

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

Název: Rozpoznávání souvislé řeči s využitím neuronových sítí

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Pokyny pro vypracování

Provedte rešerši metod pro rozpoznávání souvislé řeči s využitím neuronových sítí. Uvažujte rekurentní neuronové sítě a zvažte také možnost použití neuronových turingových strojů. Na základě rešerše a po dohodě s vedoucím práce vyberte vhodné řešení pro robota NAO. Maximálně využívejte existujících knihoven s implementacemi potřebných metod. Navržené řešení otestujte na reálných datech. Rozsah práce upřesněte po dohodě s vedoucím práce.

Seznam odborné literatury

Dodá vedoucí práce.

doc. Ing. Jan Janoušek, Ph.D. vedoucí katedry

doc. RNDr. Ing. Marcel Jiřina, Ph.D. děkan

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Bachelor's thesis

Continuous Speech Recognition by Neural Networks

Adam Zvada

Supervisor: Ing. Miroslav Skrbek Ph.D

Acknowledgements

Declaration

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V několika větách shrňte obsah a přínos této práce v českém jazyce.

Klíčová slova Replace with comma-separated list of keywords in Czech.

Abstract

In my bachelor thesis Summarize the contents and contribution of your work in a few sentences in English language.

Keywords Replace with comma-separated list of keywords in English.

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Introduction

Neural Network

Neural networks have remarkable ability to derive meaning from complicated data. They can be used to extract patterns and detect trends that are too complex to be noticed by either humans or other computer techniques. Even though they have been around since the 1950s, it is only in the last decade when they started to outperform robust system or even humans in specify tasks. However, they require a huge amount of training examples and computational power to be trained for preforming a reasonable prediction. Fortunately, GPUs has seen enormous increase in performance¹ and 90% of the data in the world today has been created in the last two years alone, at 2.5 quintillion bytes of data a day*Refrence data*. That's why ANN is big topic in Computer Science and in the technology industry and it currently provides the best solutions to many problems such as speech recognition, image recognition, and natural language processing.

1.1 Inspiration in Nature

Artificial neural network (ANN) is heavily inspired by the way how biological neural networks process information in the human brain. Even though our brain is extremely complex and still not fully understand, we just need to know how information is being transferred. The basic building block is nerve cell called *neuron*. It receives, processes, and transmits information through electrical and chemical signals. It's estimated that an average human has 86 billion neurons *.

Dendrites are extensions of a nerve cell that propagate the electrochemical stimulation received from other neurons to the cell body. You may think of them as inputs to neuron, whereas neuron's output is called axon, a long nerve fiber that conducts electrical impulses away from the cell body. The end of axon is branched to many axon terminals which can be again connected to

¹WHY GPU FRO DEEP LEARNING.

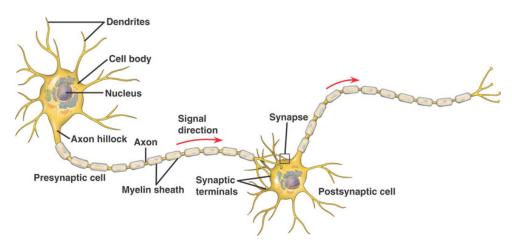


Figure 1.1: Illustration of nerve cell and communication flow

other dendrites. The connection is managed by *synapses* that can permit the passing of electrical signal to cell body. Once the cell reaches a certain threshold, an action potential will fire, sending the electrical signal down the axon to other connected neurons.

1.2 Artificial Neuron

Artificial neuron is a generic comuptational unit, basic building block for artificial neural network (ANN). It's simplified version of the biological counterpart and we are able to map parts of biological neuron with the artificial one. It takes n inputs represented as a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which correspond to dendrites. Generally artificial neuron produces single output $y \in \mathbb{R}$ as biological neuron where we call it axon. Each neuron's input i = 1, 2, ..., n has assigned weight (synapse) $w_1, w_2 ... w_n$, they refer to the connection strength between neurons. Weights and same as for synapse are the backbone of learning because in training phases, they keep changing to produce wanted output. (*In this chapter, we will elaborate further.) Inside the artificial neuron, input vector with their weights are combined and run through an activation function producing some output y. This process is illustrated in $LINK_PRECEPRTON$.

1.3 Perceptron

Perceptron is the simplest ANN with just one neuron and since we covered the basic intuition about artificial neuron we may proceed further and take a look at how output is actually calculated. The equation for a perceptron can be written as

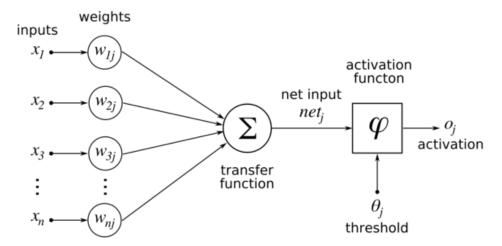


Figure 1.2: Illustration of nerve cell and communication flow

$$y = f(\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i \cdot x_i + b)$$

where

- \bullet x input vector
- y predicted output
- \bullet f activation function
- \bullet w weights
- \bullet b bias

Perceptron is a basically linear classifier, therefore the data has to be linearly separable otherwise we would not be able to make the correct prediction. Problems such as speech recognition are not definitely linearly separable, however we can solve non-linear decisions for example by introducing another layer of neurons, thus creating *Multilayered Perceptron*.

1.3.1 Activation Functions

We have stated that biological neuron fires electrical signal to other connected neurons whenever it reaches a certain threshold of incoming electrical impulses. Activation function is based on that concept and inside an artificial neuron it is used for calculating output signal via equation*. It introduces non-linear properties to our ANN and without an activation function would be just a regular linear regression model. Nowadays many different activation

function are being used and their performance varies from model to model.

List of some activation function:

• Sigmoid

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

• Hyperbolic Tangent

$$\tanh(x) = \frac{(e^x - e^{-x})}{(e^x + e^{-x})}$$

• ReLU

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

• Softmax

$$f_i(\vec{x}) = \frac{e^{x_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^J e^{x_j}}, \quad i = 1, 2 \dots J$$

where i is number of output

* TODO: Activation Functions features... differentiable and non-linear*

1.3.2 Bias

We can think of bias as a value stored inside neuron and being used to calculate it's output. The bias value allows the activation function to be shifted to the left or right, to better fit the data.

1.4 Topology of Artificial Neuron Network

Basic ANN as feedforward model is a directed graph with nodes as neurons and edges with weights representing connection to other neurons. ANN can be divided to three important layers as shown in Fig*. Yellow nodes is an input layer which takes input data, dimension of input vector has to correspond to number of input nodes. Hidden layer as the green nodes is most important to ANN and that is where the training and evaluation happens. Number of hidden layers and neurons needs to be in a good ratio between its size and its effectiveness. Output layer produces output vector as the prediction for given input.

1.5 Network Evaluation

Evaluation of ANN is done layer by layer.

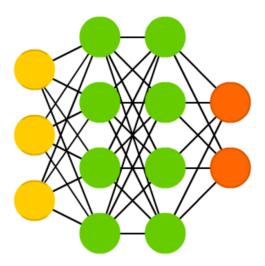


Figure 1.3: Basic topology of fully connected artificial neuron network with input vector of size 3, output vector of size 2 and two hidden layers.

1.6 Training

The greatest trait of ANN is ability to learn from given data and then make the best approximate prediction. The aim of the learning process is to find the most optimal values for network's weights and biases while minimizing error on predicated values. For ANN to learn we have to introduce training data consisted of input vector which will be feeded to the network and desired output value (label) for calculating our loss. This approach is called supervised learning².

1.6.1 Loss Function

Loss function compares the prediction from ANN with the desired output and returns the error of the prediction. During a training ANN, the goal is to minimize given loss function. The most common and most intuitive loss function is Mean squared Error (MSE),

$$MSE(y, \hat{y}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2.$$

1.6.2 Backpropagation

Backpropagation algorithm is responsible for the ability to learn from given training data. It is an iterative algorithm which for each training data from

²ANN can be also trained using unsupervised learning.

given training dataset backpropagates the error and adjust the weights and biases accordingly to get desired output.

1.6.2.1 Optimization

Backpropagation requires optimizer to minimize the error on the training data. We will describe backpropagation with using *gradient descent* as the most common optimization algorithm.

Weights and biases are updated using formula,

$$W_{jk}^l := W_{jk}^l - \alpha \frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{jk}^l}$$

$$b_j^l := b_j^l - \alpha \frac{\partial E}{\partial b_j^l}$$

where W_{jk}^l is weight with connection between unit j in layer l and unit i in layer l+1, b_j^l is bias associated with unit i in layer l+1, α is a learning rate *Reference*, and $\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{jk}^l}$ or $\frac{\partial E}{\partial b_j^l}$ can be interpreted as minimizing loss function with respect to given weight and bias respectively.

By applying a chain rule twice on the partial derivative of the loss function with respect to a weight, we get

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{ik}^l} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_i^l} \frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_i^l} \frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial W_{ik}^l}$$

where $\boldsymbol{z_{j}^{l}}$ is a sum of weighted inputs to unit j in layer l

$$z_{j}^{l} = b_{j}^{l} + \sum_{k=1}^{K} w_{jk}^{l} a_{k}^{l-1}$$

and a_j^l is an output of node j in layer l

$$a_j^l = f(z_j^l).$$

Let's calculate the last two products of equation *Reference*:

$$\frac{\partial a_j^l}{\partial z_j^l} = f'(z_j^l)$$

$$\frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial W_{jk}^l} = \frac{\partial W_{jk}^l a_k^l}{\partial W_j k^l} = a_k^{l-1}$$

We introduce a new varibale δ^l_j which represents the error in unit j in layer l and helps us to better understand and calculate real interested value of $\frac{\partial E}{\partial W^l_{jk}}$ and $\frac{\partial E}{\partial k^l}$.

$$\delta_j^l = \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j^l}$$

We will simplify the error equation on neuron j in output layer L as

$$\delta_j^L = \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j^L} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^L} \frac{\partial a_j^L}{\partial z_j^L} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^L} f'(z_j^L)$$

Now we have enough information to reformulate equation *reference* for output layer to

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{jk}^l} = \delta_k^L a_j^L.$$

However, to be able to update weights inside the hidden layers, we have to redefine the calculation of δ^l_j . We know that the error produced by an output neuron is just influencing the output value but inside a hidden layer the produced error propagates to all following layers. Therefore we have calculate the δ^l_j where layer l is inside a hidden layer and take into account all δ^{l+1} from following layer l+1.

$$\delta_{j}^{l} = \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_{j}^{l}} = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_{i}^{l+1}} \frac{\partial z_{i}^{l+1}}{\partial z_{j}^{l}} = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_{i}^{l+1}} \frac{\partial z_{i}^{l+1}}{\partial a_{j}^{l}} \frac{\partial a_{j}^{l}}{\partial z_{j}^{l}}$$
$$= \sum_{i} \delta_{i}^{l+1} W_{ij}^{l+1} f'(z_{j}^{l})$$

where the sum index i iterates over all neurons in layer l+1 and Notice that we have substituted $\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_i^{l+1}}$ with δ_i^{l+1} which is calculated from previous iteration. Finally, we may calculate all weights adjustments through the whole network as

$$W_{jk}^l := W_{jk}^l - \alpha \delta_k^l a_j^l$$

where

$$\delta_k^l = \frac{\partial E}{\partial a_j^L} f'(z_j^L), \quad l = L$$

or

$$\delta_k^l = \sum_i \delta_i^{l+1} W_{ij}^{l+1} f'(z_j^l), \quad l = 2, \dots, L-1.$$

We won't be exampling the equation for biases adjustments because it follows a similar process shown above with just little changes, resulting to equation

$$b_j^l := b_j^l - \alpha \delta_l^j$$

1.6.2.2 Backpropagation Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Backpropagation

- 1: Initialize network weights and biases
- 2: for each training data from training dataset do
- 3: Forward pass and calculate network prediction for given training input
- 4: Calculate error δ^L for output layer
- 5: Calculate errors δ^l for hidden layers
- 6: Update weights and biases using precalculated δ^l

Recurrent Neural Network

Neural networks are powerful learning models that achieve state-of-the-art results in a wide range of machine learning tasks. Nevertheless, they have limitations in the field of sequential data. Standard ANNs rely on the assumption of independence among the training examples but if data points are related in time or space then ANNs would not be the right model for the task*Reference - arvix*.

Recurrent neural network (RNN) is type of neural network which is precisely designed to work with sequential data through time. The key difference is that RNN's neurons in hidden layer have a special edge (recurrent edge) to a next time step which can be interpreted as a loop. In RNN, the neuron's output is dependent on the previous computations which is sent through the recurrent edge. Basically, the recurrent edges or loops allow persistence of information from one time step to the next one as shown on *Figure 3.1*.

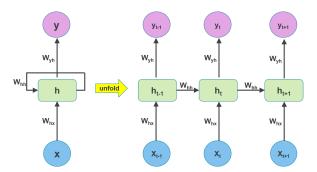


Figure 2.1: Simple RNN topology and illustration of unrolled RNN through time

2.1 Evaluation

In *Figure 3.1.* we may see simplification of evaluation process of RNN through the time steps. RNN's neuron cell in hidden layer takes two inputs, x_t and h_{t-1} which is value (hidden state) sent through the recurrent edge from previous time-step. The cell also produces two outputs, h_t as hidden state for upcoming time-setp

$$h_t = f(W_{hx}x_t + W_{hh}h_{t-1} + b_h)$$

where f is arbitrary non-linear activation function, W_{hx} is matrix of conventional weights, W_{hh} is the matrix of recurrent weights and b_h is a bais. The second output from cell is y_t which outputs the predication using precalculated hidden state h_t ,

$$y_t = W_{hy}h_t + b_y$$

where W_{hy} is matrix of output weights.

2.1.1 Softmax Fucntion

It is very common for RNN models to use *softmax* as activation function for output layer. Softmax function helps to get probability distribution of outputs so it's useful for finding most probable occurrence of output with respect to other outputs.

softmax
$$(y)_j = \frac{e^{z_j}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{z_k}}, \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, K$$

Softmax is being used for calculting output value of y_t resulting to formula

$$y_t = \operatorname{softmax}(W_{hu}h_t + b_u).$$

2.2 Training

Training a RNN is similar to training a traditional ANN. We also use the backpropagation algorithm, but since the parameters are shared by all time-steps in the network, the gradient at each output depends not only on the calculations of the current time-step, but also the previous time-steps.

2.2.1 Backpropagation Through Time

The most used algorithm to train RNN is backpropagation through time (BPTT), introduced by Werbos in 1990. BPTT is basically an extanded version of backpropagation algorithm where we not only propagate the error to all following layers but also through the hidden states. We may think of it as unrolling the RNN to sequence of identical ANNs where the recurrent edge connects

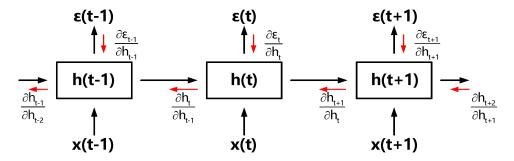


Figure 2.2: Deriving the gradients according to the back-propagation through time (BPTT) method. Notaion for output value $\epsilon(t)$ corresponds to our y_t .

the sequences of neurons in hidden layer together as shown on *Figure 3.1 and 3.2*. On *Figure 3.2* is also indicated how the errors are propagated. The propagation of errors through hidden states allows the RNN to learn long term time dependencies. The calculated gradients of the loss function for defined parameter (W, b) through the sequence of unrolled RNN are then sum up, producing the final gradient for updating the weights or baises, *Equation bottom*.

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_i j^l} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \frac{\partial E_t}{\partial W_i j^l}$$

where E is predefined loss function, W_{jk}^l is weight with connection between unit j in layer l and unit i in layer l+1, T is number of input sequences and $\frac{\partial E_t}{\partial W_{ij}^l}$ is calculated similarly as in backpropagation with just considering existence of recurrent edges

$$\frac{\partial E_t}{\partial W_{ij}^l} = \sum_{k=1}^t \frac{\partial E_t}{\partial y_t} \frac{\partial y_t}{\partial h_t} \frac{\partial h_t}{\partial h_k} \frac{\partial h_k}{\partial W_{ij}^l}$$

To compute the $\frac{\partial h_t}{\partial h_k}$ we use simple chain rule over all hidden states in interval [k,t].

$$\frac{\partial h_t}{\partial h_k} = \prod_{i=k+1}^t \frac{\partial h_i}{\partial h_{i-1}}$$

Putting equations together, we have the following relationship.

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{ij}^{l}} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} \sum_{i=1}^{t} \frac{\partial E_{t}}{\partial y_{t}} \frac{\partial y_{t}}{\partial h_{t}} \left(\prod_{i=k+1}^{t} \frac{\partial h_{i}}{\partial h_{i-1}} \right) \frac{\partial h_{k}}{\partial W_{ij}^{l}}$$

2.2.2 Exploding and Vanishing Gradients

Even though, RNNs had achieved success in learning short-range dependencies, they haven't been showing any worth mentioning achievement with learn-

ing mid-range dependencies. That was mainly cause by problems of *vanishing* and *exploding gradients*, introduced in Bengio et al. (1994).

The exploding gradient problem occurs when backpropagating the error across many time steps, that could lead to exponetilly grow of gradient for long-term components. Basically, a small change in parameters at initial stages can get acumulated through the time-steps resulting to the exponetilly grow. The values of weights can become so large as to overflow and result in NaN values.

The vanishing gradient problem refres to oposite behavior when the gradient values are shrinking exponentially fast and eventually vanishing completely. Gradient contributions from later time-steps become zero and the states at those steps doesn't contribute so we end up not learning long-range dependencies. Vanishing gradients aren't exclusive to RNNs, they also happen in deep ANN.

2.2.2.1 Solutions

To overcome problem with exploding gradient we can *gradient cliping* method. To fix the problem of vanishing gradient is little more complicated. We can avoid it by initilizing the weights carufuly.

2.3 LSTM

Long-Short-Term-Memories (LSTM) is special kind of RNN cell, introduced by Hochreiter and Schmidhuber in 1997 *REFERENCE*. Conventional RNNs are only just able to learn short-term dependencies because of vanishing gradient problem. However, LSTM are not effected by it and are capable of learning long-term dependencies. RNN are not used anymore, just LSTM.

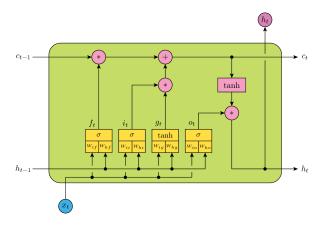


Figure 2.3: Diagram of LSTM cell.

2.4 CTC

Connectionist temporal classication (CTC) is a loss function used for classification of sequential data.

Speech Recognition

Speech recognition is the task of converting speech audio to text reprezentation. It has been attracting researchers for many years with a goal to produce efficient speech recognizer, beacuse it's a very easy and natural humanmachine interface tool.

Speech recognition system (ASR) takes audio signal as an input and predicts its transcript. ASR are normally divided into two important stages as shown on *Figure 1.1*. The Feature Extractor block generates a sequence of feature vectors which are then feeded to the recognizer block generating the correct output word.

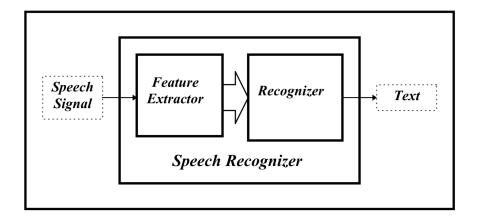


Figure 3.1: Basic building blocks of a Speech Recognizer

3.1 Feature Extraction

The feature extraction (FE) block used in speech recognition should aim towards reducing the complexity of the problem, it should derive descriptive features from speech signal to enable a classification of sounds. It is needed because the raw speech signal contains other information besides the linguistic message which would be counterproductive for recognizer.

3.1.1 Preprocessing

It is adventegous to apply preprocessing to raw speech signal before moving to feature extraction block. Using some type of preprocessing leads to easier feature extraction and faster training phase.

Usually, speech is recorded with a sampling frequency of 44.1kHz (44,100 readings per second). According to The Shannon Theorem *Reference*, a bandwidth limited signal can be reconstructed if the sampling frequency is more than double the maximum frequency meaning that frequencies up to almost 8kHz* are constituted correctly. Other part of preprocessing is to remove the parts between the recording starts and the user starts talking as well as after the end of speech. That helps to speed up the training phase because it reduces the size of training data*Reference*.

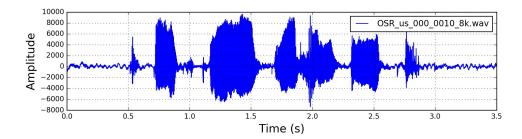


Figure 3.2: Illustration of raw speech signal from wav file with sampling frequency of 8kHz

3.1.2 MFCC

Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients (MFCCs) are a feature widely used in speech recognition. They were introduced by Davis and Mermelstein in the 1980's, and have been state-of-the-art ever since.

MFCC mimics the logarithmic perception of loudness and pitch of human auditory system and tries to eliminate speaker dependent characteristics by excluding the fundamental frequency and their harmonics.

To obtain MFFC features we have to follow operation steps as shown on *Figure*:

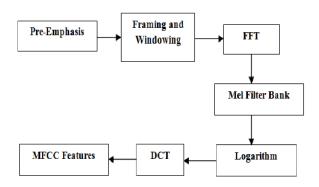


Figure 3.3: Steps of MFCC.

• *Pre-Emphasis* - This step applies filter on the speech signal to amplify the high frequencies. It balances the frequency spectrum and avoids numerical problems during the Fourier transform operation.

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

where x(t) is amplitude of signal in time t and α is filter coefficient which typical values are 0.95, y(t) pre-emphasis speech signal.

- Framing The process of segmenting the speech sinal into a small frames with the length within the range of 10 to 40 milliseconds. Speech is non-stationary signal but we consider all frames behave stationary so they describe a phonemes. In SR we process overlapping frames because phonemes can dependent, resulting to smoother changes in values. Popular settings are 25 ms for the frame size, 10 ms stride (15 ms overlap)*Reference*.
- Windowing This step applies Hamming window function*Refrence* on each speech signal frame. This is common operation for sound signal before applying FFT. *Reference why*
- \bullet FFT This step converts all speech frames from time domain into frequency domain using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT).*Reference FFT*
- *Mel Filter Banks* This step applies the mel-filterbank which consists of triangular overlapping windows that are spread over the whole frequency range, outputing mel frequency spectrum. It mimics the nonlinear human ear perception of sound, these filters are more discriminative at lower frequencies and less discriminative at higher frequencies.
- Logarithm This step computes the logarithm of the mel frequency spectrum, to mimic the human perception of loudness because perceive loudness on a logarithmic scale*Reference*.

• **DCT** - This step converts mel spectrum into time domain using Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT)*Reference*, resulting to MFCC vectors.

We have just given a theoretical overview how MFCC is calculated, for more detailed explenation consider reading *Reference MFCC explanation*. On *figure mfcc* is vector of MFCCs calculated from speech signal *figure signal* where number of cepstral coefficients is set to 13. We have extracted the features of speech signal and vectors of MFCCs can be feeded to recognizer.

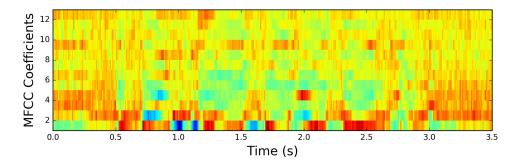


Figure 3.4: Vector of Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients through time.

3.2 Traditional Speech Recognizers

Historically, most speech recognition systems have been based on a set of statistical models representing the various sounds of the language to be recognized. We can define a problem of speech recognition as maximizing a probability of the word sequence given some utterance.

$$W^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_W P(W|X)$$

where X are acoustic vectors and transcribed W^* word sequence. However, calculating directly W^* is a very difficult task. We may simplify it by using Bayes rule resulting to equivalent equation

$$W^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_W P(X|W)P(W)$$

where the likelihood P(X|W) is called the acoustic model and the prior P(W) is the language model. In traditional speech recognizers we don't form words directly but we concatenating phonemes which are basic building block of words and they are defined by pronunciation model. As shown on *Figure diagram*, the decoder block works with language, acoustic and pronunciation model. The language model has a word sequences probabilities, while the acoustic model is generated by Hidden Markov Model (HMM) which is a tool

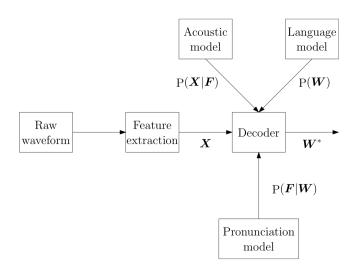


Figure 3.5: Diagram of traditional speech recognizer

for representing probability distribution over sequences of phonemes using pronunciation model.

In this thesis we just give a basic overview how traditional speech recognizers, our main focus is on end-to-end recognizers.

3.3 End-to-End Speech Recognizers

Recent advances in algorithms and computer hardware have made it possible to train neural networks (*section*) in an end-to-end fashion for tasks that previously required significant human expertise. All of the state-of-the-art speech recognizers were HMM-based, they required pronunciation, acoustic and language model which were hand-engineered and trained separetly. Not only speech recognizers based on nerual networks networks require less human effort than traditional approaches, they generally deliver superior performance. Training independent components is complex and suboptimal compared to training all components as one. Because it replaces entire pipelines of hand-engineered components with neural networks, end-to-end learning allows us to handle a diverse variety of speech including noisy environments, accents and different languages. End-to-end speech recognizers simplifies the training and deployment process altogether.

3.3.1 Connectionist Temporal Classification

Connectionist Temporal Classification (CTC) were introduced in *section* First step torwards end-to-end speech recognizers were due to the introduction

3. Speech Recognition

of recurrent neural network (RNN) *section* since they are designed to deal with sequenctional data through time.

3.3.2 CTC

Connectionist Temporal Classification make it possible to train RNNs for sequence labelling problems where the input-output align- ment is unknown.

Implementation

The goal is to implement end-to-end speech recognizer using neural network. High-level concept, how the implemented speech recognition system works is illustred on *figure*. It takes a wav file as an input generated from given microphone and perfroms preprocessing and feature extraction. The data are feeded to the recognizer which outputs the prediction of transcribed text from speech.

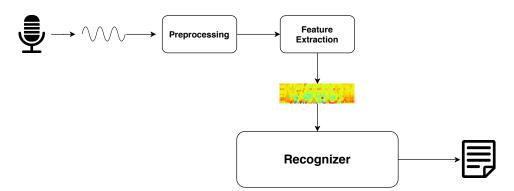


Figure 4.1: Speech Recognition System

In order to perfrom sucessful prediction with the recognizer, it needs to be trainned on training data.

4.1 Tools

4.1.1 Python

Speech recognition system is implemented in programming language *Python* which is currently most popular approach in machine learning and AI. Python is a very powerful, flexible, open source language that is easy to learn. The

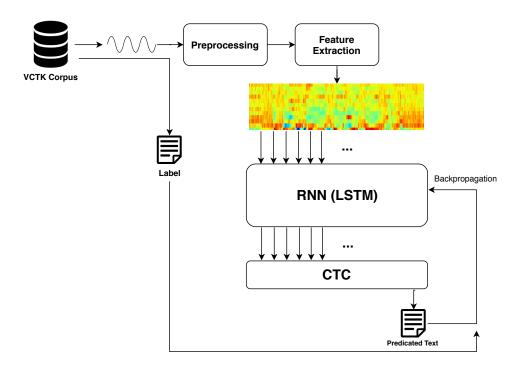


Figure 4.2: Diagram of the learning phase for the speech recognition system

greastest strenth however is wide range of libraries and frameworks for ML and AI.

4.1.2 Tensorflow

TensorFlow is open-source library developed by Google for deep learning and other algorithms involving large number of mathematical operations. The primary unit in TensorFlow is a tensor. A tensor consists of a set of primitive values shaped into an array of any number of dimensions. These massive numbers of large arrays are the reason that GPUs and other processors designed to do floating point mathematics excel at speeding up these algorithms. *Reference*

TensorFlow programs are structured into a construction phase that assembles a comuptaional graph, and an execution phase that uses a session to execute operation in the graph. However, TensorFlow programs are hard to debug because of the structure. Fortunately, TensorFlow offers a built-in function for visualization of the computation called TensorBoard.

4.2 Training Data

Since we implement end-to-end speech recognizer

- 4.3 Computing Power
- 4.4 Preprocessing and Feature Extraction
- 4.5 Recognizer

CHAPTER 5

Experiments

Experiments

Conclusion

APPENDIX **A**

Acronyms

 ${\bf GUI}$ Graphical user interface

XML Extensible markup language

 $_{\text{APPENDIX}}\,B$

Contents of enclosed CD

readme.txt	. the file with CD contents description
exe	the directory with executables
	the directory of source codes
wbdcm	implementation sources
thesisthe direct	ory of LATEX source codes of the thesis
text	the thesis text directory
thesis.pdf	the thesis text in PDF format
thesis.ps	the thesis text in PS format