Recreating LipNet: A Simplified Approach to Lip Reading Neural Networks

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1 Introduction

Lip reading has gained significant attention in recent years, especially with advancements in deep learning and artificial intelligence. Commercially, lip reading models have potential applications in various fields, including security, accessibility for people with hearing impairments, and even entertainment. Celebrities, such as actors and athletes, often find themselves at the center of gossip and intrigue, making it valuable to capture their words even when they are not mic'd up. Furthermore, in noisy environments, traditional speech recognition systems can struggle, but lip reading models can provide additional context to enhance accuracy.

In this project, inspired by the original LipNet paper by Assael et al. (2016), I aimed to recreate a simplified version of the LipNet model. My goal was to determine if such models could be made lightweight and developed with fewer resources while maintaining a reasonable level of accuracy. The original LipNet implementation was in TensorFlow, whereas I have utilized PyTorch for my implementation. By doing so, I tested the reproducibility of the paper across different technologies.

Beyond commercial applications, lip reading technology has profound implications for accessibility. Individuals with hearing impairments could greatly benefit from augmented reality (AR) lenses and virtual reality (VR) goggles equipped with lip reading capabilities. Such technology could transcribe speech to text in real-time, providing an invaluable tool for communication in various settings. Moreover, combining lip reading models with speech recognition systems could enhance performance in noisy environments, thus broadening the scope of practical applications.

My simplified LipNet model focuses on sentence-level lip reading, following the structure of the original LipNet, which maps a sequence of video frames to text using spatiotemporal convolutions, a recurrent network, and connectionist temporal classification (CTC) loss. The original LipNet achieved a remarkable 95.2% accuracy on the GRID corpus, significantly outperforming human lip readers. In my project, I aimed to replicate this success to a certain extent, albeit with reduced computational resources and simpler architecture.

The structure of this report is as follows: the Methods section details my approach to model design, data preparation, and training. The Results section presents the performance metrics of my model, and the Discussion section compares my findings with the original LipNet model and addresses the limitations of my approach. Finally, the References section lists the sources that informed my work.

2 Methods

The dataset used in this project is the Lombard Grid corpus, a bi-view audiovisual Lombard speech corpus designed for joint computational-behavioral studies in speech perception. It includes 54 talkers with 1000 utterances per talker, following the same sentence format as the audiovisual Grid corpus but with unique sentence sets. For the scope of this project, I focused on one speaker to simplify the analysis and manage computational resources.

To prepare the data, video frames were loaded using the OpenCV library. Code for this processing was adapted by Nick Nochnack's Tensorflow Implementation of LipNet (in References). Each frame was converted to grayscale to reduce computational complexity and then cropped to focus on the mouth region, ensuring that the model learns relevant features (Appendix - Figure 7). The frames were converted to PyTorch tensors and normalized by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation, ensuring uniformity in pixel intensity values (Appendix - Figure 8). To handle variable-length sequences, frames were padded to create uniform-length sequences using PyTorch's pad_sequence function. Alignments were loaded and tokenized using a custom character mapping, encoding each character in the sentences to a numerical index, including a padding token to handle variable-length text sequences. Data was batched using a DataLoader with a custom collate function to pad both frames and alignments appropriately.

There are two model architectures in this paper. The primary one follows the original LipNet but with a few modifications to simplify the implementation using PyTorch. The model starts with three layers of 3D convolutions to capture spatiotemporal features from the video frames. Each convolutional layer is

followed by a max-pooling layer to reduce the spatial dimensions, thereby managing computational load and focusing on essential features. The features extracted by the convolutional layers are then passed to two bidirectional GRU (Gated Recurrent Unit) layers. GRUs are well-suited for temporal data as they can capture dependencies over time. The bidirectional nature of these layers allows the model to access both past and future context, improving the accuracy of the predictions. The output from the GRU layers is fed into a fully connected linear layer followed by a softmax layer to generate probability distributions over the character set at each time step. The secondary model is exactly the same but with only one GRU layer.

For optimization, I used the Adam optimizer, known for its efficient handling of sparse gradients and adaptive learning rate capabilities. This optimizer helps in faster convergence and better performance. The Connectionist Temporal Classification (CTC) loss function was used for training. CTC is ideal for sequence prediction tasks with variable-length outputs as it does not require pre-segmented training data, making it suitable for lip reading where the alignment between video frames and text is not explicitly available. The CTC loss function calculates the probability of the correct label sequence by summing over all possible alignments, which allows the model to learn from unaligned data effectively.

To enhance the training process, a learning rate scheduler was implemented to reduce the learning rate gradually. This helps the model converge more smoothly by preventing the learning rate from being too high, which could cause the model to overshoot the optimal parameters. The scheduler decreases the learning rate after a certain number of epochs or based on the validation loss, ensuring more stable convergence.

In addition to the main processing steps, I incorporated a post-processing phase to further refine the model's predictions using the TextBlob library. This phase was essential to correct spelling errors and normalize the predicted text sequences. Given that typical alignments in my dataset rarely exceed 30 characters since the mean length is 24.83 characters, I implemented a character limit to ensure the efficiency and relevance of the post-processed output. TextBlob was used to correct any apparent spelling mistakes in the raw predictions. The corrected text was then tokenized, and tokens were concatenated until the 30-character limit was reached. This limit was based on the average length of the sentences in the Lombard Grid corpus, ensuring that the post-processed text remained concise and relevant to the original input. Thus enhancing the accuracy of the final predictions.

For evaluation, I used two primary metrics: edit distance and word coverage. Edit distance, specifically Levenshtein distance, measures the number of insertions, deletions, and substitutions required to transform the predicted sequence into the ground truth. This metric provides a robust measure of the model's accuracy in predicting the correct sequence of characters. Word coverage quantifies the fraction of words from the original text that are correctly predicted in the output. It is calculated by dividing the number of correct words by the total number of words in the ground truth. While word coverage captures the amount of information retained, it does not account for additional incorrect words in the prediction, which can sometimes give an incomplete picture of the model's performance.

3 Results

Initially, it is important to note that these results are based on in-sample predictions due to oversights during the experiments, which will be addressed later.

I began by training the model with just one GRU layer. The loss curve for this model is shown in Figure 2 in the appendix. During training, I observed that the loss oscillated between 1.6 and 1.7 across epochs instead of steadily decreasing. This indicated potential issues with the model's capacity to learn from the data effectively. Consequently, I decided to add an additional GRU layer, thereby aligning the model more closely with the original LipNet architecture.

As shown in Figure 3 of the appendix, the two-layer GRU model, despite starting with a higher initial cost than the single-layer model, exhibited a lower loss by the 10th epoch. This improvement is visually evident in Figure 4, where the cost curves for both models intersect at the 7th epoch. The two-layer GRU model demonstrated a more consistent decrease in loss, which motivated us to adopt this architecture for further training.

I continued training the two-layer GRU model for a total of 100 epochs. Over this period, the loss decreased from over 2.5 to approximately 0.2, showcasing the model's learning capability as seen in Figure 1 and 10 of the Appendix. However, due to computing limitations, further training beyond 100 epochs was not feasible. These limitations and their implications will be discussed in a later section.

The predictions generated by my model were evaluated using the average edit distance, which was found to be 4.887. Given the mean sequence length of 24.83 characters, this indicates that on average, 4.887 character changes (insertions, deletions, or substitutions) are needed to achieve 100% accuracy. The distribution of accurate predictions at different edit distances can be found in Figure 5 of the Appendix. Post-processing with TextBlob significantly improved the predictions, reducing the average edit distance by 11.22, detailed in figure 6 in the appendix. This reduction was primarily due to the trimming of trailing noise in the predictions, which was often introduced by padding sequences to a uniform length of 40 characters.

I also evaluated the model's performance at various edit distance thresholds. The cumulative accuracy increased with the allowance of more edits, as illustrated in Figure 5 and 9 of the appendix. With zero edits, 8.2% of the predictions achieved 100% accuracy. At an edit distance of two, 23.2% of the predictions were accurate, while an edit distance of six resulted in 52.4% accuracy. The accuracy plateaued at 91.7% with an edit distance of nine.

Furthermore, the average word coverage, which measures the fraction of words from the original text correctly predicted in the output, was 78.28%. This metric indicates that while the model captures a significant portion of the original information, there is still room for improvement, particularly in minimizing extraneous words and refining the accuracy of the predicted text.

Overall, these results highlight the model's capability to learn and improve over time, the effectiveness of adding an additional GRU layer, and the benefits of post-processing. The observed limitations and potential areas for future improvements will be addressed in the following sections.

4 Discussion

In this project, I aimed to recreate a simplified version of LipNet, a model for sentence-level lip reading. There are several differences between my model and the original LipNet presented by Assael et al. (2016). Firstly, while the original LipNet was implemented in TensorFlow, my version uses PyTorch, providing a different framework for model development. Additionally, the original LipNet utilized a more complex architecture with higher computational power and resources, while my model was intentionally simplified to test its feasibility with fewer resources. I also focused on a single speaker from the Lombard Grid corpus, using only the front view, whereas the original model used a more diverse dataset with multiple speakers and bi-view including front and side configurations.

My approach faced several limitations, particularly concerning the in-sample data. Due to an oversight, the data loader was not saved, preventing the replication of the exact training and testing splits. Moreover, working on Google Colab for increased computational power introduced challenges. During one session, I was kicked out, leading to the loss of the train-test split since it was randomly generated. This disruption meant the model was only trained on the training data without a separate test set for evaluation, limiting the robustness of my results.

The project primarily aimed to test the reproducibility of existing technologies. By focusing on one speaker and only using the front view, my findings are not generalizable beyond the Lombard Grid corpus. The character count limitation, with alignments averaging 24 characters, poses another restriction; the model's performance on longer sequences remains untested. Additionally, my model showed an over-reliance on post-processing with TextBlob. While this step significantly improved the predictions, it indicates that the raw model outputs were less accurate, and such heavy reliance on post-processing might not be ideal in practical applications.

Training beyond 100 epochs would require purchasing more computational resources, which was not feasible within the scope of this project. This limitation highlights the need for more powerful hardware to further enhance the model's performance and reduce the loss beyond the achieved levels.

Ethical and privacy concerns also arise with lip-reading technologies. The ability to read lips without consent can lead to significant privacy violations, particularly for individuals who are unaware that their speech is being transcribed. This raises important questions about the responsible use of such technologies and the need for clear regulations and ethical guidelines to protect individuals' privacy.

To conclude, this project demonstrates the potential for reproducing complex models like LipNet on a smaller scale, highlighting both the possibilities and the challenges. Future work should address the limitations discussed, explore generalizability to broader datasets, and consider the ethical implications of deploying lip-reading technologies in real-world scenarios.

5 References

Assael, Y. M., Shillingford, B., Whiteson, S., & de Freitas, N. (2016). LipNet: End-to-End Sentence-Level Lipreading. arXiv preprint arXiv:1611.01599. Retrieved from https://arxiv.org/abs/1611.01599

"Build a Deep Learning Model that can LIP READ using Python and Tensorflow Full Tutorial." YouTube, uploaded by Nick Nochnack, 29 Apr. 2024, www.youtube.com/watch?v=uKyojQjbx4c.

6 Appendix

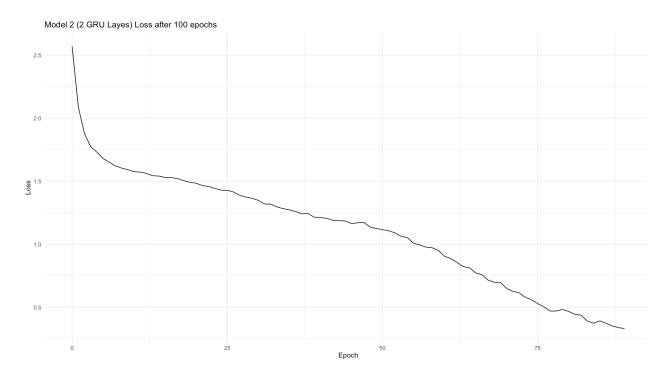


Figure 1: Figure 1

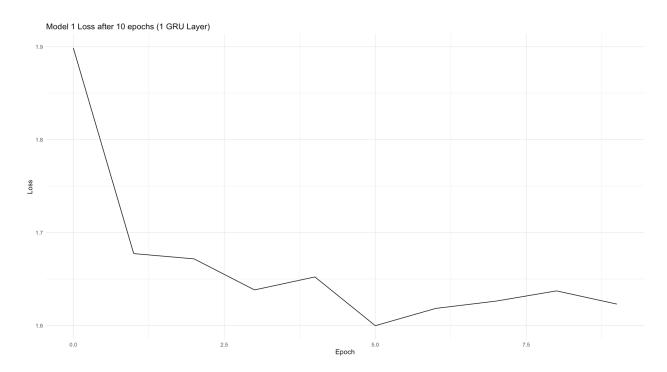


Figure 2: Figure 2

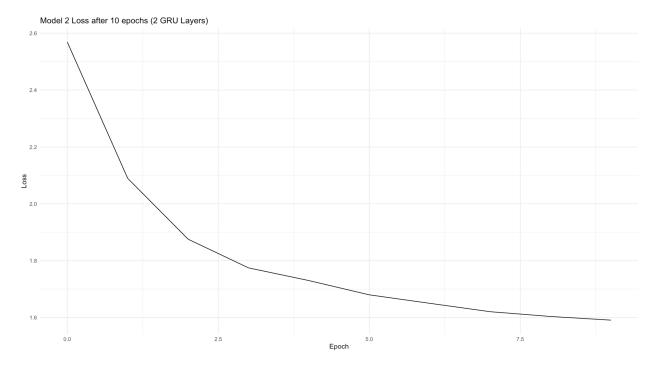


Figure 3: Figure 3

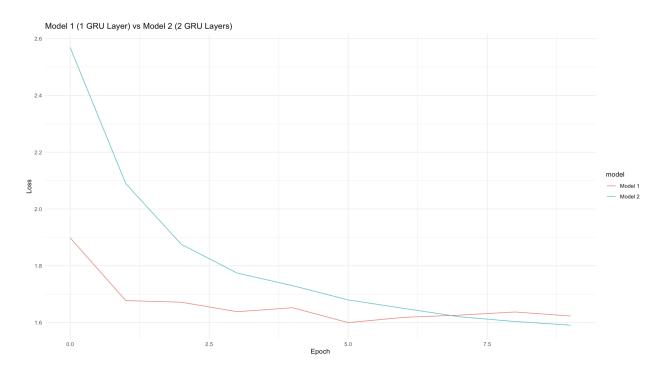


Figure 4: Figure 4

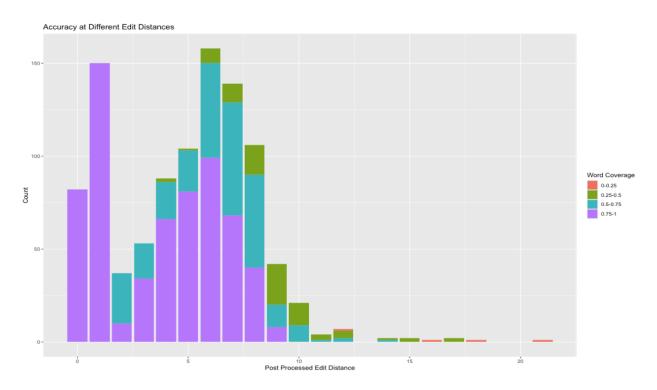


Figure 5: Figure 5

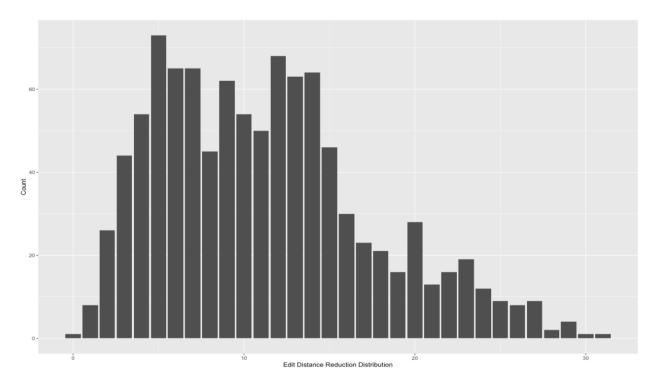


Figure 6: Figure 6

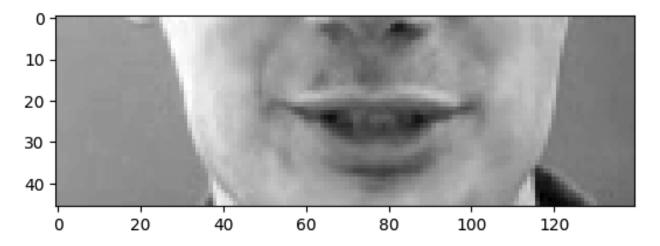


Figure 7: Figure 7

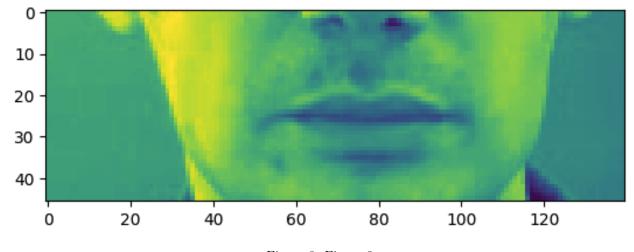


Figure 8: Figure 8

Post Processed		Cumulative
Edit Distance	Accuracy	Accuracy
0	8.20%	0.082
1	15.00%	0.232
2	3.70%	0.269
3	5.30%	0.322
4	8.80%	0.41
5	10.40%	0.514
6	15.80%	0.672
7	13.90%	0.811
8	10.60%	0.917
9	4.20%	0.959
10	2.10%	0.98
11	0.40%	0.984
12	0.70%	0.991
14	0.20%	0.993
15	0.20%	0.995
16	0.10%	0.996
17	0.20%	0.998
18	0.10%	0.999
21	0.10%	1

Figure 9: Figure 9

Epoch	Prediction 1: lay red by I two please	Prediction 2: set red by u seven soon
10	lay reee it siv pon sln an	say reee it siv pon sInn in
20	bit ree it h fire plean sneee I iiun e plen ag	sit ree it h fine non nnn iiun e alen ag
30	bin ree it h fire pleaaase pllepege nnnne nng nnn	bin ree it h fine now nnn nnnne nng nnn
40	bla rlue it h siro pleaaase plllllll ssnne o	blt rlue it v fine soooon nnnnnnn no
50	bla ree it b sigh pleaaase plllllllllee ee an	bla rlue it v sive sooonnnn nn wo nn
60	plac reee ay p sigh pleaaase pllllllllt o	bin ree by y fine sooon nn nn o
70	llay rred at z eego pleaaase pleeeaab n o	bin rred by s sive sooon nnnnn o
80	llay rred ay t zewo pleaaase plll n wo	bin rred by v seve ssooon no nn no
90	llay red by a twwo pleaaase plleee I yr eeeeo nn	set rred by v seven ssooon no n oon
100	llay rreedd by a twwo pleaaase pleelee oenonn	set rred by u seven ssooonnnn no

Figure 10: Figure 10