

Low-Dimensional Bottleneck Features for On-Device Continuous Speech Recognition

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Abstract

Low power digital signal processors (DSPs) typically have a very limited amount of memory in which to cache data. In this paper we develop efficient bottleneck feature (BNF) extractors that can be run on a DSP, and retrain a baseline large-vocabulary continuous speech recognition (LVCSR) system to use these BNFs with only a minimal loss of accuracy. The small BNFs allow the DSP chip to cache more audio features while the main application processor is suspended, thereby reducing the overall battery usage. Our presented system is able to reduce the footprint of standard, fixed point DSP spectral features by a factor of 10 without any loss in word error rate (WER) and by a factor of 64 with only a $5.8\,\%$ relative increase in WER.

Index Terms— bottleneck features, large vocabulary continuous speech recognition, low-power deep learning, mobile

1. Introduction

Large-vocabulary continuous speech recognition (LVCSR) can be used to extract rich context about a user's interests, intents, and state. If run on a mobile device, this has the potential to revolutionize the quality of on-device services they interact with. In order for this to become practical, hardware-level optimization is required to preserve the battery life of portable devices.

In this paper, we present a new LVCSR model architecture that takes advantage of a low-power, fixed point, always-on digital signal processor (DSP) to significantly reduce power consumption. Our goal is to use the DSP to optimally compress incoming speech into its bottleneck features (BNFs) representation which is cached for as long a period as possible. By increasing the amount of cached input, we reduce the wake-up frequency of the device's main processor, which is used to complete the inference.

We start with a state-of-the-art Listen, Attend, Spell (LAS) end-to-end automatic speech recognition (ASR) model, and effectively split its encoder across the DSP and the main processor. Hardware optimization across the DSP and main processor has been successfully leveraged in the past to cache features for similar low-power services [1], though this is the first time that a DSP has been used to compute the initial layers in the primary inference model. This leads to a significant increase in the amount of audio we can cache, with minimal impact to the model's overall WER. Furthermore, as a purely on-device model, this design preserves user privacy as well as battery life. The topology is an important step towards practical LVCSR in highly power-constrained contexts.

2. Related Work

Fully end-to-end LVCSR are emerging as the state-of-the-art [2], equalling and even surpassing the performance of standard connectionist temporal classification [3] models. The core architecture for these end-to-end models, called Listen, Attend, and Spell [4], contains three major subgraphs - an encoder, an attention mechanism, and a decoder. Since their proposal in 2015, there has been a substantial amount of work done to optimize these models for on-device use [5], [6], including weight matrix factorization, pruning, and model distillation. Due to these improvements, it is now possible to run a state-of-the-art LVCSR model on a mobile device's core processor (at a high power cost).

For the traditional hidden markov model (HMM)-based systems that predate LAS architectures, neural networks (NN) had been heavily used as part of a traditional ASR acoustic model. Vesely *et al.* [7] show that convolutional bottleneck compression improves system performance in such setups. Typically, these compressed representations are concatenated with small time-window features to provide 'context'.

Additionally, small HMM-based keyword spotters have been successfully optimized across a DSP and main processor. Shah $et\ al.$ [8] propose a model which introduces 5- and 6 bit weight quantization for a reduced memory footprint without a significant reduction in accuracy. Although these models have different architectures and applications, their use of convolutional bottleneck features and fixed-point network quantization inform our architecture.

Shah *et al.* [8] and Gfeller *et al.* [1] introduce a split across a fixed-point DSP and a main processor motivated by power optimization. A quantized, two-stage, separable convolutional layer running on the DSP forms the basis of their music detector. We use the same layer structure in our DSP implementation.

The previously mentioned approaches do not attempt to compress audio features before caching, but there are other analyses of the trade-off between feature caching and power savings in the literature. In Priyantha et~al.~[9] and Priyantha et~al.~[10], empirical power consumption drops from $700~\rm mW$ to $25~\rm mW$ as data is cached $50~\rm x$ longer for a pedometer application. Measurements of Gfeller et~al.~[1] indicate a full 25~%-50~% of the power cost at inference time is due to fixed wakeup and sleep overhead. Our goal is to significantly reduce this fixed power cost.

3. Feature Substitution

State-of-the-art results are reported in Chiu *et al.* [2] with a very large, proprietary corpus. In this paper, we use the Librispeech 100 corpus to train our model [11]. Chiu *et al.* [2]

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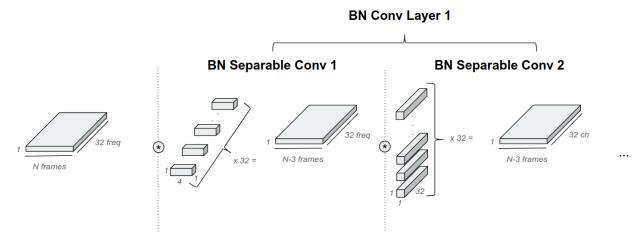


Fig. 1: The default configuration of a bottleneck layer running on the DSP; here we see a kernel size of 4 applied in a frequency separable way, followed by one frequency kernel per output channel. These two convolutions are considered as a single 'layer'.

report a WER of $4.1\,\%$ with over 12,500 hours of training data; the same model trained on 100 hours of Librispeech data gives a WER of $21.8\,\%$, which we use as the baseline for all further evaluation.

The model from Chiu *et al.* [2] is capable of running on a phone using 80-dimensional, 32 bit floating point mel spectrum audio features sampled in 25 ms windows every 10 ms. These features capture a maximum frequency of 7.8 kHz and are stacked with delta and double delta features, resulting in an 80 x 3 input vector at each timestep. We replace these features with *quantized mel features* (*QM-features*) that are compact, simple to calculate, and currently in use by other services running on the DSP.

QM-features are log-mel based with a 16 bit fixed point representation. We use a default, narrow-band frequency representation that only captures up to 3.8 Hz over 32 bins. This choice has been effective in similarly optimized past systems [1]. We test the effect of reducing the bandwidth by simply using fewer log-mel bins. Sampling rate and window size are constant across test input features and, for each case, we train an end-to-end model. The results of training a state-of-the-art LAS model with different input representations which can be calculated and cached on the DSP can be seen in Table 1.

The results indicate that the baseline model, whose features have not previously been optimized, has a heavily redundant input representation, requiring three times the bandwidth of the raw audio after delta stacking. We are able to significantly reduce the input bandwidth (and, by extension, the amount of computation in the initial LAS layers) without severely affecting the model's WER.

Delta- and double delta- feature stacking do not have a large effect relative to their $3 \, \mathrm{x}$ increase in size; thus we will take the *standard* $32 \, \mathrm{bin}$ QM-features input as our starting point for further exploration. Though we see an incremental trade-off between bandwidth and WER for smaller raw feature representations, we will use the full $32 \, \mathrm{bin}$ QM-features as an input to our compressived bottleneck layers in an attempt to preserve WER while reducing the bandwidth even more drastically.

4. Bottleneck Feature Extraction

Our model uses the convolutional structure outlined by Gfeller *et al.* [1]. The structure of a single layer is shown in Figure 1. These simple, separable convolutional layers have been optimized for the DSP. Besides minimal computation, all layer weights and intermediate representations are quantized to 8 bits. 32 bit biases, batch normalization [13], and a restricted linear unit (ReLU) activation function are included after the second, 1-D separable convolution.

To explore the space of bottleneck architectures, we parameterized this architecture along the following axes: output dimension size, output quantization level, convolutional stride (in time), kernel size, and the number of layers in the bottleneck network. Our dimension/quantization parameters vary the channel count and bit-depth only for the output of the second separable convolution step of the final BNF layer; parameters for kernel stride and size, on the other hand, control the first separable convolution kernel and stride in all bottleneck layers.

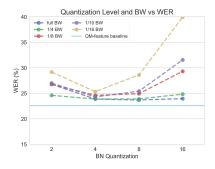
The first three of these (dimension, quantization, and stride) have the potential to reduce the bandwidth of the resulting bottleneck, while kernel size and layer depth only affect the memory and computation requirements of the resulting model. The changes in representation introduced by these bandwidth reducing techniques forces us to modify the initial two convolutional layers of the LAS encoder, which normally apply 3x3 time-frequency kernels and strides of 2 to their input. As our flattened and modified channel axis no longer preserves relationships in frequency, we modify these layers to have (by default) a 3x1 time kernel. We also vary the number of initial LAS encoder layers and strides in our analysis.

5. Results

Initial results are based on freezing the bottleneck (BN) extractor and encoder layer parameters and varying one parameter at time. This analysis revealed a statistically insignificant effect of BN kernel size (across a range from 1 to 10) based on McNemar statistical tests [14]. Activation function comparisons favored ReLU in a default configuration, but at high levels of quantization/compression showed no difference between identity and ReLU activation functions.

Table 1: Comparison of model performance with smaller feature representations.

Model Input	Input Dims	Feature Type	WER (%)	Bandwidth (kbps)
16 kHz 16 bit raw PCM audio	_	_	_	256
Baseline LAS Model	80 x 3	Mel, + Δ + $\Delta\Delta$	21.79	768
Standard QM-features + Deltas	32 x 3	Mel, + Δ + $\Delta\Delta$	22.42	154
Standard QM-features	32 x 1	Mel	22.62	51.2
3/4 Bandwidth QM-features	24 x 1	Mel	22.80	38.4
1/2 Bandwidth QM-features	16 x 1	Mel	22.97	25.6
1/4 Bandwidth QM-features	8 x 1	Mel	24.52	12.8



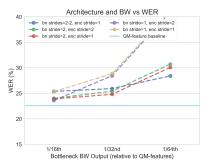


Fig. 2: The left plot uses a bottleneck feature extractor with a single hidden layer in which the output layer dimension and quantization level were modified to give a certain bandwidth output (relative to the standard 32 dimensional 16 bit QM-features). We see a trend towards 4-bit quantization, especially at high compression levels. The right plot shows the performance of various architectures (different bottleneck and encoder depths/strides and BNF dimension) at 4-bit quantization, plotted against bandwidth (BW). As more drastic compression is demanded, shifting the stride to before the BNFs improves performance, which is similar to reducing the frame rate in more traditional models [12].

There was a clear performance loss when increasing BN stride without a simultaneous decrease in encoder stride. We hypothesize that the model has already been optimally compressed in the time dimension (the original model has a time step of $10\,\mathrm{ms}$ fed through two strides of two, resulting in an encoded frame every $40\,\mathrm{ms}$). No dependence on encoder depth was noticeable.

In Figure 2, we see the results of varying the BNF output dimension and quantization level at different rates of compression relative to the $32\,\mathrm{dimensional}\ 16\,\mathrm{bit}\ \mathrm{QM}$ -features. A quantization of $4\,\mathrm{bits}$ and 8-12 output dimensions perform the best across compression levels.

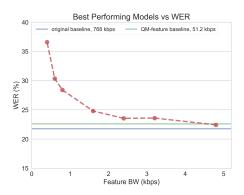


Fig. 3: Best performing model vs bandwidth (BW). We see a good trade-off around 2 kbps.

The best performing models have been collected in Table 2. Each of these models has a single hidden layer in the BNF extractor with the exception of the 1/64 bandwidth model, and a stride of two in the bottleneck layer with the exception of the 1/10 bandwidth model. All of the models have an output quantization depth of 4 bits, a kernel of 4, and output dimensionality between 8 and 16 channels. They use single convolutional layer with a stride of 1 in the encoder (excepting the 1/16 and 1/32 constant time compression models, which have a stride of 2).

Our optimized $4.8\,\mathrm{kbps}$ model with a single BNF layer actually outperforms the standard QM-features model (running at $51.2\,\mathrm{kbps}$). Compared with the original unoptimized model, this is a $160\,\mathrm{x}$ reduction in feature bandwidth for a $0.6\,\%$ increase in WER. We are able to continue to compress our BNFs more and more heavily for slight increases in WER. Our presented system is able to reduce the footprint of standard fixed point DSP spectral features by a factor of 64 for a $5.8\,\%$ relative increase in WER; compared with the original floating point model, this represents a $960\,\mathrm{x}$ feature compression for a $6.6\,\%$ increase in WER. The best performing models at ~1/84 ($0.6\,\mathrm{kbps}$) and 1/128 ($0.4\,\mathrm{kbps}$) converge to WER values of $30.36\,\%$ and $36.59\,\%$ respectively, which represents the breakdown in performance (Figure 3).

6. Conclusion

Our analysis revealed that time compression was initially the limiting factor in our model, and a $40\,\mathrm{ms}$ compressed step size seems to be the limit for high accuracy models. We found that kernel dimensionality and activation function had little effect

Table 2: Selection of best performing models for different bandwidths (BW).

Model	# BNF Extractor Weights	Δ LAS Encoder Weights	Total Stride ¹	BW (kbps)	WER (%)
16kHz 16-bit Raw PCM Audio	_	_	_	256	_
Baseline LAS Model	_	0 (0)	4	768	21.79
Standard QM-features	0 (0)	-3,072 (-98KB)	4	51.2	22.62
Best ~1/10 BW. BNF Model, ∇	512 (4KB)	-8,064 (-258KB)	1	4.8	22.44
Best ~1/20 BW. BNF Model, ∇	512 (4KB)	-8,064 (-258KB)	2	2.4	23.55
Best 1/32 BW. BNF Model, ∇	384 (3KB)	-8,448 (-270KB)	2	1.6	24.81
Best 1/16 BW. BNF Model	640 (5KB)	-7,680 (-246KB)	4	3.2	24.02
1/32 BW. BNF Model	384 (3KB)	-8,448 (-270KB)	4	1.6	25.42
Best 1/64 BW. BNF Model	1536 (123KB)	-8,448 (-270KB)	4	0.8	28.41

on our results, and 4 bits quantization with 8-12 dimensional BNFs per timestep performed optimally.

Given these findings, we were able to design several models that effectively compress audio features on the DSP and allow them to be cached in severely reduced memory footprints. We designed a model that successfully compresses the original DSP QM-features to 1/10 the size without any loss in accuracy. As we compress the features further, we find an inflection point in WER around 1 kbps.

While the models we have designed can increase the interval between main processor wake-ups by $10\,\mathrm{x}\text{-}64\,\mathrm{x}$, empirical data is necessary to understand the full effect on battery consumption. Some of our models require slightly more computation in the attention/decoder (because of decreased time compression), which alone may have an adverse effect on battery life. Further tuning should be done once these are tested in-situ, and characterized under noisy speech conditions as well.

These BNFs may be useful for other compressed speech models, and the end-to-end training paradigm, while time-consuming, provides an optimal means for on-DSP compression. We hope this architecture is adopted in portable applications as a standard technique for speech compression.

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 $^{^1\}text{Models}$ denoted with ∇ have a reduced overall stride compared to the original model. While the weights of the LAS model are reduced, intermediate representations feeding the Attention model will grow $2\,x$ and $4\,x$ respectively in the time dimension. This incurs a nontrivial computational cost for the main processor, and lengthens training time.