# 2. Cepstrum alanysis of speech signals 3. Vector space representation of words 

ELEC-E5521 Speech and language processing methods

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- word-word matrix
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## Reading material

1. Cepstrum chapter in John R. Deller, John G. Proakis, and John H. L. Hansen: Discrete-Time Processing of Speech Signals
2. Homomorphic Speech Analysis chapter (5) in L. R. Rabiner and R. W. Schafer: Introduction to Digital Speech Processing (2007).
http://www.ece.ucsb.edu/Faculty/Rabiner/ece259/speech\ course.html
3. Mikolov, Tomas, et al. "Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space." arXivpreprint arXiv:1301.3781 (2013). https://arxiv.org/pdf/1301.3781.pdf
4. Mikolov, Tomas, et al. Distributed representations of words and phrases and their compositionality. Advances in neural information processing systems. 2013. https://papers.nips.cc/paper/5021-distributed-representations-of-words-and-phras es-and-their-compositionality.pdf
5. Baroni, Marco, Georgiana Dinu, and GermánKruszewski. "Don't count, predict! A systematic comparison of context-counting vs. context-predicting semantic vectors." ACL (1). 2014. http://anthology.aclweb.org/P/P14/P14-1023.pdf

## Slides

## 1. Today's lecture

2. Homomorphic Speech Analysis, lecture (12) in L. R. Rabiner's Digital Speech Processing Course (2015)
http://www.ece.ucsb.edu/Faculty/Rabiner/ece259/speech\ course.ht $m l$
3. Word2Vec, ELEC-E5550 - Statistical Natural Language Processing, lecture (3) Tiina Lindh-Knuutila (2020)
4. Distributional approaches to word meanings. Chris Potts, Stanford course. Ling 236/Psych 236c: Representations of meaning, Spring 2013.
https://web.stanford.edu/class/linguist236/materials/ling236-handou t-05-09-vsm.pdf

## Introduction

In linear systems the useful information can easily be separated from additive noise by filtering, if we know in which frequency range each occur. For example:

- $x[\mathrm{n}]=x_{1}[\mathrm{n}]+w[\mathrm{n}]$, where n is index of time
- $x_{l}[\mathrm{n}]$ is the useful signal and $w[\mathrm{n}]$ high frequency noise
- lin. operator I [.] is a low-pass filter
$\mathbf{I}[x[\mathrm{n}]]=\mathbf{I}\left[x_{l}[\mathrm{n}]+w[\mathrm{n}]\right]=\mathbf{I}\left[x_{l}[\mathrm{n}]\right]+\mathbf{I}[w[\mathrm{n}]] \approx x_{l}[\mathrm{n}]$

But this is much harder, if the signal and noise are convoluted (*). For example the source-filter model of speech production:
$\cdot s[\mathrm{n}]=e[\mathrm{n}] * h[\mathrm{n}]$
$\cdot e[\mathrm{n}]$ is the flowing air (source) and $h[\mathrm{n}]$ vocal tract (filter)
$\mathbf{I}[s[\mathrm{n}]]=\mathbf{I}\left[e[\mathrm{n}]^{*} h[\mathrm{n}]\right]$ will not help, so
$\Rightarrow$ We need a new operator that could separate convoluted components!

$$
H[s[\mathrm{n}]]=\boldsymbol{H}[e[\mathrm{n}] * h[\mathrm{n}]]=\boldsymbol{H}[e[\mathrm{n}]]+H[h[\mathrm{n}]]
$$

The complex cepstrum operator transforms convolution into addition.

- Cepstrum was developed to separate convoluted signals: $e[n] * h[n]$
- Fourier: $F\left[e^{*} h\right]=E[k] H[k]$, where $k$ is index of frequency
- $\log [E H]=\log [E]+\log [H]$
- Linear combination may be separated by linear bandpass "filtering" (called liftering in cepstral domain)


## History

- Bogert, Healy, and Tukey, "The quefrency analysis of time series for echoes: Cepstrum, pseudoautocovariance, cross-cepstrum and saphe cracking" In M. Rosenblatt, ed., Proceedings of the Symposium on Time Series Analysisı. J. Wiley \& Sons, pp. 209-243, NY, 1963.
- Tukey = "The FFT man"
- spectrum <-> cepstrum
- "quefrency," "gamnitude," "lifter", "alanysis", "saphe"
- Noll A. M., "Cepstrum pitch determination", JASA (Journal of Acoustical Society of America) vol. 41, pp. 293-309, Feb. 1967.
- Homomorphic signal processing
- Oppenheim $(1967,1969)$
- Shafer (1968)
- Homomorphic $\approx$ "same shape"
- "+" <-> "*" ; "linear domain" <-> "convolution domain"


## Homomorphic System

$H[s[n]]=H[e[n] * h[n]]=H[e[n]]+H[h[n]]$

Typically, used to separate "noise" i.e. impulse $e[\mathrm{n}]$ from system response $h[\mathrm{n}]$ using operator $H$, hoping that:
$H[e[\mathrm{n}]] \approx \delta[\mathrm{n}]$ ja $H[h[\mathrm{n}]] \approx h[\mathrm{n}]$.
Cepstrum operator is not an ideal separator, but can approximate a homomorphic system.

## How to recognize speech sounds?

A simple procedure:
Measure some characteristic features of the signal and train statistical models for them
Good features should be:
1.Compact
2.Discriminative for speech sounds
3.Fast to compute
4.Robust for noise

## Frequency analysis

Calculate the short-time spectrum in short intervals


## Frequency analysis

Calculate the short-time spectrum in short intervals


## Frequency analysis

Calculate the short-time spectrum in short intervals


## Cepstrum

Short-time analysis in frequency scale (vertical direction) MFCC $=$ Mel-Frequency Cepstral Coefficients


## Mel scale

Approximation of human perception of speech
"Divide the frequency scale into perceptually equal intervals":

Linear below 1 kHz , logarithmic above 1 kHz


## Mel-Cepstrum



Fig. 5.7 Weighting functions for Mel-frequency filter bank.

# Computation of MFCC (Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficients) 

Power spectrum
Mel-Scale Filter Bank


Energy from each filter
$e(j) \quad j=1 \cdots \mathrm{~J}$
Log-Energy $\log (\circ)$

Discrete Cosine Transform

Compression \& Decorrelation


## 5 speech samples



Very difficult to recognize speech from this picture...

## Power spectrogram



Speech recognition possible Lot of data

Lot of redundancy
Lot of noise

## Mel spectrogram



Speech recognition maybe easier?

10 x less data
Less redundancy
Less noise

II

## Mel spectrogram



## Mel spectrogram



Mel spectrogram


Mel spectrogram


## Mel spectrogram



## Mel spectrogram



## Mel-frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCC)



## Background noise?





## Background noise?








31
/60

## Background noise?





32
/60

## Background noise?





33
/60

## Background noise?






34
/60

## Background noise?







35
/60

## Background noise?








36
/60

## Background noise?








37

## To classify speech sounds by features?

## Training

1. Extract MFCC from samples of each sound (e.g. phoneme)
2. Train a statistical model (mean and variance)

## Testing

1. Record new samples and extract MFCC
2. Choose the best-matching model to be the class

## Real and complex cepstrum

- Classic: Real Cepstrum (RC)
- symmetric
- Generalization: Complex Cepstrum (CC)
- CC saves the phase information of the signal shape
- Has also an anti-symmetric component
- CC coefficients are still always real


## Definitions

- Real Cepstrum: ( $x[n]$ infinite sequence in time)

$$
\begin{gathered}
c[m]=F^{-1}[\log [|X[k]|]][m]= \\
\quad F^{-1}[\log [|F[x[n]]|]][m]
\end{gathered}
$$

Note that we take the Magnitude spectrum!

- Complex Cepstrum:

$$
\begin{gathered}
y[m]=F^{-1}[\log [X[k]]][m]= \\
F-1[\log [F[x[n]]]][m]
\end{gathered}
$$

## Linear prediction LP

LP-model: G/ $\left(1-a_{1} \mathrm{z}^{-1}-a_{2} \mathrm{z}^{-2} \ldots-a_{p} \mathrm{z}^{-p}\right)=H[z]$

- $x[n]$ causal and minimum phase (impulse response)
$y[0]=c[0]=\log [\mathrm{G}]$ (Markel \& Gray)
LP coefficients can be transformed to cepstral coefficients by:
$y[0]=\log [\mathrm{G}], y[1]=a[1]$,
$y[\mathbf{m}]=a[\mathbf{m}]+\sum_{\mathrm{t}=1, \mathrm{~m}-1}[(t / \mathbf{m}) y[t] a[\mathbf{m}-t]]$
$1<\mathrm{m} \leq p$, where $a[\mathrm{~m}]$ is m's LP coefficient
Real cepstrum $\mathrm{c}[\mathrm{m}]$ can be computed from $y[\mathrm{~m}]$ : $c[0]=y[0], \mathrm{c}[\mathrm{m}]=\mathrm{y}[\mathrm{m}] / 2,0<\mathrm{m} \leq p$


## Intuition

-Source-Filter Theory: X(w) = S(w) H(w)
$\cdot$ Real cepstrum: $\log [|\mathrm{X}(\mathrm{w})|]=\log [|\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{w})|]+\log [|\mathrm{H}(\mathrm{w})|]$
-The effects of source and filter in logarithmic spectrum are additive $=>$ can be separated by linear transformation, if they occur at different bands
-Voiced source produces a comb structure (fast variation in frequency), filter adjusts its envelope (slow variation in frequency)
-Fast and slow variations in frequency can be separated by a new Fourier transform (IFT)!


Fig. 5.5 Short-time cepstra and corresponding STFTs and homomorphically-smoothed spectra.


Short-Time Cepstra


Fig. 5.6 Short-time cepstra and corresponding STFTs and homomorphically-smoothed spectra.



## Delta cepstrum

Speech is dynamic, one way to capture that is taking the time derivatives of the short-time cepstrum
-First derivative $=$ delta cepstrum
-Second derivative $=$ delta-delta cepstrum
-The simplest way of computing the derivative is just the difference of two neighboring cepstral vectors: $\mathrm{c}[\mathrm{t}]-\mathrm{c}[\mathrm{t}-1]$
$\cdot$ The simple difference is very noisy, rather make a least-squares approximation to the local slope (smoothed difference including several neighbors with suitable weights)

## Exercise, DL 22 April, 2022

1. Compute a cepstrum of a vowel segment and detect the formants
2. Compute the cepstrum from the LPC coefficients and compare it to the cepstral transformation
3. Compute the cepstrum of vowel /a/ and /i/ segments and classify the frames in the segments by using the distance between the cepstra
4. Compute the cepstrum of $/ \mathrm{a} /, / \mathrm{m} /, / \mathrm{k} /$ and $/ \mathrm{s} /$ segments and recognize the phonemes by using the distance to phoneme templates based on A. average of all frames and B. center frame.

See MyCourses for details and guiding.
3. Vector space representation of words

- why to represent words as vectors?
- how to do it?


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Word2vec

- meaning of words
- statistical semantics
- word-document matrix
- word-word matrix
- distributed semantics


## The meaning of words?

- "The complete meaning of a word is always contextual, and no study of meaning apart from context can be taken seriously." (Firth, 1939)
- "If we consider words A and B to be more different than A and C, then we will often find that the distributions of A and B are more different than the distributions of $A$ and $C$. In other words, difference in meaning correlates with difference in distribution." (Harris, 1954)
- "You shall know the word by the company it keeps" (Firth, 1957)


## Statistical semantics

Statistical semantics hypothesis: Statistical patterns of human word usage can be used to figure out what people mean (Weaver, 1955; Furnas et al., 1983).
Bag of words hypothesis: The frequencies of words in a document tend to indicate the relevance of the document to a query (Salton et al., 1975).
Distributional hypothesis: Words that occur in similar contexts tend to have similar meanings (Harris, 1954; Firth, 1957; Deerwester et al., 1990).
Latent relation hypothesis: Pairs of words that co-occur in similar patterns tend to have similar semantic relations (Turney et al., 2003).

## Representing documents in a matrix

|  | d1 | d2 | d3 | d4 | d5 | d6 | d7 | d8 | d9 | d10 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| against | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 0 |
| age | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| agent | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ages | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ago | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 |
| agree | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ahead | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| ain't | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| air | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| aka | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

"Very sparse. Each column is a bag-of-words representation of a document. In Web search: after suitable re-weighting, the documents (columns) can be ranked according to their match for a given query (set of rows)."

An example (Potts, 2013)

## Representing words in a matrix

|  | against | age agent | ages | ago agree ahead ain.t |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | air | aka | al |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| against | 2003 | 90 | 39 | 20 | 88 | 57 | 33 | 15 | 58 | 22 | 24 |  |  |  |  |
| age | 90 | 1492 | 14 | 39 | 71 | 38 | 12 | 4 | 18 | 4 | 39 |  |  |  |  |
| agent | 39 | 14 | 507 | 2 | 21 | 5 | 10 | 3 | 9 | 8 | 25 |  |  |  |  |
| ages | 20 | 39 | 2 | 290 | 32 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 6 | 1 | 6 |  |  |  |  |
| ago | 88 | 71 | 21 | 32 | 1164 | 37 | 25 | 11 | 34 | 11 | 38 |  |  |  |  |
| agree | 57 | 38 | 5 | 5 | 37 | 627 | 12 | 2 | 16 | 19 | 14 |  |  |  |  |
| ahead | 33 | 12 | 10 | 4 | 25 | 12 | 429 | 4 | 12 | 10 | 7 |  |  |  |  |
| ain't | 15 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 11 | 2 | 4 | 166 | 0 | 3 | 3 |  |  |  |  |
| air | 58 | 18 | 9 | 6 | 34 | 16 | 12 | 0 | 746 | 5 | 11 |  |  |  |  |
| aka | 22 | 4 | 8 | 1 | 11 | 19 | 10 | 3 | 5 | 261 | 9 |  |  |  |  |
| al | 24 | 39 | 25 | 6 | 38 | 14 | 7 | 3 | 11 | 9 | 861 |  |  |  |  |

More dense. Cooccurrences of words in a specified window of text. For example, in the same document, in the same sentence, or next to each other (in any order)

An example (Potts, 2013)

## Modifying the vector spaces

The basic matrix formulation offers lots of variations:

- window sizes
- word weighting, normalization, thresholding, removing stopwords
- stemming, lemmatizing, clustering, classification, sampling
- distance measures
- dimensionality reduction methods
- neural networks


## Projecting words to vectors, in practise:

 2 initialization methods:1. "one-hot" vectors:
[0 ... $0001100 \ldots 0$ ]
every word in the vocabulary has its own dimension
orthogonal mapping
very high dimensional
very sparse
2. random vectors:
several floats or binary
low dimensionality (e.g. 100)
approximately orthogonal
less sparse

## Projecting words to vectors, in practise:

2 ways to define distributed semantical representations:

1. "context vectors"

First compute a word-word matrix from a large text corpus
Then compute new word vectors by summing the columns, i.e. those words that appeared near them, and normalizing again
2. "word2vec"

First train a deep neural network from a large training data to perform a specific task (e.g. to predict a word given its context)
Then map the words into the first hidden layer, so-called "projection layer" and use its outputs as the word vectors

## Tools

Gensim, Matlab, R, Python NLTK, MALLET, FACTORIE, word2vec, torch, tensor flow, and many more...

## References

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## Exercise, DL 22 April, 2022

1. Prepare text data, define the vocabulary and list word pairs that occur near each other
2. Train a neural network to predict the first word in each word pair given the context (the other word)
3. Take the hidden layer weights as your word embedding and test that it maps related words near each other in this vector space
4. Modify your system to see if you can improve the system
5. Compare your system to a reference word2vec system (train it with the same data) and a bag-of-words model
See MyCourses for details and guiding.
