


malized grey-value images. Experiments with 2D-FFT images are still in progress. In our initial 2D-FFT simulations we come to visual recognition errors, which are on average about 8% higher than the grey-level coding recognition errors.

We also took a closer look to the dynamic behavior of the entropy-weights. Figure 3 shows the weights from the acoustic and visual TDNN to the combined layer over time during the letter sequence M-I-E was spoken. The upper dots represent the acoustic weight A and the lower dots the visual weight V, where

\[ A = 0.5 + \frac{\text{entropy(Visual-TDNN)} - \text{entropy(Acoustic-TDNN)}}{2K} \]

and

\[ V = 1.0 - A. \]

Big white dots represent weights close to 1.0 and big black dots weights close to 0.0. K is the maximum entropy difference in the training set. At the end of the /m/-phoneme when the lips are closed, V is higher than A. Obviously there the visual hypotheses are more certain than the acoustic ones. During the /ie/-phoneme the acoustic hypotheses are more certain than the visual ones, which also makes sense.

VI. OTHER APPROACHES

The interest in automated speechreading (or lipreading) is growing recently. As a non-connectionist approach the work of Petajan et al. [9] should be mentioned. Yuhas et al. [15] did use a neural network for vowel recognition, working on static images. Stork et al. [13] used a conventional TDNN (without DTW) for speechreading. They limited the task to recognize 10 isolated letters and used artificial markers on the lips. No visual feature extraction was integrated into their model.

Also of interest are some psychological studies about human speechreading and their approach to describe the human performance. This measurements could also be applied to the performance analysis of automated speechreading systems. Dodd and Campbell [3], and Demorest and Bernstein [2] did some valuable work in this area.

VII. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

We have shown how a state-of-the-art speech recognition system can be improved by considering additional visual information for the recognition process. This is true for optimal recording conditions but even more for non-optimal recording conditions as they usually exist in real world applications. Experiments were performed on the connected letter recognition task, but similar results can be expected for continuous speech recognition as well.

Work is in progress to integrate not only the time independent weight sharing but also position independent weight sharing for the visual TDNN, in order to locate and track the lips. We are also on the way to largely increase our database in order to achieve better recognition rates and to train speaker independently. Investigations of different approaches are still in progress in order to combine visual and acoustic features and to apply different preprocessing to the visual data.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We appreciate the help from the DEC on campus research center (CEC) for the initial data acquisition. This research is sponsored in part by the Land Baden Württemberg (Landesschwerpunktprogramm Neuroinformatik), and the National Science Foundation.

REFERENCES


In a MS-TDNN the hierarchy continues above the phone-state layer with the Multi-State (MS) units [17] or better the DTW layer and word layer. In the forward pass of the network the DTW layer performs the Dynamic Time Warping algorithm [8] with the phoneme hypotheses as input to find the optimal path for the word models (German alphabet). The activations of the phone-state units along the optimal paths are accumulated in the word layer. The word unit with the highest score represents the recognized letter. In a second learning phase (after the TDNN bootstrapping) the networks are trained to fit word targets. The error derivatives are backpropagated from the word units through the best path in the DTW layer down to the front-end TDNNs, ensuring that the network is optimized for the actual evaluation task, which is letter and not phoneme recognition. As before, the acoustic and visual subnets are trained individually.

In the final “combined mode” of the recognizer, a combined phone-state layer is included between the front-end TDNNs and the DTW layer. The activation of each combined phone-state unit is the weighted sum of the regarding acoustic phone-state unit and visual phone-state unit. We call these weights “entropy-weights”, because their values are proportional to the relative entropy between all acoustic phone-state activations and all visual phone-state activations. Hypotheses with higher uncertainty (higher entropy) are weighted lower than hypotheses with lower uncertainty.

IV. PHONEME AND VISEME CODING

For the acoustic classification we use a set of 65 phoneme-states (phoneme-to-phoneme transition states included). They represent a reasonable choice of smallest acoustic distinguishable units in German speech, and the TDNN architecture is very well suited to be trained as a classifier for them.

For visual features this will be different. Distinct sounds are generated by distinct vocal tract positions, and voiced/unvoiced excitations. External features of the vocal tract like the lips, part of the tongue and teeth, contribute only in part to the sound generation. I.e. /b/ and /p/ are generated by similar lip-movements, and cannot be distinguished with pure visual information. Training a TDNN to classify /b/ and /p/ based only on visual information would lead to recognition rates not better than guessing, or the net perhaps would get sensitive for features which are uncorrelated to the produced speech. This leads to the design of a smaller set of visual distinguishable units in speech, so called “visemes”. We investigate a new set of 42 visemes and a 1-to-n mapping from the viseme set to the phoneme set. The mapping is necessary for the combined layer, in order to calculate the combined acoustic and visual hypotheses for the DTW layer. For example the hypotheses for /b/ and /p/ are built out of the same viseme /b_or_p/ but the different phonemes /b/ and /p/ respectively.

V. EXPERIMENTS

Our database consists of 114 and 350 letter sequences spelled by two male speakers. They consist of names and random sequences. The first data set was split into 75 training and 39 test sequences (speaker msm). The second data set was split into 200 training and 150 test sequences (speaker mcb).

Best results were achieved with 15 hidden units in the acoustic subnet and 7 hidden units in the visual subnet. Obviously visual speech data contains less information than acoustic data. Therefore better generalization was achieved with as little as 7 hidden units.

Backpropagation was applied with a learning rate of 0.05 and momentum of 0.5. We applied different error functions to compute the error derivatives. For bootstrapping the McClelland error measure was applied, and for the global training on letter targets the Classification Figure of Merit [16] was applied.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Acoustic</th>
<th>Visual</th>
<th>Combined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>msm/clean</td>
<td>88.8%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>93.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>msm/noisy</td>
<td>47.2%</td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>75.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mcb/clean</td>
<td>97.0%</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
<td>97.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mcb/noisy</td>
<td>59.0%</td>
<td>46.9%</td>
<td>69.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Results in word accuracy (words correct minus insertion and deletion errors)

Table 1 summarizes the recognition performance results on the sentence level. Errors are misclassified words, insertion, and deletion errors. For speaker “msm”, we get an error reduction on clean data from 11.2% (acoustic only) down to 6.8% with additional visual data. With noise added to the acoustic data, the error rate was 52.8%, and could be reduced down to 24.4% with lipreading, which means an error reduction to less than half of the pure acoustic recognition. For speaker “mcb”, we could not get the same error reduction. Obviously the pronunciation of speaker “mcb” was better, but doing that, he was not moving his lips so much.

It also should be noted that in the pure visual recognition a lot of the errors are caused by insertion and deletion errors. When we presented the letters with known boundaries, we came to visual recognition rates of up to 50.2%. The results of table 1 were achieved with histogram-nor-
reported that necessary techniques like edge detection are automatically learned by multi-layer perceptrons [10].

We apply two alternative preprocessing techniques: Histogram normalized grey-value coding, or 2 dimensional Fourier transformation. In both cases we just consider an area of interest (AOI) centered around the lips, and low pass filter these AOIs. The AOIs were initially segmented by hand, but an automatic procedure is now also available [11].

Grey-Value coding: We found that a 24x16 pixel resolution is enough to recognize lip shapes and movements (Figure 1). Each of these AOI pixels is the average grey-value of a small square in the original image (low pass filter). The grey-levels are rescaled in such a way that the darkest/brightest 5% in the histogram are coded with -1.0/1.0. The remaining 90% are scaled linear between -1.0 and 1.0.

2D-FFT: The AOI is rescaled to a 64x64 pixel image so that the 2 dimensional FFT results also with 64x64 coefficients. We just consider the log magnitudes of the first 13x13 FFT coefficients and rescale them to [-1.0, 1.0]. (After multiplying the complex FFT space with a 13x13 window and applying the inverse FFT, we could still recognize in the resulting low passed original image the distinct lip shapes and movements.) The motivation for considering the FFT is, that this coding is spatial shift invariant. It makes the recognition more stable against inaccurate AOI positioning.

III. THE MODULAR MS-TDNN ARCHITECTURE

Time Delay Neural Networks are very well suited for low-level phoneme classification [14]. Because they act as general time-shift invariant feature extractors they are not limited to acoustic speech input only. In our case we want to process image sequences as well. The extracted visual features of the lips change over time in a similar manner like the acoustic speech signal, so we use for the visual classification a similar TDNN architecture. Figure 2 shows the architecture. The preprocessed acoustic and visual data are fed into two front-end TDNNs [14], respectively. Each TDNN consists of an input layer, one hidden layer and the phone-state layer. Backpropagation was applied to train the networks in a bootstrapping phase, to fit phoneme targets.

Figure 1: Typical AOIs

Figure 2: Neural Network Architecture

1. We don’t want to hide the fact, that the complex task of finding and tracking the lips is very critical to the success of our recognizer. The Real Time Face Tracking System we are using right now is a template matching based approach and also used in a wider context of multi-modal human computer interface research, were tracking other parts of the face like for example the eyes is involved as well. Work is in progress to solve this problem with the connectionist architecture as well.
BIMODAL SENSOR INTEGRATION ON THE EXAMPLE OF “SPEECH-READING”

Christoph Bregler*, Stefan Manke
University of Karlsruhe
Department of Computer Science
Am Fasanengarten 5
7500 Karlsruhe 1
Germany
bregler@icsi.berkeley.edu, manke@ira.uka.de

Hermann Hild, Alex Waibel
Carnegie Mellon University
School of Computer Science
Pittsburgh
Pennsylvania 15213
U.S.A.
hhild@cs.cmu.edu, ahw@cs.cmu.edu

* The author is now with International Computer Science Institute, 1947 Center Street, Berkeley, CA 94704

Abstract -- In this paper we show how recognition performance in automated speech perception can be significantly improved by additional Lipreading, so called “speech-reading”. We show this on an extension of an existing state-of-the-art speech recognition system, a modular MS-TDNN. The acoustic and visual speech data is preclassified in two separate front-end phoneme TDNNs and combined to acoustic-visual hypotheses for the Dynamic Time Warping algorithm. This is shown on a connected word recognition problem, the notoriously difficult letter spelling task. With speech-reading we could reduce the error rate up to half of the error rate of the pure acoustic recognition.

I. INTRODUCTION

Recent development in the design of human computer interfaces (HCI) requests a new field of research: Multi-Modal Recognition. There are strong research efforts in all kind of alternative computer input methods on the way, like speech input, or visual input, but usually all different recognition methods are treated separately. When it comes to real-world-applications, single recognition methods have poor recognition performance or are limited to very small domains. Besides considering a lot of background knowledge, humans come to much better recognition performance in combining or substituting the different input sources itself in a flexible way. In speech recognition the main source is the acoustic signal, but if the signal is of low quality or ambiguous, visual information, i.e. lipmovements can contribute to the recognition process as well. In fact this is a well studied phenomena in human psychology often called “speech-reading”. Research with hearing impaired people and also normal hearing people has shown, that lipreading is subconsciously involved into human perception in a significant manner [3].

We investigate this phenomena on a state-of-the-art speech recognition architecture, a so called Multi State Time-Delay Neural Network (MS-TDNN [6]). We extended the architecture in a way, that besides the acoustic speech signals also visual signals (i.e. lipmovements) are integrated in the learning and recognition process. A speaker is set in front of a microphone and a camera, spelling German names and random letter sequences. The spelling task is seen as a connected word recognition problem. As words we take the highly ambiguous 26 German letters. We do not care about high quality recordings, we even degrade the acoustic signal with artificial noise to simulate real-world conditions. The camera covers the full face, but as network input we just consider an area of interest (AOI) centered around the lips. We show how recognition performance with additional visual input further improves over acoustic recognition only.

II. ACOUSTIC AND VISUAL INPUT REPRESENTATION

Our bimodal input devices are a microphone and a conventional NTSC camera. The acoustic signal is sampled with a 16KHz rate and 12 bit accuracy. Every 10ms we compute 16 Mel-scale Fourier coefficients on the Hamming Windowed speech samples as input for the later classifier.

Due to the NTSC standard, the video images are sampled with a much lower frequency. We digitize roughly every 33 ms a 256x256 pixel area covering the face of the speaker. We use 8bit gray-value coding for each pixel. Also timestamps were saved, because the correct synchronization between audio and video signals is critical for the later classification.

In vision there does not exist such a well established body of preprocessing techniques like in speech recognition. Basically preprocessing for connectionist vision is split in two different “schools of believes”: 1. Apply as much as possible preprocessing in a manner, that just some few characteristic features are fed into the classifier. 2. Apply only transformations with very little information reduction and let the learning scheme find out the characteristic features. Edge detection would be an example for the first case and 2D-FFT for the second case.

We follow the second approach, because we believe that conventional image processing techniques may cut out in an early stage important features, which could be useful for the later global learning scheme. In fact it has been