

# Multi-Modal User Interaction

## Fall 2008

### Lecture 2: Speech recognition I

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## Part I: Introduction

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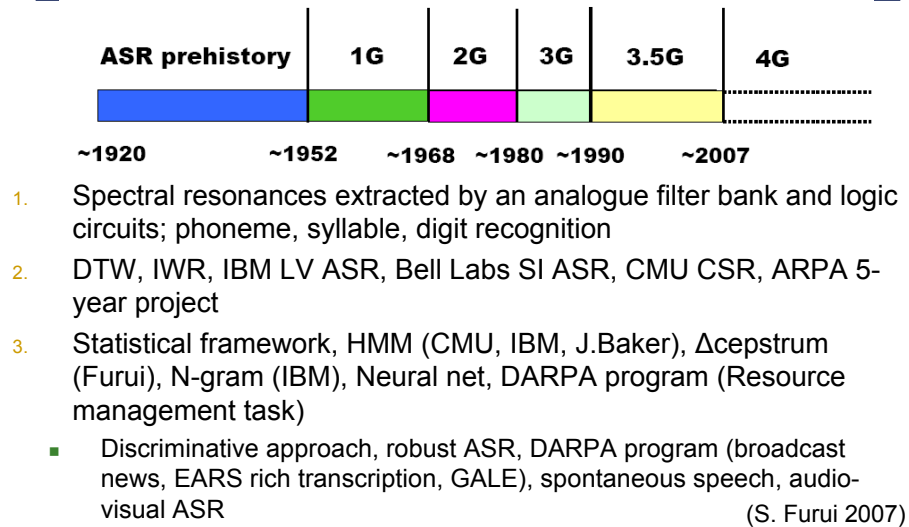
- Introduction, history and trends
- Speech signal representation
- Template based approach – DTW
- Statistical model based approach – HMM
- Variability



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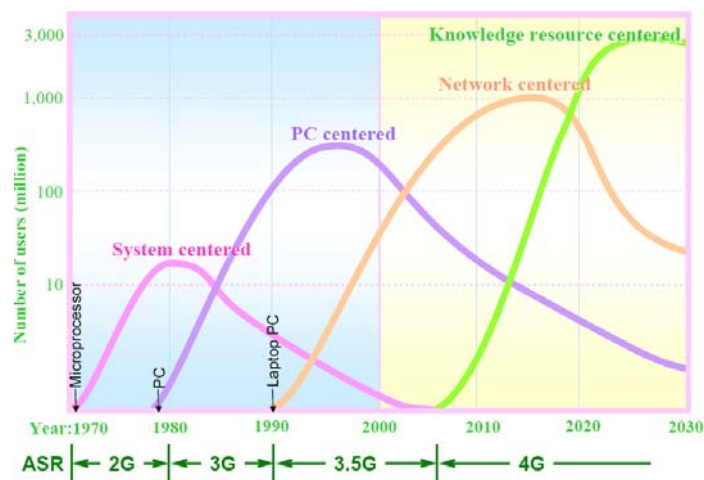
## ASR history



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## IT Technology progress



(David C. Moschella: "Waves of Power")



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## 1971-1976: The ARPA project

- ARPA launched 5 year Spoken Understanding Research project
- Goal: 1000 word vocabulary, a few speakers, continuous speech, constrained grammar, 90% understanding rate, near real time on a 100 MIPS machine
- 4 Systems built by the end of the program
  - SDC (24%), BBN's HWIM (44%), CMU's Hearsay II (74%), CMU's HARPY (95% -- but 80 times real time!) Raj Reddy
- HARPY based on engineering approach: search on network of all the possible utterances
- Conclude: Speech Understanding is too early for its time

Lesson learned:

- Hand-built knowledge does not scale up
- Need of a global “optimization” criterion

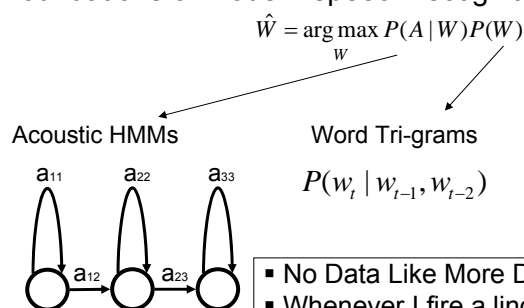


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## 1980s -- The Statistical Approach

- Hidden Markov Models based statistical approach (Fred Jelinek and Jim Baker, IBM)
- Foundations of modern speech recognition engines



J Baker

- No Data Like More Data
- Whenever I fire a linguist, our system performance improves (1988)
- Some of my best friends are linguists (2004)

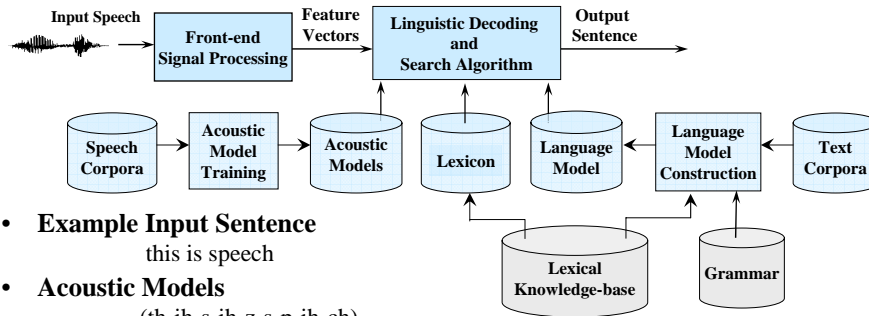


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## Large vocabulary speech recognition

- **A Block Diagram**



- **Example Input Sentence**

this is speech

- **Acoustic Models**

(th-ih-s-ih-z-s-p-ih-ch)

- **Lexicon**

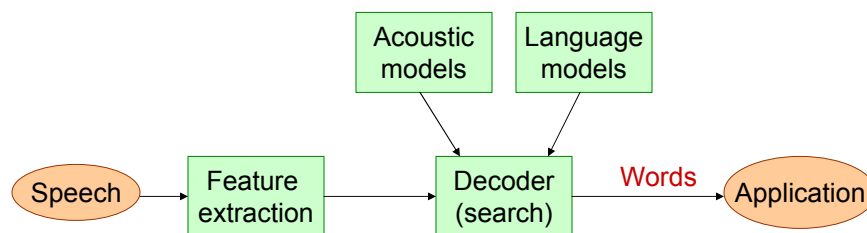
(th-ih-s) → this  
(ih-z) → is  
(s-p-iy-ch) → speech

- **Language Model**

(this) – (is) – (speech)  
 $P(\text{this})$   $P(\text{is} | \text{this})$   $P(\text{speech} | \text{this is})$   
 $P(w_i | w_{i-1})$  bi-gram language model  
 $P(w_i | w_{i-1}, w_{i-2})$  tri-gram language model, etc

L.S. Lee, 2007

## Key components of LVCSR system



- Speech recognition involves:

- How to **represent** the signal
- How to **model** both acoustic and language constraints
- How to **search** for the optimal answer



## Part II: Speech signal representation

- Introduction
- Speech signal representation
- Template based approach – DTW
- Statistical model based approach – HMM
- Variability



## Short-time processing solution

Assuming that speech has non-time-varying properties (fixed excitation and vocal tract) within short intervals →

Processing short segments (**frames**) of the speech signal each time

$$f_x(n, m) = x(m)w(n - m)$$

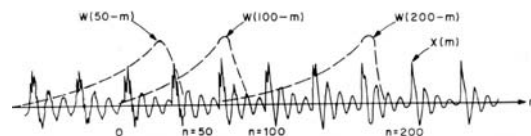


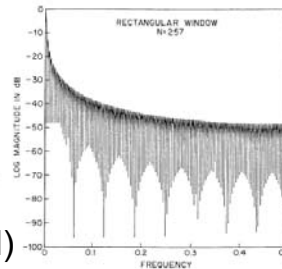
Fig. 6.1 Sketches of  $x(m)$  and  $w(n-m)$  for several values of  $n$ .



## Windows

- Rectangular window

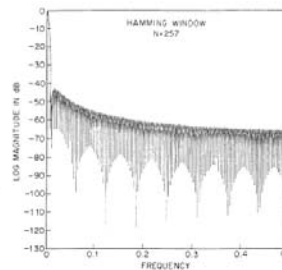
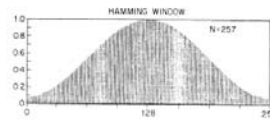
$$w[n] = 1, \quad 0 \leq n \leq N-1$$



- Hamming window (commonly used)

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

$$0 \leq n \leq N-1$$



## Choice of window

- Window type

- **Bandwidth** of Hamming window is about twice the bandwidth of Rectangular
- **Attenuation** of more than 40dB for Hamming as compared with 14 dB for Rectangular, outside passband

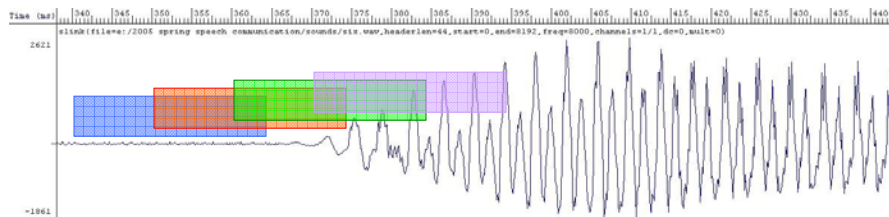
- Window duration N

- Increase N = decrease window bandwidth
- N should be larger than a pitch period, but smaller than a sound duration



## Dimension & speech representation

- **The curse of dimension** – the computational cost increases exponentially with the dimension of the problem
- The frame-based analysis yields a sequence as a new representation of the speech signal
  - samples at 8000/sec → **vectors** at 100/sec

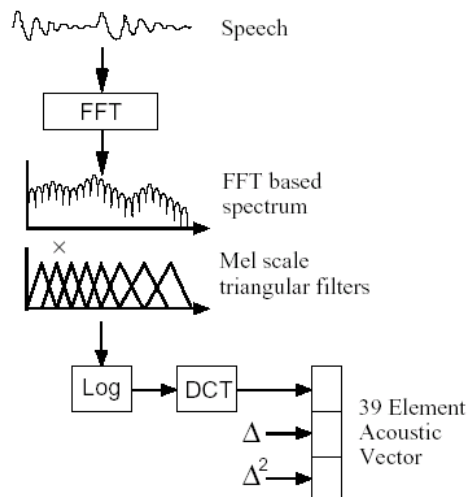


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## Front-end feature extraction

MFCC



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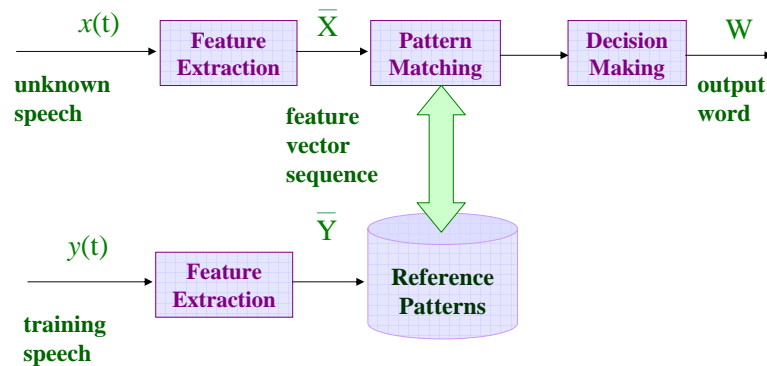
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## Part III: Template based approach

- Introduction
- Speech signal representation
- Template based approach – DTW
- Statistical model based approach – HMM
- Variability



## Template based ASR



### Template matching mechanism

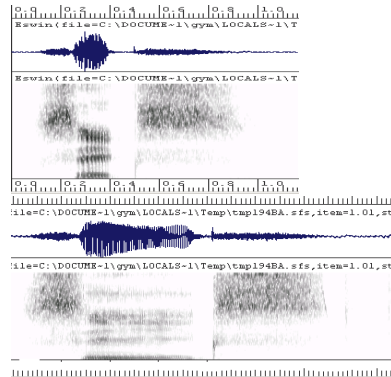
- Calculate the distance between two patterns
- Dynamic time warping (DTW)





## Speaking rate and time-normalization

- Speaking rate variation causes nonlinear fluctuation in a speech pattern time axis



- Time-normalization is needed.



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## DP based time-normalization

- **Dynamic programming** is a pattern matching algorithm with a nonlinear time-normalization effect.
  - Time differences btw two speech patterns are eliminated by warping the time axis of one so that the maximum coincidence is attained with the other, also called dynamic time warping (DTW)
  - The time-normalized distance is calculated as the minimized residual distance between them, remaining still after eliminating the timing differences.



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## Dynamic programming

- Consider two speech patterns expressed as a sequence of feature vectors :

$$A = a_1, a_2, \dots, a_i, \dots, a_I$$

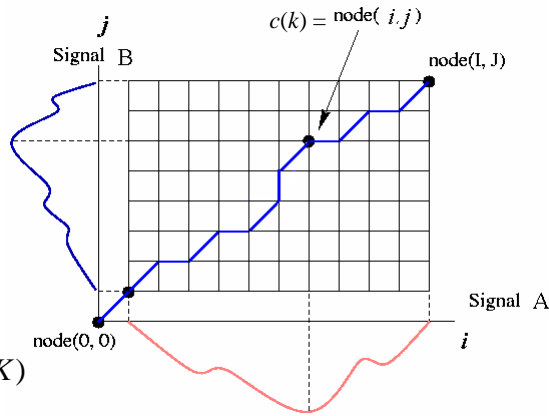
$$B = b_1, b_2, \dots, b_j, \dots, b_J$$

- Consider an  $i$ - $j$  plane, then time differences can be depicted by a sequence of points  $c = (i, j)$ :

where

$$F = c(1), c(2), \dots, c(k), \dots, c(K)$$

$$c(k) = (i(k), j(k))$$



## Dynamic programming (cont'd)

- The sequence  $c$  is called a **warping function**.
- A distance btw two feature vectors is
 
$$d(c) = d(i, j) = \|a_i - b_j\|$$
- The weighted summation of distances on warping function  $F$  becomes
 
$$E(F) = \sum_{k=1}^K d(c(k)) \cdot w(k)$$
- The time-normalized distance btw  $A$  and  $B$  is defined as the minimum residual distance btw them

$$D(A, B) = \min \left[ \frac{\sum_{k=1}^K d(c(k)) \cdot w(k)}{\sum_{k=1}^K w(k)} \right]$$



## Restrictions on warping function

- Warping function  $F$  (or points  $c(k)$ ), as a model of time-axis fluctuation in speech, has restrictions:

1) Monotonic conditions :

$$i(k-1) \leq i(k) \text{ and } j(k-1) \leq j(k)$$

2) Continuity conditions :

$$i(k) - i(k-1) \leq 1 \text{ and } j(k) - j(k-1) \leq 1$$

3) Boundary conditions :

$$i(1) = 1, j(1) = 1 \text{ and } i(K) = I, j(K) = J.$$

4) Adjustment window condition

$$|i(k) - j(k)| \leq r$$

5) Slope constraint condition :

A gradient should be neither too steep nor too gentle.



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## The simplest DP of symmetric form

- Step 1: Initialisation:

$$g(1, 1) = 2d(1, 1)$$

- Step 2: Iteration (DP equation):

$$g(i, j) = \min \begin{bmatrix} g(i, j-1) + d(i, j) \\ g(i-1, j-1) + 2d(i, j) \\ g(i-1, j) + d(i, j) \end{bmatrix}$$

Adjustment window:

$$j - r \leq i \leq j + r$$

- Step 3: Termination:

Time-normalised distance

$$D(A, B) = \frac{1}{N} g(I, J), \text{ where } N = I + J$$



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## From template to statistical method

- The template method with DP alignment is a simplified, **non-parametric method** which is hard to characterise the **variation** among utterances
- Hidden Markov model (HMM) is a powerful **statistical method** of characterising the observed data samples of a discrete-time series
- The underlying assumption of the HMM is
  - The speech signal can be well characterised as a parametric random process
  - The parameters of the stochastic process can be estimated in a precise, well-defined manner



## Part IV: Hidden Markov model

- Introduction
- Speech signal representation
- Template based approach – DTW
- Statistical model based approach – HMM
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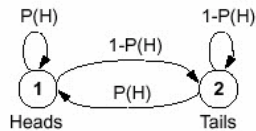


## “Hidden” Markov model

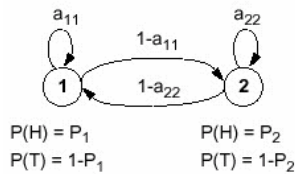
Consider the problem of predicting the outcome of a coin toss experiment.  
You observe the following sequence:

$$\bar{O} = (HHTTTHTTH...H)$$

What is a reasonable model of the system?



1-Coin Model  
(Observable Markov Model)  
O = H H T T H T H H T T H ...  
S = 1 1 2 2 1 2 1 1 2 2 1 ...



2-Coins Model  
(Hidden Markov Model)  
O = H H T T H T H H T T H ...  
S = 2 1 1 2 2 2 1 2 2 1 2 ...



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## The Urn-and-Ball model

The Urn-and-Ball Model doubly stochastic systems



P(red) =  $b_1(1)$   
P(green) =  $b_1(2)$   
P(blue) =  $b_1(3)$   
P(yellow) =  $b_1(4)$   
...



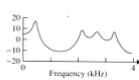
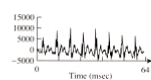
P(red) =  $b_2(1)$   
P(green) =  $b_2(2)$   
P(blue) =  $b_2(3)$   
P(yellow) =  $b_2(4)$   
...



P(red) =  $b_3(1)$   
P(green) =  $b_3(2)$   
P(blue) =  $b_3(3)$   
P(yellow) =  $b_3(4)$   
...

$$\bar{O} = \{\text{green, blue, green, yellow, red, ..., blue}\}$$

How can we determine the appropriate model for the observation sequence given the system above?



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## Elements of a discrete HMM

- **$N$** : the number of states
  - states,  $s = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N\}$
  - state at time  $t$ ,  $q_t \in s$
- **$M$** : the number of observation symbols
  - observation symbols,  $v = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_M\}$
  - observation at time  $t$ ,  $o_t \in v$
- **$A = \{a_{ij}\}$** : state transition probability distribution
  - $a_{ij} = P(q_{t+1} = s_j | q_t = s_i), 1 \leq i, j \leq N$
- **$B = \{b_j(k)\}$** : observation probability distribution in state  $j$ 
  - $b_j(k) = P(O_t = v_k | q_t = s_j), 1 \leq j \leq N, 1 \leq k \leq M$
- $\pi = \{\pi_i\}$  : initial state distribution
- For convenience, we use **the notation**:  $\lambda = (A, B, \pi)$



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## Three basic HMM problems

- **Scoring**: Given an observation sequence  $\mathbf{O} = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_T\}$  and a model  $\lambda = \{A, B, \pi\}$ , how to compute  $P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)$ , the probability of the observation sequence? → **The Forward-Backward Algorithm**
- **Matching**: Given an observation sequence  $\mathbf{O} = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_T\}$  and the model  $\lambda$ , how to choose a state sequence  $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_T\}$  which is optimum in some sense? → **The Viterbi Algorithm**
- **Training**: How to adjust the model parameters  $\lambda = \{A, B, \pi\}$  to maximize  $P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)$ ? → **The Baum-Welch Re-estimation Procedures**



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## Problem 1: Scoring

- Given  $\mathbf{O} = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_T\}$  and  $\lambda = \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B}, \pi\}$ , how to compute  $P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)$ , the probability of the observation sequence? (**probability evaluation**)
  - Consider all possible state sequences ( $N^T$ ) of length  $T$ :
 
$$P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda) = \sum_{\text{all } \mathbf{q}} P(\mathbf{O} | \mathbf{q}, \lambda) P(\mathbf{q} | \lambda)$$

$$= \sum_{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_T} \pi_{q_1} b_{q_1}(O_1) a_{q_1 q_2} b_{q_2}(O_2) \dots a_{q_{T-1} q_T} b_{q_T}(O_T)$$
- Calculation required  $\approx 2T \cdot N^T$ 
  - For  $N=5, T=100$ ,  $2 \cdot 100 \cdot 5^{100} \approx 10^{72}$  computations!



## The forward algorithm

- Consider the forward variable  $\alpha_t(i)$  defined as
 
$$\alpha_t(i) = P(o_1 o_2 \dots o_t, q_t = i | \lambda)$$
 i.e., the probability of the partial observation sequence until time  $t$  and state  $i$  at time  $t$ , given the model  $\lambda$
- We can solve for  $\alpha_t(i)$  inductively as follows:
  1. Initialisation  $\alpha_1(i) = \pi_i b_i(o_1)$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq N$
  2. Induction  $\alpha_{t+1}(j) = \left[ \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_t(i) a_{ij} \right] b_j(o_{t+1})$ ,  $1 \leq t \leq T-1$   
 $1 \leq j \leq N$
  3. Termination  $P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_T(i)$
- Calculation  $\approx N^2 \cdot T$ . For  $N=5, T=100$ , 2500, instead of  $10^{72}$



## Illustration of forward algorithm

(Rabiner, 1989)

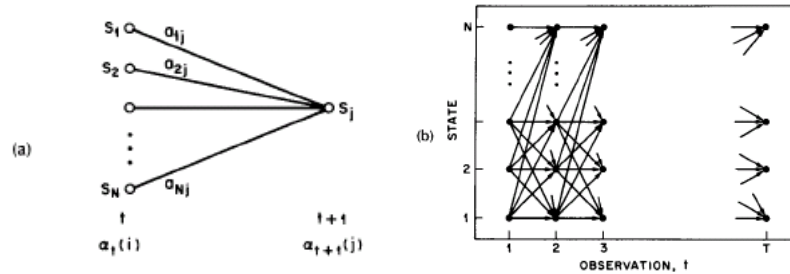


Fig. 4. (a) Illustration of the sequence of operations required for the computation of the forward variable  $\alpha_{t+1}(j)$ . (b) Implementation of the computation of  $\alpha_t(i)$  in terms of a lattice of observations  $t$ , and states  $i$ .



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## The backward algorithm

- Similarly, consider the backward variable  $\beta_t(i)$  defined as  $\beta_t(i) = P(o_{t+1}o_{t+2}\dots o_T | q_t = i, \lambda)$

i.e., the probability of the partial observation sequence from time  $t+1$  to the end, given state  $i$  at time  $t$  and model  $\lambda$

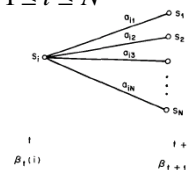
- We can solve for  $\beta_t(i)$  inductively as follows:

1. Initialisation  $\beta_T(i) = 1, \quad 1 \leq i \leq N$

2. Induction  $\beta_t(i) = \sum_{j=1}^N a_{ij} b_j(o_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j), \quad t = T-1, T-2, \dots, 1$   
 $1 \leq i \leq N$

3. Termination  $P(O | \lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i b_i(o_1) \beta_1(i)$

- Again, calculation  $\approx N^2 \cdot T$ .



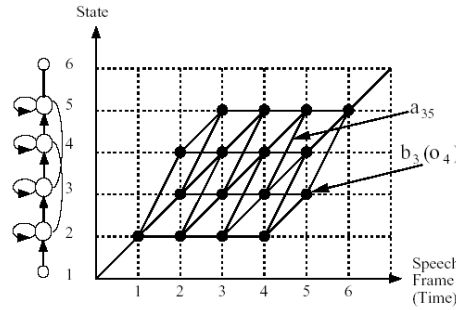
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Fig. 5. Illustration of the sequence of operations required for the computation of the backward variable  $\beta_t(i)$ .



## Problem 2: Matching

- Given  $\mathbf{O} = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_T\}$ , how to choose a state sequence  $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_T\}$  which is **optimum in some sense**? (“Optimal” state sequence)



Trellis diagram for an Isolated Word Recognition task.



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## Finding optimal state sequence

- One optimality criterion is to choose the states  $q_i$  that are **individually** most likely at each time  $t$ 
  - Define the probability of being in state  $i$  at time  $t$ , given the observation sequence  $O$ , and the model  $\lambda$

$$\gamma_t(i) = P(q_t = i | O, \lambda) = \frac{P(O, q_t = i | \lambda)}{P(O | \lambda)} = \frac{P(O, q_t = i | \lambda)}{\sum_{i=1}^N P(O, q_t = i | \lambda)}$$

$$\text{Since } P(O, q_t = i | \lambda) = \alpha_t(i) \beta_t(i)$$

$$\text{We have } \gamma_t(i) = \frac{\alpha_t(i) \beta_t(i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_t(i) \beta_t(i)}$$

- The individually most likely state  $q_t^*$  at time  $t$  is
 
$$q_t^* = \arg \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\gamma_t(i)]$$



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## Finding optimal state sequence (cont'd)

- The **individual** optimality criterion has the problem that the optimum state sequence may not obey state transition constraints → The “optimal” state sequence may not even be a valid sequence ( $a_{ij}=0$  for some  $i$  and  $j$ )
- Another optimality criterion is to find the single best state sequence (path), i.e., to maximize  $P(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{O}|\lambda) \rightarrow$   
The **Viterbi** algorithm – a method based on dynamic programming



## The Viterbi algorithm

- To find the best path  $\mathbf{q} = \{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_T\}$ , for given  $\mathbf{O} = \{o_1, o_2, \dots, o_T\}$ , we define the best score (highest probability) along a single path, at time  $t$ ,

$$\delta_t(i) = \max_{q_1, q_2, \dots, q_{t-1}} P(q_1 q_2 \dots q_{t-1}, q_t = i, o_1 o_2 \dots o_t | \lambda)$$

which accounts for the first  $t$  observations and ends in state  $i$ .

Then 
$$\delta_{t+1}(j) = [\max_i \delta_t(i) a_{ij}] \cdot b_j(o_{t+1})$$



## The Viterbi algorithm (cont'd)

1. Initialisation  $\delta_1(i) = \pi_i b_i(o_1), \quad 1 \leq i \leq N$   
 $\psi_1(i) = 0$
2. Recursion  

$$\delta_t(j) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\delta_{t-1}(i) a_{ij}] b_j(o_t), \quad 2 \leq t \leq T \quad 1 \leq j \leq N$$

$$\psi_t(j) = \arg \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\delta_{t-1}(i) a_{ij}], \quad 2 \leq t \leq T \quad 1 \leq j \leq N$$
3. Termination  

$$P^* = \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\delta_T(i)]$$

$$q_T^* = \arg \max_{1 \leq i \leq N} [\delta_T(i)]$$
4. Path (state sequence) backtracking  

$$q_t^* = \psi_{t+1}(q_{t+1}^*), \quad t = T-1, T-2, \dots, 1$$



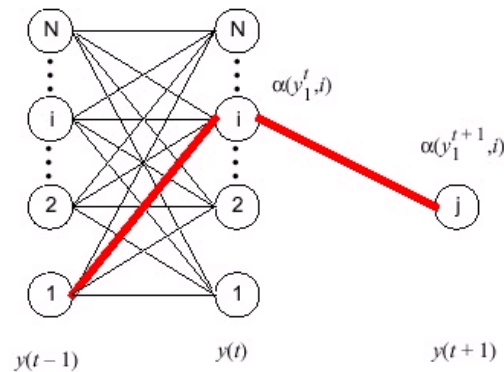
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## The Viterbi algorithm (cont'd)

(Joseph Picone)

The *Viterbi algorithm* can also be used to find the best state sequence. Note that the principal difference is that we model the overall sequence probability by the probability of the single best path:



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## The power of recursive equation

Computing factorials  $n!$

Method 1. simply calculate  $n!$  for each  $n$

Method 2. use  $n! = n(n-1)!$

if  $F(n) = n!$  then

$F(n) = nF(n-1)$  for  $n \geq 1$

(Recursive Equation)



## Problem 3: Training

- How to tune the model parameters  $\lambda = \{A, B, \pi\}$  to maximize  $P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)$ ? - a learning problem
  - No efficient algorithm for global optimisation
  - Effective iterative algorithm for local optimisation: **the Baum-Welch re-estimation**
- **Baum-Welch**
  - = forward-backward algorithm (Baum, 1972)
  - is a special case of **EM** (expectation-maximization) algorithm
  - computes probabilities using current model  $\lambda$ ;
  - refines  $\lambda$  to  $\bar{\lambda}$  such that  $P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)$  is locally maximised
  - uses  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  from forward-backward algorithm



## Baum-Welch re-estimation

Define  $\xi_t(i, j)$ , the probability of being in state  $i$  at time  $t$ , and state  $j$  at time  $t+1$ , given  $\lambda$  and  $\mathbf{O}$ , i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\xi_t(i, j) &= P(q_t = i, q_{t+1} = j | \mathbf{O}, \lambda) \\ &= \frac{P(q_t = i, q_{t+1} = j, \mathbf{O} | \lambda)}{P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha_t(i) a_{ij} b_j(\mathbf{o}_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j)}{P(\mathbf{O} | \lambda)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha_t(i) a_{ij} b_j(\mathbf{o}_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j)}{\sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N \alpha_t(i) a_{ij} b_j(\mathbf{o}_{t+1}) \beta_{t+1}(j)}\end{aligned}$$

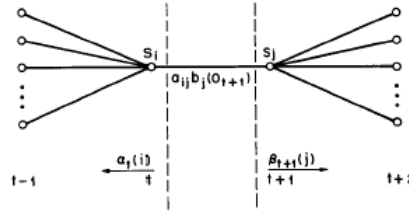


Fig. 6. Illustration of the sequence of operations required for the computation of the joint event that the system is in state  $S_i$  at time  $t$  and state  $S_j$  at time  $t+1$ .



## Baum-Welch Re-estimation (cont'd)

- Recall that  $\gamma_t(i)$  is defined as the probability of being in state  $i$  at time  $t$ , given the entire observation sequence and the model, so

$$\gamma_t(i) = P(q_t = i | \mathbf{O}, \lambda) = \sum_{j=1}^N P(q_t = i, q_{t+1} = j | \mathbf{O}, \lambda) = \sum_{j=1}^N \xi_t(i, j)$$

- Sum  $\gamma_t(i)$  and  $\xi_t(i, j)$  over  $t$ , we have

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \gamma_t(i) = \text{expected number of transitions from state } i \text{ in } \mathbf{O}$$

$$\left( \sum_{t=1}^T \gamma_t(i) = \text{the expected number of times that state } i \text{ is visited.} \right)$$

$$\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_t(i, j) = \text{expected number of transitions from state } i \text{ to state } j \text{ in } \mathbf{O}$$



## Baum-Welch re-estimation formulas

$\bar{\pi}_i$  = expected frequency (number of times) in state  $i$

at time  $(t = 1) = \gamma_1(i)$

$\bar{a}_{ij}$  =  $\frac{\text{expected number of transitions from state } i \text{ to state } j}{\text{expected number of transitions from state } i}$

$$= \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \xi_t(i, j)}{\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \gamma_t(i)}$$

$\bar{b}_j(k)$  =  $\frac{\text{expected number of times in state } j \text{ and observing symbol } v_k}{\text{expected number of times in state } j}$

$$= \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T \gamma_t(j)}{\sum_{t=1}^T \gamma_t(j)} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T P(O, q_t = i | \lambda) \cdot \delta(o_t, v_k)}{\sum_{t=1}^T P(O, q_t = i | \lambda)} \quad \delta(o_t, v_k) = \begin{cases} 1 & o_t = v_k \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



## Part VI: Variability

- Introduction
- Speech signal representation
- Template based approach – DTW
- Statistical model based approach – HMM
- Variability



## Variability in the speech signal

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- Most noticeable factors that determine accuracy are **variations** in **context**, in **speaker** and in **environment**.
- Speech recogniser can be very accurate for a particular **speaker**, in a particular **language** and **speaking style**, in a particular **environment**, and limited to a particular **task**.
- But it remains a research challenge to build a recogniser that can understand anyone's speech, in any language, on any topic, in any free-flowing style, and in any speaking environment
- **Accuracy** and **robustness** are the ultimate measures for the success of ASR



Multi-Modal User Interaction, II, Zheng-Hua Tan, 2008

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## Variability

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- Context variability
  - It is easy to recognise speech.
  - It is easy to wreck a nice beach.
- Style variability
  - Isolated, continuous, spontaneous
- Speaker variability – human vocal tract
  - Speaker-dependent vs. speaker-independent
  - Speaker-adaptation
- Environmental variability
  - Multistyle training
- Transmission channel variability
  - Error concealment



Multi-Modal User Interaction, II, Zheng-Hua Tan, 2008

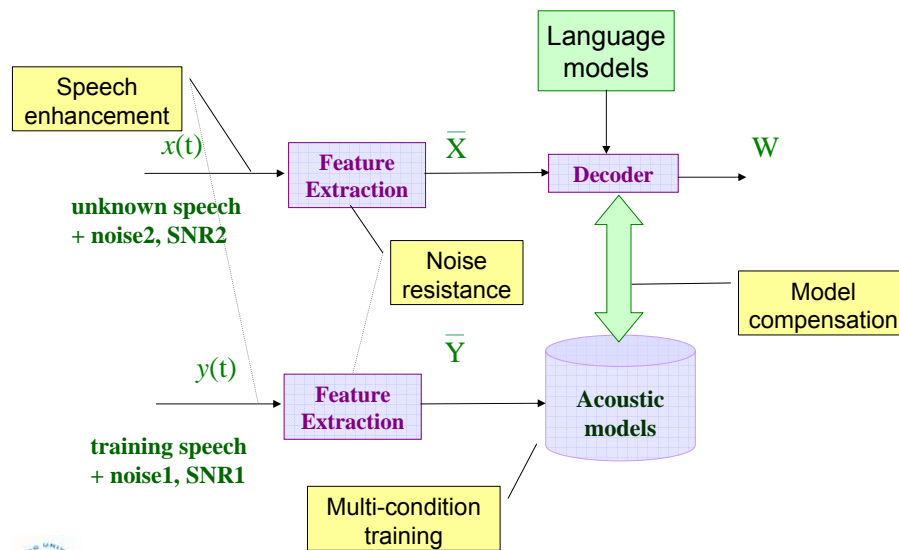
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## Problems with noise

- High-level performance in controlled environments
- Degradation in noisy situations
  - 100% to 30% accuracy in a car with 90km/h
  - 99% to 50% in a cafeteria
- Key issue: mismatch in training and operating environments



## Noise robustness





## Part VI: Summary

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- Introduction
- Speech signal representation
- Template based approach – DTW
- Statistical model based approach – HMM
- Variability

