

Speaker Recognition System and its Forensic Implications

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Abstract

Speaker recognition is the process of automatically recognizing the unknown speaker by extracting the speaker specific information included in his/her speech wave. This paper will help the readers to understand the need of this speaker recognition technique in a much better way. It outlines the basic concepts of speaker recognition along with its diverse applications. It also presents an idea of selecting a robust parameter for the purpose of identification to attain the accurate results, limitations faced and the recent built up advances for identification, so as to provide a technological perspective in this important area of speaker recognition.

Keywords: Forensic science; Speaker; Recognition; Identification; Verification; Voice; Speech

Introduction

Speaker recognition comprises all those activities which attempt to link a speech sample to its speaker through its acoustic or perceptual properties [1]. Speech signal is a multidimensional acoustic wave (Figure 1), which provides information regarding speaker characteristics, spoken phrase, speaker emotions, additional noise, channel transformations etc [2,3]. The human voice is unique personal trait. For indistinguishable voice, the two individuals should have the identical vocal mechanism and identical coordination of their articulators, which is least probable. However, the some amount variations also occur in the speech exemplars obtained from the same speaker. This is due to the fact that a speaker cannot exactly imitate the same utterance again and again. Even, the signature of an individual also shows variation from trails to trials.

The process of Speaker recognition has two broad application areas, explicitly, Speaker identification and Speaker verification. Speaker identification deals with identifying a speaker of a given utterance amongst a set of known speakers. The unknown speaker is identified as the speaker whose model best matches the input utterance (Figure 2).

There are two modes of operation related to known voices: closed set and open set. The closed set mode is considered as multiple class classification modes. Such system assumes that the voice which has to be determined or identified belongs to a set of known voices. While in open set the speaker which do not belong to a set of known speakers, is referred as an imposter. This task can be used for forensic purposes, in which an offender's is used to reveal his or her identity, among several known suspects.

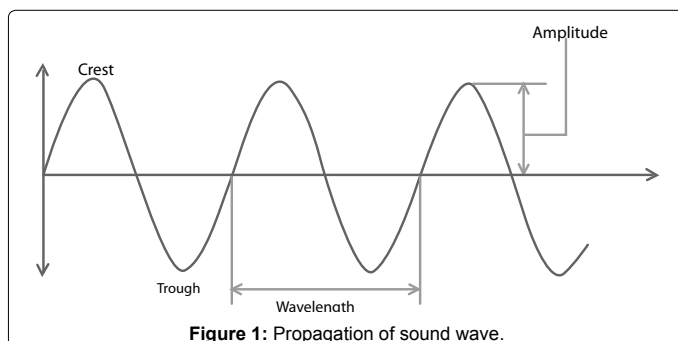


Figure 1: Propagation of sound wave.

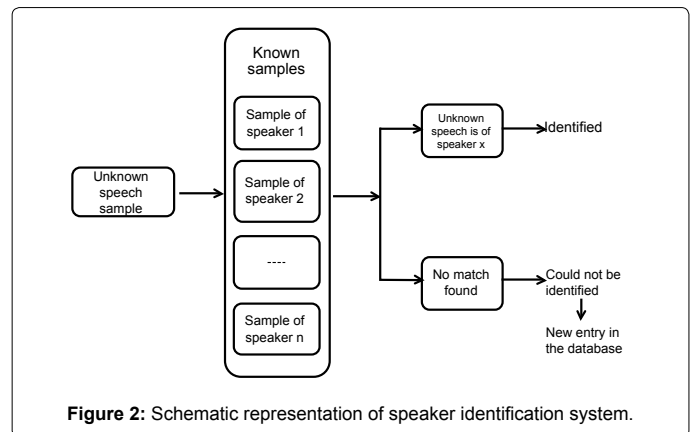


Figure 2: Schematic representation of speaker identification system.

In contrast, Speaker verification is a more direct and converged effort leading to either acceptance or rejection of the claimed identity of a speaker. To be precise, this investigation reveals whether a speaker is the one who he claims to be (Figure 3) [4-6]. It can be considered as a true-or-false binary decision problem. It is sometimes referred to as the open-set problem, because this task requires distinguishing a claimed speaker's voice known to the system from a potentially large group of voices unknown to the system. Today verification is the basis for most speaker recognition applications and the most commercially feasible task.

Significance of Speaker Recognition

Security or access control

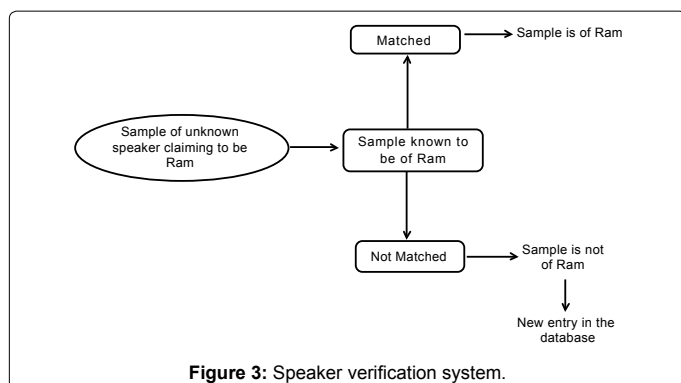
The voice of a person can be successfully used as a biometric feature as it is well accepted by the users and can be easily recorded using microphones and hardware of low costs [7]. It can provide an

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unconventional and more secure means of permitting entry without any need of remembering a password, lock combination etc or the use of keys, magnetic card or any other fallible device which can be easily stolen [8,9].

Although the voice of a person cannot be stolen but it can be copied using some recording devices. Therefore, the voice-based security systems must protect themselves against such flaws. The other concern is voice disguise. An imposter can gain illicit entry by disguising or imitating the voice of a genuine speaker, to access this personal data. Similarly, a valid person may be denied the entry because of some accidental changes in his or her voice due to illness, emotional or physical stress etc.

Forensic or law enforcement

Voice of a person can play a vital role in forensic examination. In the present era, widely available facilities of telephones, mobiles and tape recorders results in the misuse of the device and thus, making them an efficient tool in commission of criminal offences such as kidnapping, extortion, blackmail threats, obscene calls, anonymous calls, harassment calls, ransom calls, terrorist calls, match fixing etc. The criminals nowadays are more frequently misusing these modes of communication, believing that they will remain incognito, and nobody would recognize them. It is fortunately no longer true. The voice of an individual can successfully recognize him and pin the crime on him [10].

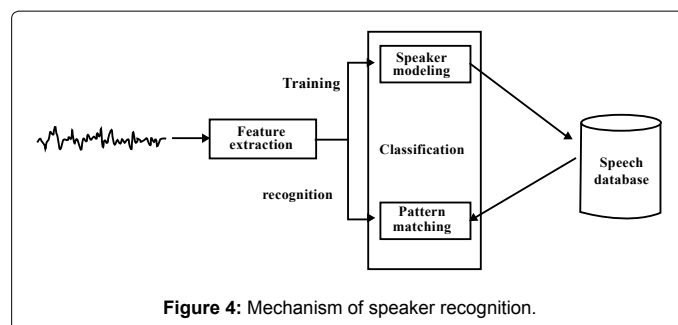
The results obtained through speaker recognition analysis are not easily accepted in the court of law. But with advancements made in this field and with the judges understanding the value of statistical findings, the situation is expected to change in the future [11,12]. But the results in this case also are vulnerable to two types of voice disguise: deliberate and unintentional.

Components of Speaker Recognition

The main components of speaker recognition system are feature extraction and classification. The classification module is further divided into two parts: pattern matching and decision (Figure 4) [13].

Feature extraction

This is the foremost step in the process of speaker recognition. This segment processes the acquired data, i.e., a set of feature vectors or parameters from the speech signal representing some speaker-specific information, which results from complex transformations occurring at different levels of the speech production: semantic, phonologic, phonetic, and acoustic [14-16].



Criteria of feature selection

In a scheme for the mechanical recognition of the speakers, it is desirable to use acoustic parameters that are closely related to voice characteristics that distinguish speakers. It involves selection of those parameters which are motivated by known relations between the voice signal and vocal-tract shapes and gestures. Speaker recognition by and large depends upon both low level and high level information obtained from a person's speech. High level informations include values like dialect, accent, the talking style, the subject manner of context, phonetics, prosodic and lexical information [17]. These features are currently recognized and analysed by humans only. The Low-level features refer to the information like fundamental frequency (F0), formant frequency, pitch, intensity, rhythm, tone, spectral magnitude and bandwidths of an individual's voice [18]. An ideal feature would:

- Have lower intraspeaker variability and high interspeaker variability
- Be robust against noise and distortion
- Occurs frequently and naturally in speech
- Be easily measured from the speech signal
- Difficult to mimic
- Not be affected by speaker's health or long term variations in voice

There are different ways to categorize the features [19]. From the viewpoint of their physical interpretation, following categories have been proposed:

1. Short-term spectral features—These features, as the name suggests, are computed from the short frames of about 20 to 30 milliseconds in duration. They are usually the descriptors of the resonance properties of the supralaryngeal vocal tract.
2. Voice source features –These features characterize the glottal excitation signal of voiced sounds such as glottal pulse shape and fundamental frequency, and it is reasonable to assume that they carry speaker-specific information.
3. Spectro-temporal features-It is very much a rational assumption that the spectro temporal. Signal details such as formant transitions and energy modulations contain useful speaker-specific information.
4. Prosodic features-Prosody refers to non-segmental aspects of speech, including syllable stress, intonation patterns, speaking rate and rhythm. These features depends upon the long segments like syllables, words, and utterances and reflects differences in

speaking style, language background, sentence type and emotion of the speaker.

5. High level features—These features attempt to capture conversation-level characteristics of speakers, such as characteristic use of words (“uh-huh”, “you know”, “oh yeah”, etc.). Other features are the dialect of any language used in the conversation by the speaker, accent of the speaker and the style of speaking.

Pattern matching and decision

The pattern matching module deals with comparison between the estimated features to the speaker models. Some of the pattern matching methods used in speaker recognition include Hidden markov models (HMM), dynamic time warping (DTW), neural networks and vector quantization (VQ) [20]. In case of verification, this module provides an expert with a similarity score between the test sample and the claimed identity. While, in case of identification, the module gives similarity score between the test sample and all the available samples in the database. The evaluation of these scores is done using decision module and the results are accordingly presented.

The effectiveness of a speaker recognition system is measured differently for different tasks. Since the output in identification system is a speaker identity from a set of known speakers, the identification accuracy is used to measure the performance. For the verification systems, two types of error can be observed: false acceptance of an impostor and false rejection of a target speaker [21].

Various approaches to speaker recognition system

In the discipline of speaker recognition a wide range of methods and procedures are adopted by the experts for identification.

Auditory analysis

Such type of analysis involves a group of trained phoneticians giving their judgement regarding the similarity and dissimilarity between the two speech events, after hearing the samples again and again to find out some similarities in their linguistic, phonetic and acoustic features. Human listeners are robust speaker recognizers when presented with the degraded speech. Listener performance free from all types of limitations like the signal to noise ratio, speech bandwidth, the amount of speech material, distortions occurring in the speech signals as a result of speech coding, transmission systems, etc.

In this technique, different utterances of the speakers are segregated in respect of each speaker by way of repeated listening of recorded conversation. The segregated conversations of each speaker are repeatedly heard to identify linguistic features and phonetic features like articulation rate, flow of speech, degree of vowels and consonant formation, rhythm, striking time, pauses etc. There are cues in voice and speech behaviour, which are individual and thus make it possible to recognize the familiar voices [22].

Experts working in several governments forensic laboratories including laboratories in Germany, Austria, Sweden, the Netherlands and Spain, and in private practice in countries like the United Kingdom and Germany, are still practising this phonetic-acoustic technique for identification. However, with any human decision process, it is generally believed that the auditory analysis by a listener leads to a subjective decision [23].

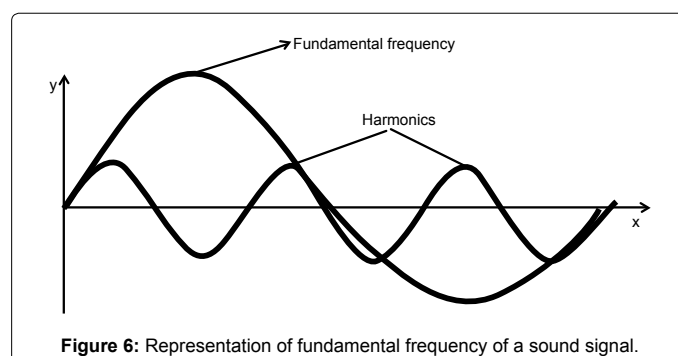
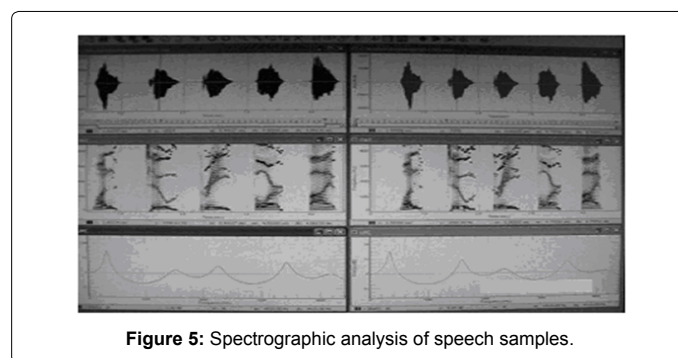
Spectrographic approach or voiceprint identification

This involves the semi-automatic measurements of particular acoustic speech parameters such as vowel formants, articulation rate, which is sometimes combined with the results of auditory phonetic analysis by a human expert. In 1941, an electro mechanical acoustic spectrograph was developed by Dr. Raleigh Potter, Bell Telephone Laboratory, with an idea to convert sounds into pictures [24].

A sound spectrograph is an instrument which is able to give a permanent record of changing energy-frequency distribution throughout the time of a speech wave (Figure 5) [25]. The spectrograms are the graphic displays of the amplitude as a function of both frequency and time [26].

Examiners visually inspect and compare similarities or differences of patterns of the energy distribution in the spectrograms. It is generally believed that formant structures and other spectral characteristics which are evident from a spectrogram are unique for each individual. The most widely used features are fundamental frequencies (Figure 6), formant bandwidths, formant frequencies, spectral composition of fricatives and plosives for individual segments, and transitions.

However, the main drawback of this voiceprint analysis is that the spectrograms of the speech signal from same individual will show large intraspeaker variations, because of the fact that no speaker actually is capable of producing two identical speech utterances [27]. This method is obviously neither objective nor superior to aural-perceptual methods; it is basically a shifting of subjective judgement to the visual domain. The objectivity, reliability and validity of the method have been discussed controversially. The method has been widely used in the US, parts of Europe and other countries until the 1980s but in the present scenario it has been losing its ground. The FBI are using it for investigative purposes, most U.S. courts do not accept voiceprint evidence. Today voiceprint identification is not used in forensic labs in Europe, but still practised in developing countries like China, Vietnam etc.



Recent advances or automatic approach

This approach differs greatly from the earlier methods used for identification as it is both universal as well as automatic. It is considered universal because it does not focus on specific acoustic parameters and consider the speech as a continuously varying complex wave or signal. While, it's automatic nature reduces the subjective evaluation of any speech material to minimum.

Most of such automatic identification system today involves techniques like:

Gaussian mixture models: These are used to characterise or 'model' the speech of the known speaker (from the database) and that of the unknown speaker (i.e., the perpetrator). In addition to this, a relevant speaker population is defined and a probability-density function of the speech variance of this set is calculated. This technique however faces two types of challenges. The problem of within- and between- speaker variations, may results in overlapping of speaker models. As a result, speakers may not always be reliably distinguished, and the system will produce a certain proportion of false-positives.

The second problem arises due to the extreme sensitivity to transmission channel effects of automatic procedures, including the effects of different handsets, telephone lines, GSM-coding and perception-based compression techniques [28].

Long-term averaging: The long- term speech spectrum is used as an important cue of determining the voice quality [29]. In this technique, large number of feature vectors is collected for each known speaker. The average and variance of each component of the feature vector are calculated, and vector of mean value, and vector of the variances, is used to model each speaker. A similar model is made for the unknown speaker.

This technique is most useful for text independent recognition, where large amount of data is required for construction of the speaker's model. This method will not be beneficial if the utterances are too short and if contains the insufficient amount of data.

The major disadvantage of long-term averaging is that each speaker's model consists of a single cluster of data represented by an average and variance vector. If the data contain multiple clusters of vectors, the variance will be very high. Since human speech is composed primarily of vowels, it is natural to expect feature vectors to form clusters, each one based on the pronunciation of a specific vowel.

Vector quantization: This is a technique in which each speaker's model is prepared which consists of several clusters of data, along with their centroids. VQ reduces these sets of vectors to a codebook, which provides an efficient way of building and comparing models of speakers [30]. VQ is used in several ways in speaker recognition. In some systems it is used simply to compress data. In other systems, VQ is a preprocessing step for other methods such as HMMs.

For text-dependent identification and verification several codebooks are created or "trained" for each speaker, who speaks a prescribed text several times. These codebooks are considered as the speaker's template. During the operational phase the same prescribed text is spoken by the unknown person. The comparison is done on the basis of observed differences or similarities between the unknown person's template, and each trained template, after removing the variations in the speaking rate.

For text-independent speaker recognition a single codebook is

created for each speaker. The codebook is considered as an accurate model of the speaker because it is formed from a much larger amount of speech than in the text-dependent case.

This method introduces a new factor affecting the performance of the system, which is code-book size. Larger codebooks will perform a better job of characterizing a speaker's voice, but these results in increased computational expenses and the danger of not producing results in real time, which is a significant factor for verification. The advantage of this method is that it requires only a small amount of data to create a speaker's model without causing any loss to the accuracy.

Hidden markov models: These models are which are useful for modelling the stationary as well as the transient properties of speech. These made it possible to deal with the time sequential data and can provide the time scale invariability in recognition [31]. These are appropriate for speech sounds as it contains both vowel and consonants. HMMs are able to represent signals that exhibit diverse behaviour because of their probabilistic nature [32] and can be efficiently used for both text-dependent and text-independent speaker recognition system.

In case of text-dependent SR system, a single HMM is trained for each individual uttering the prescribed text. When an unknown person speaks the same speech, an HMM is created on the spot and compared with all the others. Commonly, the feature vectors used with HMMs are averaged through vector quantization and expressed as codebook values. While in case of text-independent recognition, the "states" are trained to represent each person's pronunciation of the different phonetic classes, such as rounded vowels or nasal consonants.

During training, the parameters of the HMM are adjusted to best represent the significant features of each person's speech. During the operational phase, it is determined mathematically which model is most consistent with the unknown input speech, and that model determines the unknown speaker, or confirms or denies the verification.

Neural networks: These are computational models that attempt to imitate the human brain through interconnected nodes that behave like simple nerve cells [33]. These are versatile devices and can be used for variety of purposes.

In a typical system, a neural network is created for each speaker and trained to be active (i.e., to give an output near 1.0) when the input belongs to the speaker, and inactive (an output near 0) for some other speaker. Example: In a population including 3 speakers X, Y, and Z, we would have three binary networks: one trained to distinguish between (X, Y), one between (X, Z), and one between (Y, Z). If an unknown, A, is to be determined from among X, Y and Z the procedure would be as follows: Feed A into the (X, Y) network and record the output score for X and the output score for Y. Repeat the process with the (X, Z) network and the (Y, Z) network. For example, suppose A was actually X. Then X would have a high score when A is fed into (X, Y) and (X, Z). In those cases both Y and Z would have low scores, when fed into (Y, Z), both Y and Z would have low scores. In total, X would be the winner.

However, the use of a single large network works well for small populations of speakers, but it has two disadvantages. One is that if the size of the population exceeds a few dozen, the training times go way up, and the performance goes way down. The second is when new speakers are added to the population, the entire network must be retrained.

Fully automatic systems are generally introduced on a small scale, in forensic casework. At present countries like France [34] and

Switzerland [35,36] are using such methods, which are also being tested in Spain [37] and the United States of America [38]. The FBI recently completed an evaluation project in which four automatic speaker recognition systems were tested on a specially designed forensic database compiled by the FBI. The results confirmed that the performance levels of automatic systems can be quite high when text and transmission conditions are controlled. Deterioration is usually encountered in the conditions related to forensic realm.

Expressing results in forensic speaker recognition

Like in other disciplines in the forensic field, a voice expert generally renders his or her opinion in terms of probability of evidence under two rival assumptions:

- Prosecution hypothesis: the unknown or the test sample is originated from the given source
- Defence hypothesis: the unknown or the test sample originates from some other member of a potential suspect population, like the adult male population of a town or a particular region.

The ratio between these two probabilities is known as likelihood ratio, which assumes some numerical value.

$$\text{Likelihood ratio} = H_p/H_d$$

Where, H_p = Prosecution hypothesis

H_d = Defence hypothesis

Yet, even these high numbers do not indicate how likely the questioned voice sample is to have originated from the suspect. It only expresses the relative strength of the evidence.

Problems or limitations to speaker recognition technique

- Short duration samples are more demanding and should be carefully analysed.
- Dissimilarity in the language of questioned and specimen voice samples.
- Emotion Variability in questioned and specimen samples [39].
- Misspoken or misread prompted phrases.
- Poorly recorded/noisy samples are difficult to analyse.
- Insufficient number of comparable words.
- Disguise in speech samples poses a problem in speaker recognition and/or the degree of disguise is decided by the expert.
- Extreme emotional states (e.g. stress or duress) [40].
- Change in physical state of the speaker (e.g. eating, effect of ethanol, etc.) [41].
- The attitude of the how the speech is said by the speaker.
- Channel mismatch or mismatch in recording conditions (e.g. using different microphones for enrolment and verification).
- Different pronunciation speed of the test data compared with the training data.
- Speaker's health [42,43]
- Aging (the vocal tract can drift away from models with age).

Conclusion

In lieu of the above discussion, it can be inferred that the comparison of voice samples is quite complicated but absolutely possible. The skill of an examiner itself along with chosen parameters and selection of

appropriate technique for identification is largely decisive and can facilitate accurate and conclusive results. There have been many advancements and success made in this field, however, much remains to be done in order to overpower the daunting limitations which still prevails and limits the process. If we successfully overcome all such limitations, this technique with its promising features will have an obvious advantage over the pre-existing ones for establishing individual identity.

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