analysis pipeline—from raw data correction to classification and visualization.

The integration of mathematical modeling, spectral feature extraction, and classification techniques reinforced key concepts in signal processing and remote sensing physics. Overall, this experience has significantly enhanced my capability to process, interpret, and apply hyperspectral data in a variety of scientific and operational contexts, particularly in geospatial intelligence, environmental monitoring, and advanced remote sensing workflows.