

Received April 25, 2021, accepted May 24, 2021, date of publication May 27, 2021, date of current version June 7, 2021.

Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ACCESS.2021.3084299

A Survey of Speaker Recognition: Fundamental Theories, Recognition Methods and Opportunities

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ABSTRACT Humans can identify a speaker by listening to their voice, over the telephone, or on any digital devices. Acquiring this congenital human competency, authentication technologies based on voice biometrics, such as automatic speaker recognition (ASR), have been introduced. An ASR recognizes speakers by analyzing speech signals and characteristics extracted from speaker's voices. ASR has recently become an effective research area as an essential aspect of voice biometrics. Specifically, this literature survey gives a concise introduction to ASR and provides an overview of the general architectures dealing with speaker recognition technologies, and upholds the past, present, and future research trends in this area. This paper briefly describes all the main aspects of ASR, such as speaker identification, verification, diarization etc. Further, the performance of current speaker recognition systems are investigated in this survey with the limitations and possible ways of improvement. Finally, a few unsolved challenges of speaker recognition are presented at the closure of this survey.

INDEX TERMS Automatic speaker recognition, feature extraction, recognition techniques, performance measures, challenges.

I. INTRODUCTION

Speaker recognition is a biometric scheme applied to authenticate user's individuality using the specific characteristics elicited from their speech utterances. It is the automatic process of acknowledging the speaker depending on the speech signal's characteristic features. The Speaker recognition system uses the speaker's voice utterances to recognize their individuality and control access to services, such as voice dialing, voice mail, security control, etc.

The first automatic speaker recognition (ASR) system came into existence in 1962 through an article by Lawrence G. Kersta, a *Bell Laboratories* physicist designated, "Voiceprint Identification" [1], [2]. In 1960, Gunnar Fant developed a physiological model of humans voice production system, which sets a speech analysis base. The speaker recognition system's evolution from the late 1900s to the early 2000s is upheld in Figure 1 [3].

A standard speaker recognition system measures the characteristics of a person's voice or speech to assess that person's individuality. Voice or speech is the most logical way

The associate editor coordinating the review of this manuscript and approving it for publication was Siddhartha Bhattacharyya ^{ID}.

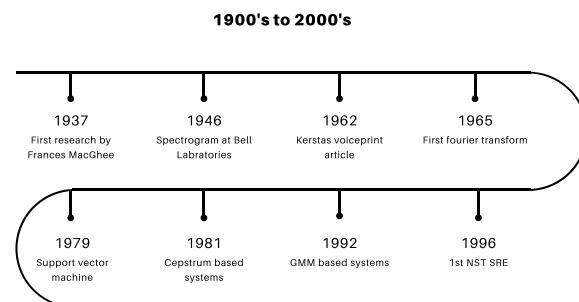


FIGURE 1. Evolution of speaker recognition from the early 1900s to 2000s. The above diagram explains how the evolution of ASR started in the 1900s before the ages of machine learning and deep learning.

to evolve the perceptions of humans. With the advent of human-computer research technologies, ASR systems have advanced in the last six decades. Nowadays, these advanced systems are used in different areas such as person identification, person verification, voice dialing, online banking, telephone shopping, security control, and forensic applications as well. A typical speaker recognition system has three primary sections: pre-processing, feature extraction, and speaker

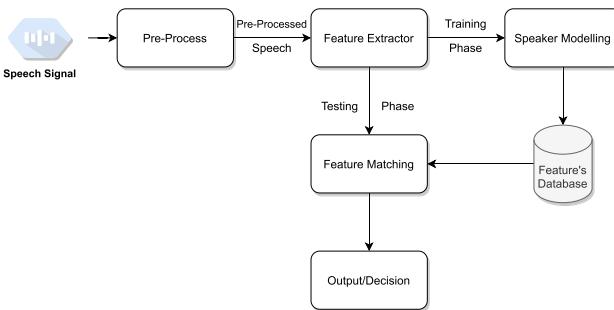


FIGURE 2. Basic structure of an automatic speaker recognition system. The figure illustrates three initial steps where the inputs are pre-processed and generate speaker models after being converted into feature vectors to identify speakers.

modelling. Figure 2 presents a basic structure of speaker recognition systems.

Pre-processing: Pre-processing is the initial action in an automated speaker recognition model. It is a crucial process conducted on speech signal input to manifest an effective and dynamic ASR system [4], [5]. In this part of a speaker recognition system, first, the speech signal is cleaned. Then the non-speech portions are removed from the signal. Then preliminary tasks endpoint detection and pre-emphasis are completed.

Feature extraction: Feature extraction, also known as front end pre-processing, is applied to speaker recognition systems training and testing phases. It employs to converts digital speech signal to sets of feature vectors or numerical descriptors. These feature vectors contain the essential characteristics of the speaker's voice [6].

Speaker modelling: The goal of modelling methods is to generate speaker recognition algorithms for feature matching of the speaker's voice. The methods comprising enhanced speaker-specific information with a compressed volume are defined as speaker models [7]. When training or enrolling, state speaker models are generated by practicing the particular features extracted from the contemporary speaker. The speaker model compares with the modern speaker architecture for identification or verification tasks in the recognition state.

A standard automated speaker recognition system has contained these characteristics. Now, the classifications of the ASR are going to be discussed.

A. CLASSIFICATION OF SPEAKER RECOGNITION

An ASR can be split into several classes based on the recognition criteria. Figure 3 presents the different types of speaker recognition approaches. The following subsections extensively outline the illustrated recognition approaches.

1) IDENTIFICATION, VERIFICATION, AND DIARIZATION

This level of classification is the most prominent among other classification criteria. Automatic speaker identification (SI), speaker verification (SV) and speaker diarization (SD) are

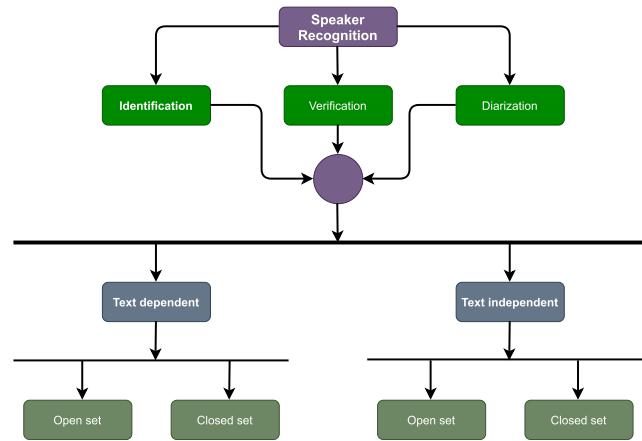


FIGURE 3. Classification of speaker recognition. The speaker recognition encompasses speaker identification (identify unknown speakers), verification (ensure particular speaker's identity), and diarization (identify speakers from speech segments) with the text-dependent and independent criterion.

often acknowledged as the most fundamental and practical approaches for bypassing illegal access to computer systems. A brief explanation of these subdomains of speaker recognition are described below:

- **Speaker identification (SI):** SI determines an anonymous speaker's identity depending on the speaker's spoken utterances. Speaker identification finds the exact speaker from a set of recognised voices of speakers. It is the way to find a person based on the different utterances contained in the database. This approach is a 1: N match where a particular utterance is compared against N templates.
- **Speaker verification (SV):** SV deals with the voice to authenticate a specific identity asserted by the speaker. The SI system's acquired characteristics are correlated with all the speakers' characteristics composed in a voice model database. In contrast, in SV systems, the acquired characteristics are only linked with the speaker's stored features he or she claimed to be. It is a 1:1 match where one speaker's speech is likened to one template.
- **Speaker diarization (SD):** SD is partitioning a voice with multiple people into homogeneous segments associated with each individual. It is an essential part of speaker recognition systems. It has applications in many critical fields, such as video captioning, understanding the content of any conversations, etc.

SI, SV, and SD system's recognition criteria can be either text-dependent or text-independent, which is discussed in the following part.

2) TEXT-DEPENDENT AND TEXT-INDEPENDENT RECOGNITION

Text-dependency is another level of classification of speaker recognition (SR). This classification is based upon the

text uttered by the speaker during the classification process. The two subdomains of speaker recognition based on text-dependency are explained below.

- **Text-dependent:** Text-dependent ASR defines a method in which the test utterance is equivalent to the text employed during the enrollment phase [8]–[13]. The test speaker has previous knowledge of the model. The local lexicon possess low enrollment and trial stages to give an authentic result. Still, it faces few scientific and technical challenges. In the 1990s, the first text-dependent speaker recognition introduced the main features of the present state of the art with feature extraction method, speaker modelling, and score normalization using a likelihood ratio score [14]. Since then, numerous architectures have inquired at various times.
- **Text-independent:** In a text-independent ASR task, the speech signal's training and testing are entirely unconstrained [15]–[19]. It usually takes long sections of the speech signal to be developed for both the training and testing phase. Here, in the testing phase, the test speaker does not have any previous knowledge about the samples of the enrollment phase.

However, text-independent speaker recognition is more convenient to text-dependent speaker recognition system (SRS) because the speaker can freely speak to the system. Although, it needs more extended training and testing utterances to obtain better accuracy. These text-dependent and text-independent approaches can be further categorised into the open set and closed set speaker recognition problems, which are discussed in the next portion.

3) OPEN SET AND CLOSED SET

ASR architectures are classified as an open set or closed set based on the number of qualified speakers available in the system. These two types of ASR methods are described below:

- **Open set:** An open set method is structured with any number of trained speakers. This system is called an open set because the anonymous speech could come from a broad set of unfamiliar speakers.
- **Closed set:** A closed set method has only a designated number of speakers enrolled on the system. In this method, the system tries to discover a speaker's individuality from a set of observed voices.

Additionally, the speech or speaker recognition techniques make a different domain of speaker recognition systems. This domain covers many more methods used to recognize and analyze the speaker's emotions or the emotions expressed in the speech. But this study is extensively focused only on speaker recognition approaches.

However, speaker identification and verification have acquired increased impact and importance in the research field as voice command, speech technology, speech analysis, etc. An eternally progressing obligation to search for voice

elements and search based on speaker identity is growing wild. This tremendous visibility and significance of speaker recognition systems imply numerous research work over the years. Besides, a few literature surveys on a different portion of speaker recognition has been done as well. However, mentioning all the excellent research on ASR, a comprehensive survey has become necessary.

In this comprehensive survey, more than 28 literature survey on SR is mentioned and particularly described nine amongst them. But these surveys do not precisely address the current trends and applications, impact, and challenges of the speaker recognition systems. No recent extensive survey has been done on the entire domain of speaker recognition. The summaries and comparison of the recognized literature survey on speaker recognition are shown in Table 1.

In the previous survey, Tirumala *et al.* [25] carried out a systematic literature review on different significant feature extraction approaches. The paper aimed to identify substantial feature extraction methods in the last six years and provided recommendations based on the investigation. The authors answered three critical questions regarding the speaker recognition domain and investigated the foundations for optimal features with the feature extraction process. They derived feature extraction methods and architectures and discovered the most traditional and prosperous feature extraction methods in the last six years. Finally, they elaborated on a few challenges of the speaker recognition domain. In [24], the authors described a review of various methods for speaker identification using deep learning. They characterised the implementations of deep learning based on speaker identification methods and algorithms. The authors also described major deep learning architectures that achieved the state of art accuracy. They aimed to introduce detailed architectures to speaker recognition researchers to decrease the knowledge gap and enhance the significance of deep learning architectures.

Further, Dicsken *et al.* [26] completed a tutorial survey on speaker-specific information extraction approaches. The work's theories were categorized into three classes considering their robustness toward channel mismatch, additive noise, and other depravities such as vocal effort, emotion mismatch, etc. The authors mainly focused on the extraction of speaker-specific information in degraded conditions alongside short-time features. In [23], authors upheld a systematic review of the ASR models, particularly with those introduced in the last decade. The authors provided the reader with aspects of how humans also redact speaker recognition. Their review aimed to explain the main domains of speaker recognition, deriving the essential similarities and distinctions. The authors accentuated how spontaneous speaker recognition methods have originated over time toward more present architectures. Tognetti and Pullella [22], represented the actual illustrations for speaker identification and described the latter study on missing data approaches to enhance robustness. In their study, the feature extraction approaches, various speaker modelling and model classification were explained.

TABLE 1. Eight standard literature surveys of the Speaker Recognition domain are demonstrated in this table. In addition to a brief discussion of each paper mentioned in the table, the challenges faced in recognizing speakers are given in detail.

Reference	Year	Main Purpose	Challenges
[20]	2010	A survey of ancient and modern automatic text-independent SR methods with efficiency and marks future scopes of SR to get robust techniques.	There are limited training data, mismatched handsets for training and testing, background noise and unbalanced text.
[21]	2010	An extensive survey of automatic speaker recognition systems.	Unauthorized access, privacy in biometric technologies, the possibility of cracking data encryption, designing long-range features, managing vast quantities of correlated features, odd feature range distributions, original disappeared features and heterogeneous feature types.
[22]	2011	Overview on text-independent, closed-set, speaker identification in the modelling and classification paradigms with key extracted features on both clean and missing data.	The authors only surveyed the speaker identification approaches that are based on missing data methods.
[23]	2015	A comparative study of human versus machine speaker recognition.	The search for alternative compact representations of speakers and audio segments emphasizing the identity relevant parameters while suppressing the nuisance components in system development.
[24]	2016	A comprehensive analysis of deep learning approaches and applications for speaker identification	The paper addressed knowledge in improving SID performance.
[25]	2017	Describes the foundations for optimal characteristics and how feature parameter suitability is determined for the feature extraction method in speaker identification. The feature extraction strategies and architectures are also explained.	Consolidate the capacity to trade with all channel data and noisy data, handling complex pattern recognition problems with deep learning techniques, multi-learner model, feature extraction from unlabeled data alongside incomplete, tampered or damaged data.
[26]	2017	Summarize feature extraction methods under degraded conditions, alongside the short-time features, with few normalization techniques for gaining robustness.	Performance improvement for extracting more robust features in the appearance of the noise and channel mismatch situations.
[27]	2021	A comprehensive survey of automatic speaker recognition based on deep learning.	Most speaker feature extraction techniques require handcraft acoustic features as the input, which is not always optimal. Besides, The state-of-the-art deep models have many parameters, which are difficult to apply to portable devices. This paper presents few more challenges of ASR.
Ours	2021	A systematic survey on speaker recognition where the feature extraction approaches, algorithms, limitations of subdomains of speaker recognition such as speaker identification, speaker verification, diarization is described concisely.	Data-driven dependency; Intra-speaker variability; Speaker-based variability; Conversation-based variability; Technology-based variability; Limited data and constrained lexicon; Aging of speaker models; Forward compatibility.

In [21], the authors introduced a comprehensive literature survey of ASR systems. They categorized the modules of speaker recognition and demonstrated different models for each module. Besides, they gave a brief explanation of the enormous applications of SR Systems. The authors also elaborated on the issues and challenges of SR Systems. Kinnunen and Li [20], presented a brief introduction of ASR approaches with an emphasis on text-independent recognition from the 1980s until 2009. They emphasized the recent techniques introduced around 2009. Their research served as a short survey of the analytical inquiries and the explications of the speaker recognition domain. Bai and Zhang [27] reviews various significant speaker recognition subdomains such as speaker identification, verification, diarization etc., focusing on deep-learning-based approaches. Modern and newly published deep learning-based feature extraction approaches, ASR algorithms are extensively explained in this paper. Besides, a few other surveys are introduced in the speaker recognition domain at different times [28]–[47]. As these surveys did not precisely uphold the speaker recognition domain, an extensive study in this domain was necessary.

In this work, we present an elaborated survey of ASR. The review is restricted to scholarly work published between 2000 and 2021. The survey aims to discuss the findings of different related research areas such as speaker identification, speaker verification, speaker diarization, etc. Lastly, the paper

addresses this field's present challenges and gives recommendations and suggestions for future research directions. The overall contributions of the survey include:

- The paper presents a systematic review of the speaker recognition systems, along with the historical backgrounds.
- The paper introduces the feature extraction procedures, architectural procedures, dataset inspections, and performance comparisons of speaker recognition architectures.
- The paper summarizes speaker recognition procedures based on the existing systems, datasets, feature extraction techniques. Further, the paper exploits the limitations of such systems.
- Finally, the survey concludes by identifying the present challenges of speaker recognition systems, with future research directions.

The rest of the paper is outlined as follows. Section II explains the survey methodology. Section III demonstrates the dataset used in ASR. The feature extraction techniques are explained in Section IV. Section V describes famous ASR techniques and algorithms. Section VI investigates the papers regarding speaker recognition systems. Section VII analyzes the performance evaluation methods of ASR. Section VIII addresses the challenges of ASR with future research scopes. Finally, Section IX concludes the article.

TABLE 2. The table explains the inclusion and exclusion criteria maintained to select review articles.

Inclusion/Exclusion	Criteria
Inclusion	IC1: Research articles are written in English.
	IC2: Articles that have been published between 2000 to 2021 [Few old papers are used in the survey for specific purpose.]
	IC3: Papers published in Academic Journals, Conference/Workshop Proceedings, Book Chapters, and thesis dissertations.
Exclusion	EC1: Duplicate articles
	EC2: Conflicting with the theme of the review
	EC3: Lack of sufficient information

II. SURVEY METHODOLOGY

This survey is processed through a systematic literature review (SLR) approach proposed by Kitchenham and Charters [48], Kitchenham [49]. In this paper, SLR steps are described in three phases: planning, conducting and reporting the review. In the following subsections, the steps are elaborated.

A. PLANNING THE REVIEW

This sub-section briefly describes the following things. The i. research question, ii. sources of review materials; and iii. inclusion and exclusion criteria.

1) **Research question:** The primary research questions were:

- RQ1: How does ASR systems contribute to the field of SV, SI and SD?
- RQ2: Which datasets are universally used for ASR systems?
- RQ3: Which feature extraction approaches are widely used for ASR systems?
- RQ4: Which techniques are broadly used for ASR systems?
- RQ5: What kind of evaluation matrices are used for ASR systems evaluation?
- RQ6: What are the challenges and future research possibilities on ASR systems?

2) **Sources of review materials:** The survey is restricted to excellent academic articles published via the *ScienceDirect*, *SpringerLink*, *MDPI*, *Hindawi*, *ACM Digital Library*, *IEEE Xplore*, etc., and also different famous conferences.

3) **Inclusion and exclusion criteria:** This survey's essential materials are gathered using *PRISMA* (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses) described in Figure 4. Moreover, the inclusion and exclusion criteria in *PRISMA* are presented in Table 2. This table expresses the paper selection criteria and standard. On which standard the paper is selected for review or rejected.

B. CONDUCTING THE REVIEW

This phase discusses how the necessary information is extracted from the articles. Extracting essential information and performing the literature review in a structured way, five sub-phases considered as described below.

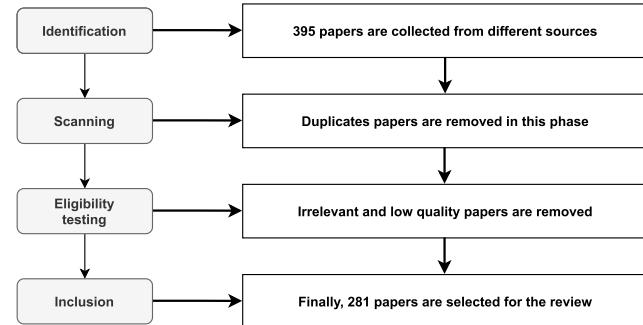


FIGURE 4. The image explains the PRISMA workflow for this literature review. Number of papers collected during the systematic literature review are mentioned in the PRISMA statement.



FIGURE 5. Word cloud for the titles and keywords of the selected articles.

- 1) **Topical relationship:** This phase describes how the articles are correlated with others selected for this survey. Word cloud in Figure 5 is created with the keywords of the papers and principal words from the papers' titles explaining how much the chosen articles are correlated.
- 2) **Aims and outcomes:** Objective, contribution, challenges of different useful articles are presented in Section VI and VIII.
- 3) **Evaluation metrics:** All the evaluation measurement techniques are explained in Section IX.
- 4) **Research type:** It shows the paper type, such as academic journals, conference/workshop proceedings, book chapters, or thesis work.
- 5) **Publication year and type:** At the beginning of this work, 395 papers were collected from various resources, and 281 papers were finalized for the survey.

TABLE 3. Popular datasets used in speaker recognition domain. Datasets are included for the results of speaker recognition under different environmental conditions during the training and testing phase. Different sizes and conditions of the datasets differ the effectiveness of speaker identities from voices.

Dataset Name	No. of Speakers	No. of Utterances	Condition	Used in
TIMIT [50]	530	6300 sentences	Clean Speech	[51]–[56]
LIBRISPEECH [57]	44	1000 hours	Segmented English read speech	[58]–[61]
MIT Mobile [62]	88	7884 sentences	Mobile Devices	[63]–[66]
Switchboard [67]	500	2500 conversations	Telephony	[68]–[72]
POLYCOST [73]	133	1285 conversations	Telephony	[74]–[77]
ICSI Meeting Corpus [78]	53	75 meetings	Meetings	[79], [80]
Forensic Comparison [81]	552	1264 conversations	Telephony	[82]
RSR2015 [13]	300	151 hours	Mobile device	[83]–[85]
ANDOSL [86]	204	33900 utterances	Clean Speech	[56], [87]
RedDots [88]	45	104,000 sentences	Phonetic variation	[89]–[91]
SITW [92]	299	8 session/speaker	Multi-media	[93]–[96]
ELSDSR [97]	22	154 sentences	Clean Speech	[98]–[101]
YOHO [28]	138	1380 sentences	NA	[56], [77], [102]–[106]
CMU [107]	74	9487130 utterances	NA	[106]
VOICES [108]	300	1440 hours	Noisy room	[109]
NIST-SRE [110]	2000+	Varies year by year	Clean Speech	[77], [95], [96], [111]–[122]
CN-CELEB [123]	1000	274 hours	Unconstrained	[124]
Hi-MIA [125]	340	1561 hours	Multiple microphone	[126]
VoxCeleb1 [127]	1251	153516 utterances	Multi-media	[96], [128]–[130]

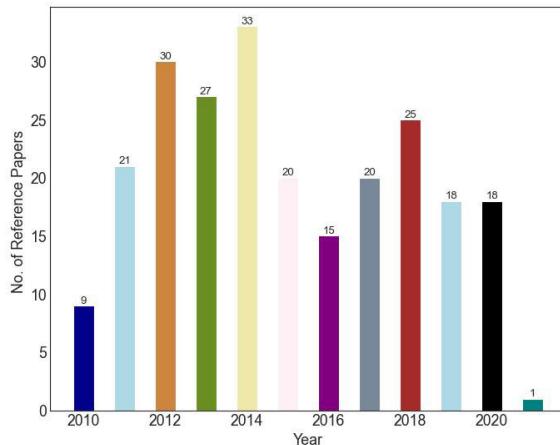


FIGURE 6. The figure illustrates the statistics of papers collected from the year 2010 to 2021.

Amongst them, more than 90% of articles are published between 2010 to 2021. We have worked with more recent articles to make this review more advanced. Figure 6 present the number of papers by year.

C. OUTCOME

Finally, the gathered information has been analyzed, addressed current issues and challenges, and provided future research opportunities.

III. DATASETS USED IN SPEAKER RECOGNITION

With the advent of voice-related applications, the essentiality of verified speaker/speech databases has radically increased in the speaker recognition domain. The shared dataset available for speaker recognition lets the researchers demonstrate, evaluate, and compare model's performance with the existing system. To create these databases, the data can be collected from various sources according to the application, such

as speech recorded from acoustic laboratories [86], [131], speech recorded from mobile device [62], [132], telephone calls [73], forensic data from police, [133], etc. The mentioned datasets are acquired from single-speaker systems and have no audience noise or overlapping speech. Researchers also worked with the multi-speaker environment datasets with audience noise and overlapping speech, such as recorded meeting data [78], [134], and audio broadcast [135]. Few datasets have artificial degradation to mimic real-world noise, such as the TIMIT dataset [50]. The different audio formats like uncompressed, lossless compressed, and lossy compressed are used to record a speech. Therein, waveform (.wav) format is mostly used. This audio format is arranged into three general chunk types, the RIFF chunk, the FORMAT chunk and the DATA chunk, where the DATA chunk contains the real sample data. Selecting the proper dataset reduces the pre-processing time and makes the systems more efficient. These speaker recognition datasets can be classified into two categories:

i **Clean speech dataset:** Clean speech refers to the condition of the dataset where there is zero presence of noise in the dataset. Most of the dataset we use are clean speech dataset [50], [67], [110].

ii **In the wild dataset:** In the wild dataset, data do not collect beneath controlled situations, and hence it carries actual noise, vibration, intra-speaker variability and squeezing artefacts. Popular in the wild datasets are SITW [92] and VoxCeleb [127].

Mostly popular datasets in speaker recognition domain are presented in Table 3.

IV. FEATURE EXTRACTION APPROACHES

A series of feature vectors can represent the speech signal to apply mathematical tools without losing generality. The goal of feature extraction is to interpret a speech signal by

TABLE 4. The table aggregates the behaviour-based feature extraction approaches in speaker recognition.

Learned-based approaches			
High level	References	Prosodic	References
PMFC (Phoneme Mean F-ratio Coefficient)	[136]	Sub-band Auto Correlation Classification (SACC)	[137]–[143]
PMFFCC (Phoneme Mean F-ratio Frequency Cepstrum Coefficient)	[144]	PROSACC	[145]
Polish vowel	[146]	Shifted Delta Cepstrum (SDC) and additional temporal information	[147]
Vowel phonemes	[148]	DPE to present pitch and energy by using twelve DCT coeffs	[147]
Maximum-Likelihood Linear Regression (MLLR)	[149]	Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD) features extraction method	NA

TABLE 5. The table aggregates the physiological-based feature extraction approaches in speaker recognition.

Physiological based speech features			
Spectrum	References	Gammatone pulse	References
MFCC (Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients)	[137], [139], [141], [142], [150]–[184]	Gammatone Feature	[185]–[187]
Linear Predictive Cepstral Coefficients (LPCC)	[138], [188]–[191]	Gammatone Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (GFCC)	[136], [162], [184], [186], [187], [192]
Linear Predictive Coefficients (LPC)	[189], [193], [194]	Hilbert Envelope of Gammatone Filterbank	[195]
Linear Predictive Residual (LPR)	[138], [196]	Perceptual Linear Prediction (PLP)	[141], [145], [197]

preset the signal's number of components. The reason is every piece of data in the acoustic signal is weighty to work, and some of the data is inappropriate [198], [199]. In practical, real-life systems, several features are used in combinations for speaker recognition tasks. Every speaker has identical guttural raw features, mainly learned/behavioural based and physiological/natural features. Below, such features are briefly explained:

- i **Behaviour-based speech features:** This feature is extracted by measuring the number of parameters like experience, personality, education, familial connections, community, and communication media. High-level feature and prosodic & spectro-temporal features are two categories of learned based features. High-level characteristics comprise phones, idiolect, semantics, accent, and pronunciation. On the other side, prosodic & spectro-temporal characteristics include pitch, energy, rhythm, duration, and temporal features. Prosodic characteristics are the non-segmental appearance of speech formed in lengthy utterances such as prosodic properties accent is an associative technicality used to describe pitch variations, stress, rhythm, loudness, rhythm. Table 4 gives a chronology of learned based feature extraction methods.
- ii **Physiological based speech features:** These types of features are affected by the vocal tract's length, dimension and fold size. The short-term spectral characteristics are the types of physiological features that can be measured from small speech utterances; These features are applied to explain the short-term spectral container

connected to the supralaryngeal vocal tract's timbre and resonance characteristics. Voice source features are characteristics of the verbal flow. The short term spectral features are additionally categorised into two types: Spectrum and Gammatone pulse features. Short term physiological based feature extraction approaches are given in Table 5.

However, the Mel-frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCC) [200], Linear Predictive Coefficients (LPC) [201], and Linear Predictive Cepstral Coefficients (LPCC) [202], Perceptual Linear Prediction (PLP) [203]-based feature extraction strategies are recognized as the most effective, economical, and universally adopted feature extraction technique in the speaker recognition domain. These extensively accepted models for feature extraction are categorised into two types based on the coefficients, such as filterbank coefficients and predictive coefficients. MFCC and LFCC (Linear Frequency Cepstral Coefficients) use filterbank coefficients and LPC, LPCC use predictive coefficients for the feature extraction procedure. Besides, PLP is used in combination with cepstral and autocorrelation coefficient. Hence, in this section, a few renowned feature extraction approaches are demonstrated.

A. MEL-FREQUENCY CEPSTRAL COEFFICIENTS (MFCC)

MFCCs is the extensively employed feature extraction method in speech and speaker recognition tasks. In the 1980s, the MFCCs was proposed by Davis and Mermelstein and have

TABLE 6. The table demonstrates a correlation between the feature extraction methods based on four signal processing criteria.

Name	Type of Filter	Shape of Filter	Speed of Computation	Type of Coefficient	Noise Resistance	Sensitivity to Quantization
MFCC	Mel	Triangular	High	Cepstral	Medium	Medium
LPC	Linear prediction	Linear	High	Auto-correlation coefficient	High	High
LPCC	Linear prediction	Linear	Medium	Cepstral	High	High
PLP	Bark	Trapezoidal	Medium	Cepstral and Auto-correlation	Medium	Medium

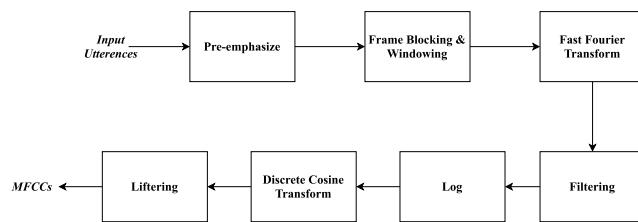


FIGURE 7. The figure represents a block diagram explaining the steps to generate MFCC features. The seven computational steps extracts parameterized representation of input signals where the critical frequency bandwidth of signals is evenly spaced in the mel-frequency cepstrum. The feature extraction affects its response with efficiency in recognition performance.

remained state-of-the-art from then. The standard MFCC feature extraction procedure is illustrated in Figure 7.

The first action is to employ a pre-emphasis filter on the input signal to expand the high frequencies. This filter is implemented to a signal x applying the first-order filter in the subsequent equation:

$$y(t) = x(t) - \alpha x(t - 1) \quad (1)$$

where, α is the filter coefficient.

After pre-emphasis, framing is applied to partition the signal into low-time frames. After splitting the signal into short-time frames, a window function like the Hamming window is used for every frame.

$$w[n] = 0.54 - 0.46\cos\left(\frac{2\pi n}{N-1}\right) \quad (2)$$

where, $0 \leq n \leq N-1$, N is the window length.

Then the fast fourier transform (FFT) is applied using the next formula:

$$P = \frac{|FFT(x_i)|^2}{N} \quad (3)$$

where, x_i is the i^{th} frame of signal x .

Then the mapping from linear frequency to MFCC is defined, and the following equation determines filter bank coefficients where f is physical frequency and $Mel(f)$ is the approximation of the Mel from physical frequency.

$$Mel(f) = 2595 \log_{10} \left(1 + \frac{f}{700} \right) \quad (4)$$

$$f = 700(10^{m/2595} - 1) \quad (5)$$

Finally, the MFCC computed using the following discrete cosine transformation formula:

$$MFCC_i = \sqrt{\frac{2}{N}} \sum_{j=1}^N m_j \cos\left(\frac{\pi i}{N}(j - 0.5)\right) \quad (6)$$

where, N is the number of bandpass filters, m_j is the log bandpass filter output amplitudes. The main drawbacks of MFCC is that the features are not precisely correct in background sound [204], [205], and it does not work better for all case [206].

B. LINEAR PREDICTION COEFFICIENTS (LPC)

LPC architecture is practised to get the filter coefficients coequal to the uttered speech by decrementing the mean square error (MSE) within the input signal and estimated signal [207]. LPC analyze the speech features by the prognosis of any input signal at a particular time as a linear weighted aggregation of including examples. The LPC architecture is developed based on the following equation for a given sample at time n , [208], [209]:

$$\hat{s}(n) = \sum_{k=1}^p a_k s(n-k) \quad (7)$$

where \hat{s} is the predicted speech, s is the input speech, and $a_k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, p$ are the predictor coefficients.

$$e(n) = s(n) - \hat{s}(n) \quad (8)$$

where, $e(n)$ is prediction error, which is calculated as in [209], [210].

LPC analyzes the vocal tract signal from a given speech [210] efficiently. It provides accurate results of speech parameters and is relatively better for computation [204], [211]. However, LPC suffers from high sensitivity to quantization noise [212].

C. LINEAR PREDICTION CEPSTRUM COEFFICIENTS (LPCC)

LPCC is more robust and reliable than LPC, and it has been broadly used for a few decades. LPCCs are equivalent to LPC when organized in the cepstrum domain. LPCC is solely the coefficients of all-pole filter and is equal to the flattened container of the log spectrum of the speech signal. The following equation is calculated the LPCC:

$$LPCC_i = LPC_i + \sum_{k=1}^{i-1} \frac{k-i}{i} LPCC_{i-k} LPC_k \quad (9)$$

LPCC features produce a lower error rate (ER) than LPC [213]. However, LPCC results are shady for having massive sensitivity to quantization noise [214].

D. PERCEPTUAL LINEAR PREDICTION (PLP)

PLP architect human speech depending on the notion of the psychophysics of sound [203]. PLP removes unnecessary information of the signal and therefore enhance speech recognition rate. The PLP architecture is divided into three stages: the critical-band resolution curves, the equal-loudness curve, and the intensity-loudness power-law relation. Figure 8 demonstrates the PLP architecture.

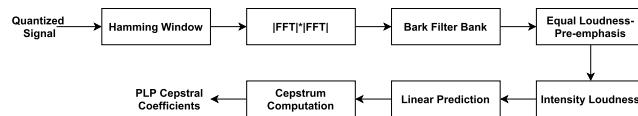


FIGURE 8. The figure represents a block diagram explaining the steps to generate PLP features. The input signal converts frequency to bark that integrates into Bark Filter Bank using hamming window and critical band analysis. An equal-loudness pre-emphasis observes sensitivity of hearing by the filter-banks. Then the equalized values are processed to linear prediction and obtain cepstral coefficients.

However, the adoption of the feature extraction strategy depends on the work and individual. Table 6 represents a comparison between the widely used feature extraction architectures described above, based on various dimensions of speech signal processing. The table will be beneficial to select between these algorithms for future work.

V. SPEAKER RECOGNITION TECHNIQUES

Based on the working criteria, speaker recognition architectures are divided into stage-wise and end-to-end architecture. A stage-wise ASR algorithm commonly compositions of a front-end for the feature extraction and a back-end for the speaker features similarity computation. On the other hand, the end-to-end speaker recognition uses speech utterances as the enrollment signal and instantly returns the similarity rate. Figure 9 represents the algorithm used in stage-wise and end to end speaker recognition modelling. This section broadly discussed the algorithms are shown in figure 9.

A. STAGEWISE SPEAKER RECOGNITION

In a stagewise speaker recognition systems, the recognition tasks such as speaker identification, speaker verification or speaker diarization are processed in two stages: front-end and back-end [27]. Various algorithms are employed in the front end and back end to complete the speaker recognition task. A standard stage-wise speaker recognition architecture is demonstrated in Figure 10. In the following portion, the front-end and back-end architectures are extensively investigated.

1) FRONT-END

The front-end of stagewise speaker recognition architecture changes an utterance in the time-frequency domain or time domain into a high-dimensional feature vector.

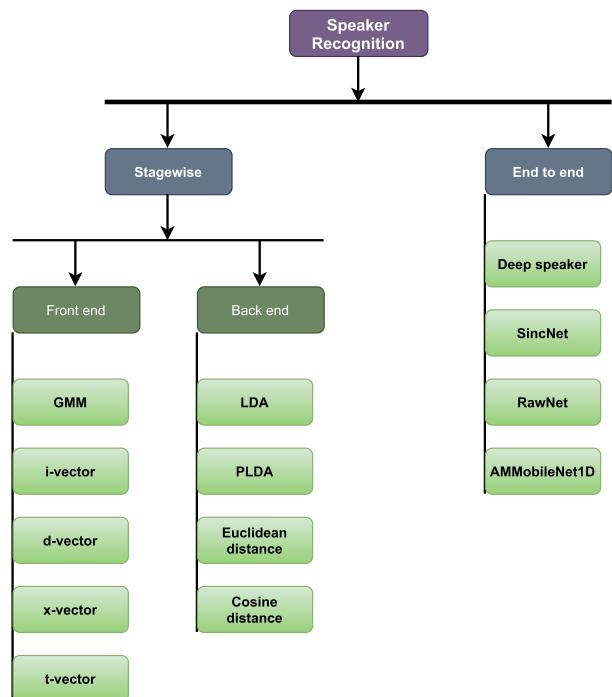


FIGURE 9. A taxonomy of the speaker recognition approaches based on the architectural constraint.



FIGURE 10. The figure demonstrates a block diagram of the stage-wise speaker recognition architecture. Front-end extracts low dimensional speaker utterances to high dimensional feature vectors. Back-end evaluated the result from input and test features similarity using threshold values.

The widespread algorithms use in the front end nowadays are Gaussian mixture model (GMM), i-vector, x-vector, t-vector, and d-vector. These algorithms are briefly explained below:

a: GAUSSIAN MIXTURE MODEL (GMM)

The GMM is a probabilistic model [215] in which datasets are assumed to be formed by a mixture of a fixed number of Gaussian distributions with uncertain variables [216]. Mixture models can be thought of as making generalizations of k-means clustering to provide details about the data's covariance structure and the centres of the undiscovered Gaussian distributions. It is a function made up of many Gaussian distributions, each defined by $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$ where K is the number of clusters in the dataset. The following parameters characterize each Gaussian k in the mixture:

- μ – mean with a specified centre.
- Σ – a covariance defines its width. In a multivariate case, this will be analogous to the measurements of an ellipsoid.
- A combining probability that determines the size of the Gaussian function.

The combining factors are probabilities which must satisfy the following condition:

$$\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1 \quad (10)$$

To do so, we must ensure that each Gaussian matches the data sets in each cluster. The matching is precisely what maximizing probability achieves. The Gaussian density function is expressed by:

$$N(x|\mu, \Sigma) = \frac{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}(x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x - \mu))}{(2\pi)^{D/2} |\Sigma|^{1/2}} \quad (11)$$

where, x represents data points, D is the number of dimensions of each data point. μ and Σ are the mean and covariance, respectively. The log calculation of equation 11 found significant. The mathematical derivation can be given as:

$$\ln N(x|\mu, \Sigma) = -\frac{D}{2} \ln 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \ln \Sigma - \frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu) \quad (12)$$

GMM is a beneficial method that is commonly used for a variety of clustering based tasks. The most common probability function for text-independent ASR using continuous features, in which there is no advance awareness of what the speaker would say, has also been Gaussian mixture models.

b: I-VECTOR (IDENTITY VECTOR)

i-vector [217] is applied to reduce high dimensional space to low dimensional space for speaker and channel variations by simple factor analysis. Instead of using two different spaces, the approach uses only a single space with both speaker and channel named “total variability space”. The new GMM supervector is defined by $M = m + Tw$, where m is the speaker, and channel-independent supervector and w is the total factor with standard normal distributed vectors named i-vectors. For a given utterance, i-vectors used to represent the speech signal by posterior distribution. Then, the Baum-Welch statistics are extracted using UBM to estimate i-vectors by following statistics:

$$N_c = \sum_{t=1}^L P(c | y_t, \Omega) \quad (13)$$

$$F_c = \sum_{t=1}^L P(c | y_t, \Omega) y_t \quad (14)$$

$$\tilde{F}_c = \sum_{t=1}^L P(c | y_t, \Omega) (y_t - m_c) \quad (15)$$

here, $[y_1, y_2, \dots, y_L]$ represents a sequence of L frames, Ω formed by C mixture components in F feature space. $P(c | y_t, \Omega)$ denotes posterior probability of vector y_t where $c = 1, 2, \dots, C$ is Gaussian index. Then the centralized first order Baum-Welch statistics computed on the UBM mean mixture components and estimating i-vectors.

c: D-VECTOR (DEEP VECTOR)

d-vector framework [10] first preprocess data by extracting acoustic features. A DNN model is trained and acoustic feature is concatenated with context frames in hidden layer because of the inefficient information of single speakers. d-vector receives the output activation of every frame from the last hidden layer using feedforward propagation and is represented by averaging all frames’ deep embedding features from an utterance. The output layer is removed to decrease the DNN model size for runtime. Finally, the decision derives by computing the distance between the target and test d-vectors. The reason to choose the last hidden layer is to observe well generalized unseen speakers. Figure 11 shows the architecture of d-vector.

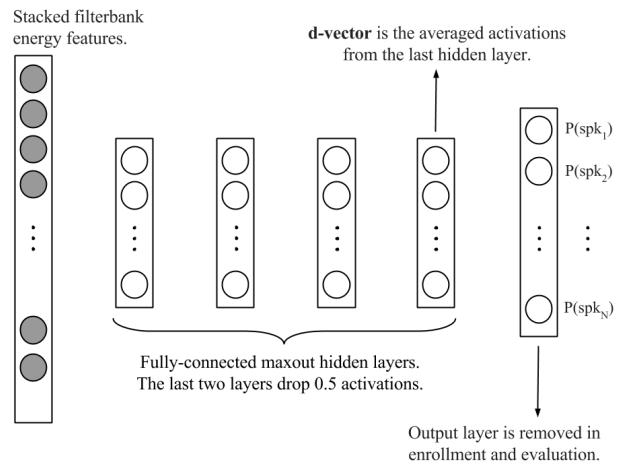


FIGURE 11. The figure illustrates d-vector architecture implemented in the front-end of a multi-stage speaker recognition system (from [10]).

d: X-VECTOR

x-vector system is developed on DNN embeddings where neural networks trained to discriminate between speakers [96]. The approach [218] follows an end-to-end system [219] that produces embeddings united with similarity metric using time-delayed DNN and compare them by a separated trained classifier like PLDA. First, short term temporal frame-level context is extracted by time delay. Then, a statistic pooling layer aggregates over the input segment and computes mean and standard deviation. The computation finally classifies the segment level feature to the speaker by DNN. The produced segment level speaker embeddings are known as x-vectors. Figure 12 represents the network structure of the x-vector architecture.

e: T-vector

The t-vector system as triplet speaker embeddings [220] is also trained discriminatively like x-vector in speaker diarization or verification. High-resolution filter bank features are extracted to modify the system [71] to deal with the long duration data samples without overlapping. Also, the null utterance part is emitted by energy-based voice activity detection.

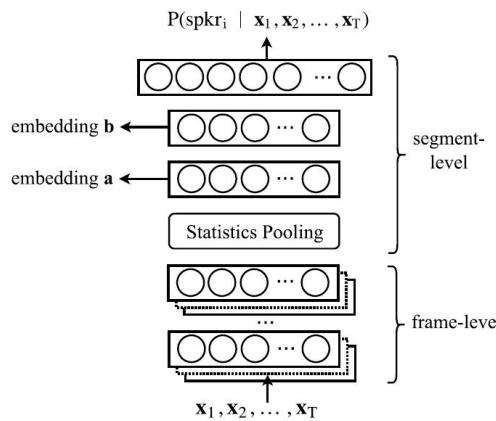


FIGURE 12. Network structure of x-vector (from [218]).

Using an end-to-end system, segment level embedding generated by averaging the output in a sequential order to estimate the t-vector. Then the Inception-ResNet-V1 network specified in [71] is applied for discriminative speaker training. The speaker embeddings combined with Cosine Distance Scoring (CDS) and PLDA classifier can improve the performance against channel and noise variabilities. The t-vector architecture developed for the speaker recognition system is transformed from [71], with loss function changes and acoustic features. Figure 13 presents the triplet loss based speaker verification architecture which is further converted into t-vector.

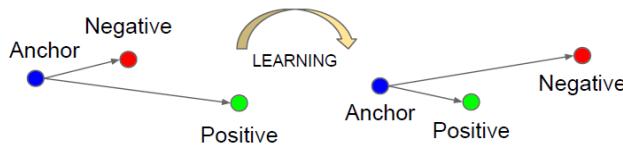


FIGURE 13. Triplet loss based speaker verification system (from [71]).

2) BACK-END

The back-end specifies the relationship evaluation between input and test speaker features and then conforms the result with a threshold. Then, the decision took by the threshold values, and the speaker recognition process completed. In speaker recognition tasks, the back-end aims to compensate for the channel variability and reduce interfaces. Linear discriminant analysis (LDA), probabilistic linear discriminant analysis (PLDA), cosine distance, Euclidean distance are the popular algorithms for the back-end. In the below sections, an extensive description of these back-end architectures is given.

a: LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS (LDA)

LDA is a technique for reducing dimensions. As the name suggests, dimensionality reduction methods minimize the number of parameters in a dataset while preserving as much information as available. It is a standard statistical method for

reducing dimensionality in classification and pattern recognition concerns [221]. As each class has a Gaussian distribution and a general covariance matrix, it considers the best optimum linear transformation. The speech class differentiation parameter in the context of A is defined by LDA as follows [23]:

$$\lambda = \frac{A^T S_b A}{A^T S_w A} \quad (16)$$

here, S_b and S_w represent between and within-class covariance matrices. A is a projection matrix that contains the k eigenvectors corresponding to the k largest eigenvalues of $S_w^{-1} S_b$. wS_b is the answer to the LDA optimal solution. Overall class disperses for feature vectors x are determined by [222]:

$$S_b = \sum_{c=1}^C n_c (\mu_c - \mu)(\mu_c - \mu)^T \quad (17)$$

$$S_b = \sum_{c=1}^C \sum_{k \in c} (x_k - \mu_c)(x_k - \mu_c)^T \quad (18)$$

here, C is the number of different speaker classes, n_c is the number of various samples in class c , μ is the total mean of all samples and μ_c is the mean of samples in class c .

b: PROBABILISTIC LINEAR DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS (PLDA)

PLDA is a probabilistic variant of linear discriminant analysis that can accommodate more complex data sets. PLDA has a wide range of applications in several fields of study, namely computer vision, speech recognition, etc. Even for a single example of an unknown class, PLDA will generate a class centre using discrete non-linear parameters. Researchers consider different instances of a previously unknown class in statistical analysis to see if they relate to the same category—it also clusters studies from previously unseen groups. PLDA is a generative theory that includes given data sets are drawn from a distribution. In PLDA, the model parameters that best represent the training data must be determined. Two factors determine the representation where the data is presumed to be obtained: It should reflect various data types, and parameter processing should be easy and swift. Gaussian is the most common representation that meets these requirements. A typical Gaussian PLDA implies that an i-vector w is constructed as follows [223]:

$$w = m + V_y + z \quad (19)$$

here, m is the mean of i-vectors, y denotes the speaker latent variable with standard typical prior and the residual. Z is normally distributed with zero mean and full covariance matrix Σ_z . PLDA uses the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm to estimate the model parameters (V , Σ_z).

Following parameterization, the verification score for each of the two trial i-vectors w_1 and w_2 will be calculated using the log-likelihood ratio of the hypothesis H_s , that both i-vectors are accurate from the same speaker, and the H_d

assumption that both are two distinct speakers [224], that mathematically represented as:

$$\text{verification_score} = \log \frac{p(w_1, w_2) | H_s}{p(w_1, w_2) | H_d} \quad (20)$$

PLDA score can be calculated by:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PLDA_score} &= \log N\left(\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}; \begin{bmatrix} m \\ m \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} S_T & S_B \\ S_B & S_T \end{bmatrix}\right) \\ &\quad - \log N\left(\begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \end{bmatrix}; \begin{bmatrix} m \\ m \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} S_T & 0 \\ 0 & S_T \end{bmatrix}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

where $S_B = W_T$ and $S_T = S_B + \Sigma z$.

c: EUCLIDEAN DISTANCE

The Euclidean distance $\|x - y\|_2$ between two vectors $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ and $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$ can be computed as [225]:

$$\|x - y\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2} \quad (22)$$

where the calculation measured in Euclidean vector space \mathbb{R}^n , and $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

d: COSINE DISTANCE

Cosine distance is calculated from cosine similarity [226]. Cosine similarity is applied to define the similarity between two non zero vectors. It calculates the cosine of the angle between two vectors in a multi-dimensional space. The relationship between cosine similarity and cosine distance is disproportionate. The cosine similarity raises when the distance between two vectors reduces and vice versa. The following equations calculate the cosine similarity and cosine distance, respectively. The functions can be mathematically presented as below:

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{A \cdot B}{\|A\| \cdot \|B\|} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n A_i B_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n A_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n B_i^2}} \quad (23)$$

$$\text{Cosine distance} = 1 - \cos(\theta) \quad (24)$$

here, A, B are two non-zero vectors and $\cos(\theta)$ refers to the cosine similarity.

B. END TO END SPEAKER RECOGNITION

End-to-end speaker recognition is a modern technique that receives a set of speech utterances as the input and returns their affinity score immediately. Here, both the front-end and back-end task is done by a single architecture. Few standard end-to-end speaker recognition architectures are deep speaker, raw-net, AM-MobileNet, Sinc-net etc. This subsection extensively explains these architectures. A general end-to-end speaker recognition architecture is upheld in the Figure 14. In this section, some of the standard end-to-end systems are demonstrated.



FIGURE 14. The figure demonstrates the end-to-end speaker recognition architecture. The preprocessed speaker embedding from input signal generates the output results by deep speaker modeling. Following the steps, the system produces single similarity score from the directly mapped input utterances to identify speakers.

e: DEEP SPEAKER

Deep Speaker algorithm [227] produces utterance-level speaker embedding using a deep neural network where speaker similarity is measured by cosine similarity. First, the raw audio is converted to a minibatch size of Fbank coefficients. Then, a feed-forward DNN is used to extract features over the preprocessed audio. In deep training, ResCNN architecture containing ResBlock [228] is used to remove computational complexity and help the frequency dimension immutable when the channel increases. Also, Deep speech 2 (DS2) [229] style GRU architecture extracts frame-level acoustic feature like ResCNN for faster training and less chance of divergence. After both layers, the average sentence layer, affine and length normalization layers are applied to convert the frame-level input to speaker embeddings. Finally, the triplet loss layer based on cosine similarities is conducted over an entire batch for negative selection across GPUs. This algorithm improves accuracy in both speaker verification and identification tasks. Figure 15 demonstrates the deep speaker architecture.

f: SincNet

SincNet [230] is a CNN based architecture that deals with high dimensional inputs, noisy and inconsistent multi-band shapes in the first convolutional layer. SincNet reduces the filter parameters and helps to converge faster by strengthening the network to focus only on the parameters. SincNet implicates the waveform by getting started a function g using a set of parameters:

$$y[n] = x[n] * g[n, \theta] \quad (25)$$

here, $y[n]$ is the filtered output, and $x[n]$ is a portion of the speech signal. The function implements rectangular band-pass filters as the difference between two low-pass filters using low f_1 and high f_2 cutoff frequencies.

$$g[n, f_1, f_2] = 2f_2 \text{sinc}(2\pi f_2 n) - 2f_1 \text{sinc}(2\pi f_1 n) \quad (26)$$

The generated filters with cutoff frequencies can directly allocate more filters where significant speaker identity clues are lying. Then, the high-frequency selection attains by Hamming window to get the ideal band-pass filters. The filters obtained by SincNet are interpretable and readable than any other techniques of speaker identification and verification.

g: RawNet

RawNet [231] is a reformed architecture of the CNN-LSTM model that enhances the pre-training scheme with additional

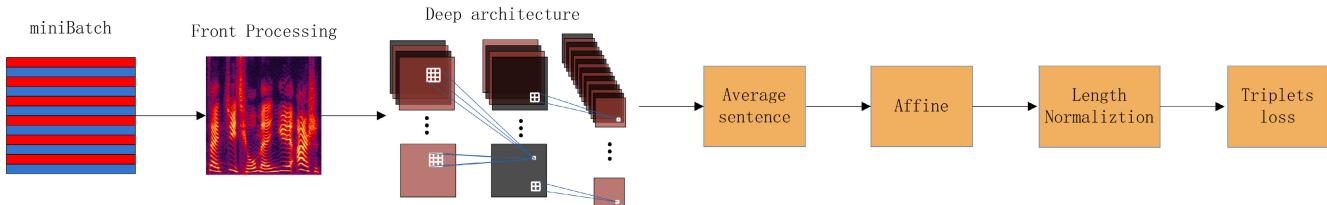


FIGURE 15. Diagram of the Deep Speaker architecture (from [227]).

objective functions of speaker embeddings. In the architecture, residual blocks connected to a global average pooling layer are constructed first to process Input features for frame-level embeddings extraction using leaky ReLU. A gated recurrent unit (GRU) layer then aggregates the features to utterance level embedding instead of the LSTM layer.

Center loss L_c and speaker-basis loss L_{BS} as an additional objective function employs in RawNet to reduce intra-class and enhance inter-class covariance while embeddings are discriminative.

$$L_c = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N \|x_i - c_{y_i}\|_2^2 \quad (27)$$

$$L_{BS} = \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^M \cos(w_i, w_j) \quad (28)$$

DNN is trained using the final objective function besides categorical cross-entropy loss L_{ce} for feature enhancement. The fully connected layer initiates the utterance level to speaker embeddings that decrease the number of frames' parameters and increase efficiency.

h: ADDITIVE MARGIN MobileNet1D

Additive Margin MobileNet1D (AM-MobileNet1D) [66] directly process waveform audio on mobile devices that reduce storage size, energy-consuming and processing memory. To fit the audio signal and tackle the speaker recognition problems on mobile, the MobileNetV2 [232] architecture is modified from a 2D convolutional neural network to 1D. The modification reduces complexity and model size by faster speed. The MobileNet1D uses additive margin softmax (AM-Softmax) layer to extract features that include each linear surface of separation with the additional region. The AM-Softmax equation defined as:

$$\text{Loss} = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{\phi_i}{\phi_i + \sum_{j=1, j \neq y_i}^c \exp(s(W_j^T f_i))} \quad (29)$$

$$\phi_i = \exp(s(W_{y_i}^T f_i - m)) \quad (30)$$

here, W is the weight matrix, and f_i is the input and $W_{y_i}^T f_i$ is the target logit from the i_{th} sample for the last fully connected layer. It introduces two new parameters scaling factor s and additive margin size m in softmax function. The model forces the distance between two same samples to be closer and

different samples to be more distant, reducing frame-level error rate seven times faster than SincNet.

VI. SUMMARY OF PAPERS REGARDING SPEAKER RECOGNITION

In the last decades, the ASR approaches gained a broad interest from many researchers that driven this system to become an effective identity authentication means. Speaker recognition is related to physiological and behavioural features of the speech utterance method of an individual voice. This section first analyses the papers of general speaker recognition systems in Table 7 and then explains the sub-domains that are presented in Table 8, 9, and 10.

Kanagasundaram *et al.* [233] explored how the current factor analysis approaches perform when utterances length are reduced. The paper provided a comparative analysis of Joint Factor Analysis (JFA) and i-vector based systems, including various compensation techniques using the dataset of 2008 NIST SRE. The experiment showed that all the techniques' performance difference was very narrow at short utterance (<10s). In [234], a weighted feature extraction method is proposed to improve the effectiveness of the feature parameter. The paper analyzed each component of traditional LPCC and generated the weighted LPCC where vector quantization is used for feature matching. The experiment then evaluated that weighted LPCC has high accuracy and also learned the method non-sequentially is better than the one sequentially. Further, the study concluded that the different distribution of weighting coefficients is essential to the system's accuracy. Yaman *et al.* [235] presented an approach of using a bottleneck neural network to provide features in an SR system. A network re-training technique was described in this paper that optimizes a recording-level criterion with significant gains. The experiments on the same and different microphone tasks of the NIST 2010 SRE dataset showed that the bottleneck features benefit from the combined MFCC. In [236], authors presented a DNN acoustic model consisting of i-vectors and ASR features to perform speaker adaptation. The experimental results on a Switchboard, 300 hours corpus, showed that the DNN with i-vectors inputs is better than those trained on speaker-independent features only and also provide additional gains with normalized speaker features. The authors observed that i-vector extraction requires a single decoding pass but performance similar to other speaker adaptation techniques.

TABLE 7. A summary of some significant papers of speaker recognition are mentioned in the table.

Reference	Task	Method	Dataset	Feature Extract	Accuracy	Limitation
[233]	Short utterance effect investigation	Joint vector analysis(JFA) and i-vectors including various compensation techniques	NIST 2008 SRE (telephone based)	13 feature-warped MFCC with appended delta coefficients	Overall results show that as the utterance length decreases, performance degrades at an increasing rate	The analysis approaches have not provided any clear differences in performance for short speech.
[234]	Improves the effectiveness of feature parameter	Weighted feature extraction method	Voice sample of 20 speakers	Weighted LPCC	94.67% for non-sequential weighting coefficients	Hard to determine weighting coefficients.
[235]	Feature extraction in front-end ASR system	Bottleneck Neural Network approach	2010 NIST SR	Bottleneck features	Combined MFCC with Bottleneck approach optimizes a recording-level criterion	Proposed bottleneck feature extraction method slightly worse than MFCCs.
[236]	Speaker adaptation	DNN acoustic model	Switchboard English conversational telephone speech	Speaker identity vectors along with the regular ASR features	i-vectors can be used to adapt neural network models	Result may change with the increasing number of speakers' data.
[237]	Single DNN training	DNN BNF i-vector system	NIST Switchboard data	DNN bottleneck features	On DAC13: 55% reduction in EER for out-of-domain.	NA
[238]	Deep speaker feature learning	Convolutional Time Delay Deep Neural Network structure (CT-DNN)	Train: Fisher database Test: CSLT-COUGH100	Highly speaker sensitive features	Best in d-vector system with PLDA scoring	Implication of the experimental results for the acoustic and linguistic research.
[239]	Enhance end-to-end system for SR	CNN based end-to-end system	Voxceleb and NIST LRE 07	LR task: SDC features, SR task: MFCC features	CNN with LDE-ASoftmax performs best	NA
[240]	Speaker recognition under noisy and unconstrained conditions	VGGVox (CNN trunk based embedded system)	VoxCeleb1, VoxCeleb2 (train only)	DNN	VoxCeleb2 addresses the lack of VoxCeleb1 alongside achieves significant margin over previous works	Very low label error in VoxCeleb1 is detected and solved in VoxCeleb2.
[130]	Improve text-independent SR system	LM(Logistic Margin) and AM-Softmax with dropout method	VoxCeleb dataset	ResNet-20	Reduces prediction errors by up to 18%	NA
[241]	Short utterance speaker recognition	Self-adaptive GMM-MAP-UBM method	Self-recording voice	24-dimensions MFCC	Decrease the equal error rate from 4.9% to 2.5%.	Improve richness of feature extraction for large data
[242]	How the speaker recognition model extracts discriminative embeddings	CNN	Voxceleb1, TIMIT	MFCCs	The networks are better at discriminating broad phonetic classes than individual phonemes	Exploring a larger speaker dataset, a different loss function, such as the angular softmax loss, or adding an attention layer
[243]	Identify speakers for short utterances with imbalance length pairs	Meta-learning framework: ResNet34	VoxCeleb	40-dimensional log mel-filterbank (MFB) features	state-of-the-arts performance on short utterances	NA
[244]	Combine two features to enhance degraded audio signals performance	1D-Triplet-CNN	TIMIT, Fisher, Nist SRE 2008 and 2010	MFCC-LPC features	Perform in a substantial margin	Fails to verify some of sample data of each datasets.

Richardson *et al.* [237] introduced the utilisation of a single DNN for speaker and language recognition and explained the construction of a DNN BNF i-vector method. The paper

illustrated considerable achievement obtains when practising the DAC13 SR and LRE11 LR benchmarks technique. The evaluation showed a more significant reduction in error

TABLE 8. Some papers of speaker identification have been summarized in this table.

Reference	Task	Method	Dataset	Feature Extract	Accuracy	Limitation
[245]	Identify unknown speaker	BPNN based approach	text-dependent dataset spoken by 5 different female speakers	MFCC	85% at the filter number 32	NA
[246]	Personal authentication based on neural network	ASR model of MFCC and ANN classifier	Sample of 10 phrases for each 50 users and the phrase	16 MFCC features	92%	Text-dependent phrase only.
[247]	Performance analysis in noise presence or degradation for identification.	SVM (support vector machine) technique	Sample of Arabic clause iterates 15 times each of 80 speakers with degradation	MKMFCC (Multiple Kernel Weighted MFCC)	Higher identification rate	Result differ in other languages.
[248]	Low complexity solution for short utterance speaker identification	Gaussian mixture model	TIMIT database	combined MFCC and CMN feature vectors	Overall performance reduce both time and complexity	NA

TABLE 9. Some papers of speaker verification have been summarized in this table.

Reference	Task	Method	Dataset	Feature Extract	Accuracy	Limitation
[269]	Speaker verification with short speech utterance	Probabilistic linear discriminant analysis (PLDA) approach	NIST 2008	MFCC	Heavy-tailed PLDA achieve better performance than Gaussian PLDA	NA
[270]	Improve speaker embedding quality in short utterances text independent speaker verification	CNN based end-to end SV framework and an i-vector SV framework with deep discriminant analysis compensation	NIST SRE corpus	I-vector system based MFCCs, A-softmax loss based fbank features	24.4% and 13.9% respectively outperform by i-vector/PLDA framework	Proposed deep discriminant analysis compensation isn't compatible with PLDA.
[271]	Generate likelihood ratios in an end-to-end speaker verification system	Two Tied Factor Deep Neural Network (TF2-DNN) model and autoencoder model	RSR 2015 database I	MFCCs	Competitive result respect to DNN	NA
[272]	Extract self attentive speaker embeddings	DNN with PLDA and extension of the x-vector architecture	NIST SRE 2016	MFCCs	consistent with both short and long testing utterances.	Small dataset lead mismatch during train and test segmentation.
[218]	DNN embedding and fusion with i-vectors investigation for text independent speaker verification	A feed-forward DNN embedding system	NIST SRE 2010 and 2016	MFCCs	Embeddings are better on short utterances and fusing are complementary	More appropriate symmetric metric can be used.

rate for both out-of-domain and in-domain condition using tandem features. In [238], the authors used a convolutional time-delay DNN (CT-DNN) architecture to extract speaker-sensitive features. The paper investigated that when the test utterances are short, the learned feature is highly preferential and can be used to obtain high accuracy. The experiment evaluated in the Fisher database explained that

CT-DNN could generate high-quality speaker features. The study showed that the speaker trait is primarily a deterministic short-time feature rather than a long-time distributional pattern. In [239], a unified and interpretable end-to-end system for both SR and LR was developed. Besides the time average pooling layer, authors introduced self-attentive pooling (SAP) and learnable dictionary encoding (LDE) layers

that aggregated the variable-length input sequence into an utterance level representation. Center loss and angular softmax loss introduced in the system to get more discriminative speaker embedding. Experimental results on Voxceleb and NIST LRE 07 datasets showed that the proposed encoding layer and loss function could significantly improve the system. Chung *et al.* [240] introduced VoxCeleb2, a truly large-scale audio-visual speaker recognition dataset gathered from open-source tools. The paper developed CNN models and training strategies to recognize identities from voice under noisy and unconstrained conditions effectively.

Hajibabaei and Dai [130] investigated different methods to advance the efficiency of a text-independent ASR system without using additional data and more extensive criteria by expanding the training and testing data. The results showed the sufficient dimensionality of embedding space, and the usage of more discriminative loss functions increases accuracies. Also declared that the dropout method of a fully connected layer improves the verification accuracy. In [241], a hybrid model of adaptive GMM and CNN for short utterance was presented. The CNN method was trained to process spectrograms to extract the deep features of the entire frequency spectrum of short utterance. The experimental results showed the improvement of accuracy and richness of feature extraction in short utterance and speech. Shon *et al.* [242], proposed a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) based ASR model for extracting robust speaker embeddings. The paper modified the embedding structure to extract frame-level speaker embeddings from each hidden layer. In [243], the authors introduced a meta-learning framework for imbalance length pairs which solved the poor performance of models with short utterances. Further, the authors proposed prototypical networks with different speech length of two meta-learning schemes as support and query sets. The experimental results of combined two schemes on short utterance (1-2 seconds) outperformed speaker verification models and unseen speaker identification on the VoxCeleb datasets. 1D-Triplet CNN was presented in [244] with a combination of MFCC and LPC features to improve the quality of the input speech signal. Experiments on the TIMIT dataset, Fisher dataset, NIST SRE 2008 and 2010 datasets observed robust performance to a wide range of audio degradations hence still failed to verify all the data correctly.

Besides, a few other speaker recognition models are also introduced in this domain at different times [227], [249]–[263]. In paper [20], authors presented an overview of Classical approaches like vector quantization, Gaussian mixture model, support vector machine (SVM), and Supervector methods of automatic text-independent SR. The authors also elaborated the normalization and adaptation methods to handle mismatch of training and testing, unbalanced text, limited training data, background noise, and non-cooperative users. The study showed the NIST database's performance and mentioned recent methodological difficulties such as text dependency, channel impacts, speech durations, and cross-talk speech.

Singh *et al.* [264] provided information about three specific application areas as authentication, surveillance and forensic speaker recognition technologies. The authors discussed irrelevant information in automatic speaker recognition applications that may degrade the system accuracy. Also added relevant information of applications such as linguistic information. In [265], the MFCC technique for feature extraction and vector quantization for feature matching were used for designing a speaker recognition system. The paper suggested some modifications of existing MFCC that can be used to improve the performance of SR. Ferrer *et al.* [266] presented SRI's submission along with an analysis of the approaches that provided significant gains for the evaluation. The paper included a multiclass voice-activity detection (VAD) system and the fusion of subsystems trained with clean and noisy data, a fusion strategy for acoustic characterization using metadata. In [267], a new MFCC and VAD based approach was presented for the SR system where VAD removes the background noise. Also, a new criterion for voice detection was proposed. Experimental results were presented on the dataset of three speakers' sample voices and showed 90% accuracy with no false recognition. In [183] the authors designed speaker identification experiments to analyze noise robustness of MFCC and GFCC. This study revealed that the nonlinear rectification accounts for the noise robustness differences primarily, suggested how to enhance MFCC robustness, and further improved GFCC robustness by adopting a different time-frequency representation. The paper [268] applied a CNN/i-vector approach to identify speakers in noisy conditions for Automatic speech recognition (ASR). Datasets used for the experiments was supplied under the DARPA RATS program with an additional two latest data collection. The performance evaluated that CNN/i-vector front end is better than the UBM/i-vector on heavily degraded speech data fusion with UBM/i-vector system using different features considerably outperforms with 26% in miss rate. The paper also highlighted a future scope of the CNN/i-vector approach by analyzing the language and channel dependency.

As speaker recognition has different applications, the following subsections summarize the papers of speaker identification, speaker verification and speaker diarization that are presented in Table 8, 9, and 10.

A. SUMMARY OF PAPERS REGARDING SPEAKER IDENTIFICATION

In this section, we represent the speaker identification systems evolution from the early implementations to current trends. The summary of the papers are uphold in table 8.

In the paper [245], a BPNN based system was presented for speaker identification where the MFCC feature was used with some modifications. The paper investigated the extracted features to identify the unknown speaker using five unknown female speakers dataset, and the results showed that at 32 number of filters, the efficiency is 85%. The paper used neural networks for training and testing to find the error values that defined the clarity of the algorithm.

In [246], an automatic text-dependent speaker recognition model was presented. The paper used MFCC features to get hybrid features and then a multilayer feed-forward back-propagation ANN classifier used to recognize speakers. The experimental results evaluated on a fixed spoken phrase, and the CIR performance is 92% but only for ten users. The paper [247] presented a robust noise MKMFCC–SVM based on the Multiple Kernel Weighted Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficient (MKMFCC) and SVM for SI. The paper used MKMFCC to extract features from degraded audio using multiple kernels like exponential and tangential and categorized with the SVM approach. The comparative analysis with MFCC-SVM SI in different transforms and SNR on a database includes 80 speakers (each iterating Arabic clauses 15 times) provided a higher identification rate in noise presence or degradation. The paper [248] proposed GMM based on a low complexity solution with new feature vectors in a text-independent speaker recognition system for short utterances. The paper used Cepstral Mean Normalization (CMN) to reduce the effect of the extracted features' variability and combined with MFCC to enhance the performance. The experimental results on the TIMIT database demonstrated remarkable results of the system's effectiveness without incorporating lengthy, extra-data and complicated calculations to handle short utterances data.

B. SUMMARY OF PAPERS REGARDING SPEAKER VERIFICATION

This section presents a concise overview of the speaker verification domain by elaborating its modelling methodologies and various feature extraction approaches. The summary of the papers are presented in table 9.

Kanagsundaram *et al.* [269] investigated the effect of short utterances available for development, enrolment, and verification using the PLDA approaches. Applying the NIST 2008 SR evaluation database, the study showed that heavy-tailed PLDA (HTPLDA) deliver greater accuracy than Gaussian PLDA (GPLDA) as evaluation sentence dimensions are minimised. The paper presented mismatched and matched evaluation performance by pooling the advancement data, preferably concatenating two independently trained total-variability spaces from every channel. In [270], the application of angular softmax is presented to increase speaker embedding performance. In the paper, a CNN based end-to-end SV framework and a deep discriminant analysis for compensation in i-vector space are two a-softmax loss-based SV frameworks investigated. An end-to-end text-dependent speaker recognition model was proposed in the paper [271] based on deep neural networks using tied hidden factors. A two-step backpropagation algorithm used to train model parameters and hidden variables in the paper. The authors calculated the gradients of tied hidden variables by aggregating all session frames for JFA. For effectiveness against overfitting and uncertainty, the dropout Bernoulli distribution and likelihood ratios used in enrolment and trial evaluation. The evaluation on the RSR2015 part I

database provided well-calibrated scores in results. A self-attention mechanism into DNN embeddings was proposed in [272] to extract speaker embeddings for text-independent SV. The speaker embeddings used as a weighted mean of a speaker's frame-level hidden vectors in the paper. A PLDA classifier was used to compare combinations of embeddings. The experimental results on NIST SRE16 showed that the improvement by the mechanism was compatible with both short and long testing utterances. The paper [218] investigated deep neural network embeddings that had been replaced with i-vectors for text-independent speaker verification. The experiments on NIST SRE 2010 and 2016 showed that the feed-forward DNN embedding system outperformed i-vectors for short speech segments and are ambitious on long-duration test circumstances. The paper also evaluated equivalent performance using a fusion of i-vector and embeddings.

C. SUMMARY OF PAPERS REGARDING SPEAKER DIARIZATION

This section demonstrates a few speaker diarization papers. The summary of the articles is upheld in table 10. In [273], Yusuke *et al.* introduced an end-to-end neural-network-based speaker diarization technique. This technique does not have individual sections for feature extraction and clustering. Instead, a single neural network outputs SD results directly. The authors developed a permutation-free objective function to deprecate diarization errors instantly. This SD architecture obtains a diarization error rate (DER) of 12.28%. In [274], the authors developed an overlapped speech detector in the SD. Kefi *et al.* propose an overlap detector and diarization system that trained on AMI meeting corpus dataset and achieved relative-improvement of about 7.4% diarization error rate. The paper [275] represents an architecture to enhance the short-term spectral feature-based overlap detector by incorporating information from long-term conversational features. HMM/GMM based technique applied on AMI meeting corpus finds that the diarization error rate is minimized by 5% pertinent to the baseline overlap detector. In [276], the authors introduced a substitute technique for learning feature affirmation by deep neural networks to dispel the i-vector model from this speaker diarization system. Wang *et al.* [277] proposed a novel d-vector based model for SD. The authors merged LSTM-based d-vector audio embeddings with modern nonparametric clustering to significantly result in the speaker diarization system. This architecture experimented on NIST SRE 2000 CALLHOME dataset and found a significant result of 12% DER. Zhang *et al.* [278] introduced a diarization approach fully supervised denoted unbounded interleaved-state recurrent neural networks (UIS-RNN). This unsupervised method was evaluated on NIST SRE 2000 CALLHOME dataset and obtained a 7.6% diarization error rate. In [279], the authors proposed a supervised diarization system i-vector and PLDA. The model evaluated on CALLHOME conversational telephone speech corpus and obtained a diarization error rate

TABLE 10. Some papers of speaker diarization have been summarized in this table.

Reference	Task	Method	Dataset	Feature Extract	Accuracy	Limitation
[273]	End-to-end neural-network based SD method	Neural probabilistic model of SD	Switchboard 2, Switchboard cellular, NIST SRE	23-dimensional log-Mel-filterbank features	The proposed method achieved diarization error rate (DER) of 12.28%	Better simulation techniques can improve the error rate
[274]	Overlap detection system for improved meeting diarization	Integrated overlap detector and diarization system	AMI Meeting Corpus	MFCC	Relative improvement of about 7.4% DER	NA
[275]	Improving the short-term spectral feature based overlap detector	HMM/GMM overlap detector	AMI meeting corpus	Long-term conversational features	DER is reduced by 5%	Exploring prior probabilities obtained from the conversational features
[276]	Discriminatively trained DNN for SD	DNN	CALLHOME conversational telephone speech corpus	Feed forward DNN	DER 9.9	Does not respond as well to current unsupervised calibration strategy
[277]	Speaker diarization system	LSTM-based d-vector	NIST SRE 2000 CALLHOME	LSTM	12.0% diarization error rate	NA
[278]	Supervised speaker diarization	Unbounded interleaved-state recurrent neural networks (UIS-RNN)	NIST SRE 2000 CALLHOME	RNN	7.6% diarization error rate	NA
[279]	Speaker diarization via unsupervised PLDA i-vector	Incorporates probabilistic linear discriminant analysis (PLDA) for i-vector scoring	CALLHOME conversational telephone speech corpus	i-vector	DER 13.7%	Error rate can be reduce further

of 13.7%. The paper [280] describes an unsupervised speaker diarization method that creates massive progress on unsupervised SD.

VII. PERFORMANCE OF SPEAKER RECOGNITION

The SR system's performance can be evaluated depending on parameters such as accuracy and the system's speed. The accuracy of architecture can be calculated from the false acceptance ratio (FAR) and false rejection ratio (FRR). FAR is the percentage of negative inputs which are determined as positive. FRR is the percentage of positive inputs, which are destined as negative. Some widely used SR performance measures systems are receiver operating characteristic (ROC), equal error rate (EER), detection error tradeoff (DET). The following sections broadly describe the evaluation systems.

A. RECEIVER OPERATING CHARACTERISTIC (ROC)

The area under the curve (AUC) and receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve is a performance measurement for

recognition problems at numerous thresholds. The receiver operating characteristic is a probability curve, and the area under the curve demonstrates the degree or measure of separability. It represents how much the architecture is efficient to separate classes. If the threshold value is minimized, it classifies more items as positive, which increases both true positive and false positive. Figure 16 demonstrates a standard ROC-AUC curve. To better explain the ROC-AUC curve, the true positive and false positive rates are discussed below:

1) TRUE POSITIVE RATE (TPR)

TPR means true positive rate or sensitivity that tells us what proportion of the positive items got correctly classified. The mathematical formula of TPR is:

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \quad (31)$$

here, TP , FN refers to true positive and false negative respectively.

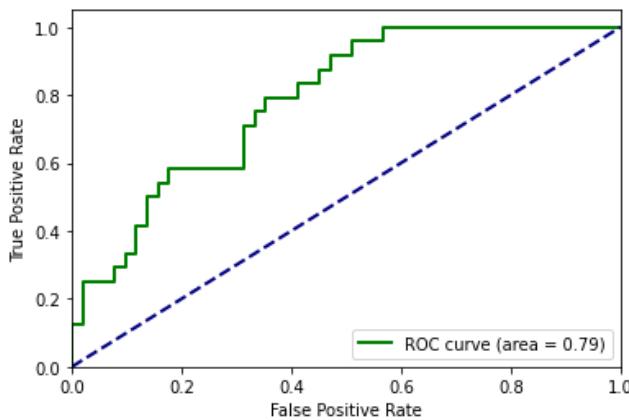


FIGURE 16. The figure illustrates TPR vs FPR at different classification thresholds, which is the condition of the ROC-AUC curve.

2) FALSE POSITIVE RATE (FPR)

FPR means the false positive rate that tells us what proportion of the negative items got incorrectly classified. The mathematical formula of FPR is:

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{TN + FP} \quad (32)$$

where, FP , TN refers to false positive and true negative respectively.

B. EQUAL ERROR RATE

The equal error rate (ERR) is the algorithm that is used to accurately predict the thresholds for its false acceptance and false rejection rates. The standard value is referred to as the equal error rate whenever the rates are similar. The value demonstrates that the percentage of false acceptances equals the portion of false rejections. Fundamentally, it is a mathematical method of detecting errors and error margins in inaccurate results. There are also two possible conditions: Y , which means that the expression is acknowledged as the speaker's, and N , meaning that the expression is refused. From these expressions, the conditional probability can be summarized as [28]:

$P(Y|y)$ is the probability of correct acceptance,
 $P(Y|n)$ the probability of false acceptance (FA),
 $P(N|y)$ the probability of false rejection (FR),
 $P(N|n)$ the probability of correct rejection.

The relationships between these parameters: $P(Y|y) + P(N|y) = 1$ and $P(Y|n) + P(N|n) = 1$. SR systems can be measured using the two probabilities $P(Y|y)$ and $P(Y|n)$.

C. DETECTION ERROR TRADEOFF

A detection error tradeoff (DET) is a visual representation of error margins for binary classifications that plots the false rejection rate versus the false acceptance rate [281]. It is now common practice to map the error curve on a regular deviate scale, in which situation the curve is referred to as the DET curve. The x and y-axes in the curve are measured non-linearly by the regular natural deviates, resulting in more

linear tradeoff curves than ROC curves. It uses most sequential values to emphasize the significance of the difference in the critical operating zone. The DET curve representation is simple to understand and compares the system's output over a wide range of operating situations. The probit function (used to model binary outcome variables) gives the normal deviate mapping, such that:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \text{probit}(P_{fa}) \\ y &= \text{probit}(P_{fr}) \end{aligned}$$

where P_{fa} and P_{fr} are the false-accept and false-reject rates. Probabilities are mapped from the unit interval $[0, 1]$ to the extended real line $[-\infty, +\infty]$.

VIII. CHALLENGES AND FUTURE SCOPES OF ASR SYSTEMS

Speaker recognition approaches face numerous challenges. In data-driven strategies, intra-speaker variability is the most common challenge. These challenges are common for both text-dependent and text-independent speaker recognition tasks. This section first analyzed speaker recognition's general challenges and then explained the technology and deployment challenges.

A. GENERAL CHALLENGES

The difficulties of speaker recognition tasks for both text-dependent and text-independent models are:

- **Data-driven dependency:** Even though the speaker recognition approaches are practical, these strategies are incredibly data-driven. A massive quantity of knowledge is required to train the background methods. The database got to be structured and arranged in a very controlled way requiring notable human efforts.
- **Intra-speaker variability:** Sometimes, the same person does not speak the exact speeches in the same style every interval, which causes a significant degree of variability. We have discussed three types of variability that create excessive challenges for speaker recognition tasks.
- **Speaker-based variability:** It displays differences in how a speaker speaks and will affect system accuracy for ASR. Those can be regarded as the inherent variability of the speaker, including the following determinants: vocal style, emotion, psychological, etc.
- **Conversation-based variability:** It reflects different scenarios concerning the vocal communication with either a different person or any system or disputes concerning the particular language or accent. It incorporates the human-to-human conversation of the dialect spoken, monologue, two-way conversation, etc.
- **Technology-based variability:** It involves the time and place of the audio capturing and subsequent issues: electromechanical, environmental, data quality—duration, sampling rate, recording quality, and audio compression.
- **Low resource languages:** State-of-the-art ASR approaches give satisfactory results on the dataset

described in Section III. Still, when the language of the low resources is applied to these approaches, the result becomes more down than average. So, there is quite a notable quantity of effort demanded in the field of low-resource language ASR systems.

B. TECHNOLOGY CHALLENGES

The technology challenges of speaker recognition architectures are intensely correlated to the core algorithms. Few technological challenges are:

- **Limited data and constrained lexicon:** Modern industrial purposes apply training periods that generally composed of repetitious duplications of the enrollment lexicon. The trial period falls from a unique replication of a sub-portion of the recorded lexicon for an entire speech input of 4-5 seconds. Certain obligations are constrained by studies that illustrate, end customers best observe shorter enrollment and testing sessions. In the most prominent circumstances, the testing lexicon is preferred to match the enrollment lexicon precisely.
- **Channel usage:** This is not surprising to observe that top clients in real applications use numerous types of phones: landline phones, payphones, cordless phones, cell phones, etc. This advances the effect of their influence on the efficiency of channel usage. A cross-channel endeavour is designated as a measuring interval introducing from a separate channel than throughout the training period. It is a vital region where the speaker recognition architectures must be improved.
- **Aging of speaker models:** Several speaker models ageing sources exist natural ageing, channel usage, and behavioural changes. Biological ageing is associated with the physiological developments that happen to the phonatory device over extended times. Channel usage shifts across time can let the speaker model enhance antiquated concerning the contemporary channel usage. Subsequently, behavioural alterations happen when users acquire extra vulnerability to the voice interface and reconstruct how they communicate. In sum, these constituents influence the models and score and therefore are reflected in the efficiency.

C. DEPLOYMENT CHALLENGES

The deployment challenges of speaker recognition approaches are encountered when transferring the speaker recognition architecture into an actual application include:

- **Cost of deployment:** For the speaker recognition task, a broad range of dialogues can be implemented. These dialogues need their individual collection of thresholds based on the significant stage of protection. Lately, an attempt to develop off-the-shelf security settings into results has occurred. This method does not need any information and is quite reliable for small- to medium-scale methods or basic security settings for an

experiment. However, maximum developers desire to have a more precise understanding of their protection layer's accuracy. They crave to estimate original data of the conventional false accept, false reject, and prompt rates. Thus the cost of the deployment becomes high.

- **Forward compatibility:** Here, the principal purpose is that the enrollee database should be forward congruous with revising the application and its underlying architectures. Indeed, an application produced using a security layer based on a first name and last name lexicon is restricted to using this lexicon. The explanation of these features is an indispensable part of the speaker model, and any modification to this will harm efficiency. It also regulates what research can contribute to an existent algorithm.

Besides, challenging audio datasets, different phonation styles, speech under stress in the record, channel mismatch, and speech modality make today's speaker recognition approaches challenging. However, solving these challenges involves the huge advanced research possibilities of ASR.

IX. CONCLUSION

Speaker recognition is an eminent research domain widely investigated and integrated into numerous systems to identify or verify individuals. However, limited investigation has been conducted in the vast research domain, and most of them are currently outdated. Therefore, the paper focuses on the renowned research area and explores various dimensions of such an exciting research field. The article targets the research domain in multiple aspects, including the fundamentals, feature extraction methodologies, datasets, architectural constructions, performance measurements, and challenges. Primitively, the study explains the fundamental theories and existing review work of the ASR domain. The following describes the research methodologies and the datasets used in this domain. Then the paper introduces feature extraction approaches of ASR systems extensively. Further, the paper aggregates the current implementations of the ASR systems, explains and provides a comparative review based on the aspects mentioned earlier. Later the performance measurement methods of ASR systems present. Finally, the paper exploits some of the limitations of the current ASR systems and addresses future directives. The article significantly upholds the existing defaults and variations of ASR systems that would help new researchers quickly adapt the research domain concepts. Moreover, the comparisons and future directives would help explore a broader perception of speaker recognition technologies, including architectural and feature extraction terminologies.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The authors would like to thank the Advanced Machine Learning (AML) Lab for resource sharing and precious opinions.

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