ORIGINAL RESEARCH

Closed‑set automatic speaker identifcation using multi‑scale recurrent networks in non‑native children

Kodali Radha1 · Mohan Bansal[1](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0524-8251)

Received: 10 August 2022 / Accepted: 4 March 2023 / Published online: 18 March 2023 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Bharati Vidyapeeth's Institute of Computer Applications and Management 2023

Abstract Children may beneft from automatic speaker identifcation in a variety of applications, including child security, safety, and education. The key focus of this study is to develop a closed-set child speaker identifcation system for non-native speakers of English in both text-dependent and text-independent speech tasks in order to track how the speaker's fuency afects the system. The multi-scale wavelet scattering transform is used to compensate for concerns like the loss of high-frequency information caused by the most widely used mel frequency cepstral coefficients feature extractor. The proposed large-scale speaker identifcation system succeeds well by employing wavelet scattered Bi-LSTM. While this procedure is used to identify non-native children in multiple classes, average values of accuracy, precision, recall, and F-measure are being used to assess the performance of the model in text-independent and textdependent tasks, which outperforms the existing models.

Keywords Automatic speaker identifcation · Nonnative children speech · Text-dependent speech · Textindependent speech · Wavelet scattering transform · Bi-LSTM · RNN

 \boxtimes Mohan Bansal mohan.bansal@vitap.ac.in

> Kodali Radha kodaliradha.20phd7093@vitap.ac.in

 1 School of Electronics Engineering, VIT-AP University, Amaravati, Andhra Pradesh 522237, India

1 Introduction

Automatic speaker recognition (ASR) is the approach used to automatically authenticate the identity of speaker by exploiting speaker-specifc characteristics included within the speech waves, allowing accessibility for various applications [[1,](#page-9-0) [2](#page-9-1)]. The speaker recognition is categorized into two sub-areas: speaker identifcation and speaker verifcation. The technique of identifying which of the enrolled speakers delivered a given utterance is known as speaker identifcation. The technique of admitting or refusing a speaker's reported identity is known as speaker verifcation. Furthermore, depending on the type of speech, speaker identifcation systems are classifed as: text-dependent (defned passwords) and text-independent (undefned passwords). Text-dependent speaker identifcation (TD-SI) models are typically template-based or sequence-matching strategies in which the recognition passages are preset or available in advance [\[3](#page-9-2)]. However, preset phrases aren't really allowed in diverse applications, notably forensic investigations and surveillance. Furthermore, regardless of the subject of the speech, humans can distinguish speakers. Therefore, textindependent speaker identification (TI-SI) models have gained attention, as it is more difficult to imitate an unknown utterance [\[4](#page-9-3)]. In fact, social media platforms are the most popular among teens and young adults, with over half of youngsters aged 8–17 are using the internet and maintaining accounts on social media website [[5\]](#page-9-4). However, several speech technology applications face difficulty in identifying non-native children due to various reasons of child's immaturity in the areas of cognition, phonology, and physiological development (vocal tract) [\[6](#page-9-5), [7](#page-9-6)]. In particular, the pitch of children's voice is higher, and perceptual elements like formants appear at higher frequencies [[8\]](#page-9-7). Despite, signifcant research focuses on automated identifcation of adult

speakers, concerns and procedures relevant to speaker identifcation in non-native children is still elusive and exposed to numerous exterior risks.

The broadly utilized feature engineering techniques in speech applications include conventional mel frequency cepstral coefficients (MFCC) and linear predictive cepstral coefficients (LPCC) $[9]$ $[9]$. A discrete cosine transform (DCT) is responsible in the back-end to minimize redundancy in the speech signal and dividing them into feature coefficients with small dimensions, however, it has a limitation of fxed resolution. Contrarily, the loss of high-frequency information caused by these feature extraction techniques is compensated by the multi-resolution (multi-scale) ofered by the wavelet scattering transform (WST) [[10](#page-9-9)]. The key contribution of this study is to identify the non-native child speaker in both text-dependent (TD) and text-independent (TI) speech tasks particularly in multiple classes, because as population grows larger, the performance of the model drops.

The details of the article are as follows: Sect. [2](#page-1-0) provides a comprehensive insight into recent state-of-the-art models in children speaker identifcation. The proposed framework is presented in Sect. [3](#page-1-1) and includes details of the speech corpus, wavelet scattered feature extraction, and Bi-LSTM model in multiple class classifcation. The details of the experimental setup, evaluation metrics, and reported outcomes of the non-native child speaker identifcation in both TD and TI speech tasks are given in Sect. [4.](#page-4-0) Lastly, Sect. [5](#page-7-0) concludes with an expansion of future work.

2 Related work

Humans consider a variety of cues to identify the speaker, notably voice pitch, a particular laughter, and frequently used words [[11](#page-9-10)]. However, the speaker identifcation system that has been built so far relies on short-term characteristics of the speech spectrum. Despite the fact that a lot of progress has indeed been made on para-linguistic analysis (age, gender, language, nativity, emotion, identity) of adult speaker identification $[12-14]$ $[12-14]$ $[12-14]$. It is astonishing that, there is comparatively less research done on children's speech in this feld because para-linguistic analysis of children has a lot of signifcant challenges. They include high spectral and temporal randomness due to "the onset of puberty" [[15](#page-9-13)], immature vocal tracts, the development of fne motor skills during language acquisition, and high fundamental frequencies than those of adults [[16](#page-9-14)]. Children's speech technology is regulated by nativity and accent, as distinguished by para-linguistic characteristics [[17\]](#page-9-15). From literature, modern speaker identifcation systems commonly deploy MFCC features trained with Gaussian mixture model (GMM) based methods to identify the speaker [\[2](#page-9-1)]. This well-known study was used in speaker recognition for children's speech, with OGI kids corpus trained on Gaussian mixture model-universal background model (GMM-UBM) and Gaussian mixture model-support vector machine (GMM-SVM) models [[18\]](#page-9-16) to obtain an accuracy of 90–99% for children between the age of 5 and 16. Additionally, employing GMM-UBM systems, the study on children's speech has continued to identify child speakers by gender and age group [\[19](#page-9-17)]. Recently, a work presented on children automatic speaker verifcation (ASV) in low resource condition using i-vector, x-vector and probabilistic linear discriminant analysis harnessed with audio augmentation techniques [\[20](#page-9-18)]. The success of wavelet scattered feature extraction integrated with a convolution neural network (CNN) for end-to-end adult speaker identifcation [\[21](#page-9-19), [22](#page-9-20)] inspired us to apply the scattering network integrated with recurrent neural network (RNN) to the suggested non-native child speaker identifcation system. Wavelet scattering network (WSN) is used as a feature extractor in this study on TI-SI, overcoming the limitation of MFCCs. A typical approach found that, using a small amount of TI speech data to train Bi-LSTM was successful in large-scale speaker identifcation system [[23\]](#page-9-21).

Although speaker identifcation systems are efective in situations where there are few classes, as the number of classes grows, it becomes more difficult to identify the speaker, particularly in children who might not be native speakers. Therefore, the main objective of this work is to develop accurate methods for identifying non-native child speakers using deep RNNs and to evaluate the signifcance of information in filter coefficients of wavelet scattering networks.

3 Proposed system overview

This section presents a comprehensive procedure for identifying non-native child speakers across multiple classes in TD and TI speech tasks, making it the frst article to use wavelet scattering transforms in children's speech. Raw audio files are first transformed into wavelet feature coefficients of order 2 using the wavelet scattering network, which serves as a feature extractor. A Bi-LSTM model of RNN is then trained on these features to solve sequential problems and acquire long-term dependence on inputs [[24\]](#page-9-22). After training the Bi-LSTM model on the wavelet feature coeffcients extracted from the raw audio fles, the model can be used to predict the speakers in a separate test set, as shown in Algorithm 1. The process of predicting the speakers involves matching the test features with the trained features as shown

in Fig. [1](#page-2-0). The trained features are frst fed into the Bi-LSTM model to obtain the corresponding sequence of hidden states, which are then used to predict the speakers using a softmax classifer. The test feature is then assigned to the class with the highest probability of the predicted speakers, based on the softmax output of the Bi-LSTM model.

3.1 Dataset

A total of 20 children, 11 females and 9 males aged 7–12 years are considered for data collection. All of the children are non-native English speakers who speak native Telugu, an Indian regional language, in addition to English. The data comprises two types of speech: TD speech and TI speech. The children repeat the preset phrases presented on

the screen in the TD speech activity (e.g: *"Everyone in my school likes icecream"*). In the TI speech task, children narrate a picture (e.g: *pencil*) on the screen in their own words (e.g: *"This is a pencil. I will write my homework"*).

The dataset consists around 3.32 h of children's speech with 2898 recordings, 2173 from the TD speech task and 725 from the TI speech task. It is evident that TI speech data is less than TD speech data because children are more comfortable reading the text presented on screen rather than narrating a picture during data collection. This is because non-native children are speaking English as a medium of instruction, and the emergence of Covid-19 has severely hampered children's learning and development in L2 profciency [[25\]](#page-9-23). All of the audio fles are in *.wav* standard and use a stereo channel at 44.1KHz sampling rate and 16 bits per sample. Environmental settings such as door closing, bell ringing, and other children chatting in adjacent classrooms are also included because the audio recordings of non-native children were acquired during class days. Detailed description of database is provided at Non-Native Children Speech Mini Corpus [\[26\]](#page-9-24).

3.2 Wavelet scattering transform

In natural settings, speech signals produced by children often demonstrate gradual changes or fuctuations that are occasionally interrupted by abrupt transients [\[27\]](#page-9-25). In such instances, wavelet scattering transform (WST) is employed as shown in Eq. (1) (1) , which may reflect the local features of signals in both the time and frequency domains providing multi-resolution [[28](#page-9-26), [29](#page-9-27)]. The WST is simply a bunch of convolutions with a series of band-pass flters (wavelet flter bank), non-linearity (modulus), and pooling [\[30](#page-9-28)]. Each layer must be capable of performing linear and non-linear operations. Initially, in each layer, the convolution linear operation of the specifed complex wavelet flters with the input signal is accomplished, followed by the modulus nonlinearity is applied. Finally, a low-pass flter is used to determine the local average or pooling.

$$
S_W(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \widehat{\varphi}\left(\frac{t-\beta}{\alpha}\right) s(t) \mathrm{d}t \tag{1}
$$

where $S_w(\alpha, \beta)$ is WST of $s(t)$ which is decomposed into its basis functions with α be the binary or dyadic scale and β be the binary or dyadic shift and $\hat{\varphi}$ (.) denotes complex conjugate of wavelet function [[31\]](#page-9-29).

The first-order scattering coefficients are mathematically written as Eq. ([2\)](#page-3-1):

$$
W_I[\lambda_1]S = |S * \varphi_{\lambda_1}| * \rho_I(t)
$$
\n(2)

where *S* is the input speech, $\varphi_{\lambda_1}(t)$ denotes dilated wavelet at λ_1 center frequency of first order bandpass filter, $\rho_I(t)$ is the averaging low-pass flter and * indicates the convolution operator. The high-frequency coefficients are obtained by local averaging by $\rho_I(t)$ to maintain better stability, however, this results in a loss of high-frequency data. The wavelet modulus is fragmented further in second-order scattering as shown in Eq. (3) (3) and in order to preserve high-frequency information.

$$
W_I[\lambda_1, \lambda_2]S = ||S * \varphi_{\lambda_1}| * \varphi_{\lambda_2}| * \rho_I(t)
$$
\n(3)

According to the first-order coefficients, these coefficients are averaged using a low-pass filter ρ_I of length T, which provides local invariance to time shifts.

Similarly, in the mth layer, the sequence of *n* pre-defined wavelet paths $\varphi_{\lambda_1}, \varphi_{\lambda_2} \dots \varphi_{\lambda_m}$ are convoluted using coefficients from the $(m - 1)th$ layer, which correspond to a prior wavelet $\varphi_{\lambda_{m-1}}$. Figure [2](#page-3-3) depicts an example of WST for input speech with the scattering order, M=4 and scale, *i* is 4, and $m = 0, m = 1, m = 2,$ and $m = 3$ represents the filter bank order.

3.3 Bidirectional long‑short term memory (Bi‑LSTM)

Recurrent neural networks (RNN) were shown to be extremely effective at solving sequential problems [[32,](#page-9-30) [33\]](#page-9-31). Long short-term memory (LSTM) networks were found in 1997 by Hochreiter and Schmidhuber [[34\]](#page-9-32) as an extension of RNN. There is rich literature available on LSTM due to the ability to learn long-term dependence of inputs by simply memorizing information over a long period of time and also competent in dealing with the vanishing/exploding gradient problem [[35\]](#page-10-0). This is possible by incorporating an input gate $(\hat{\mathbf{g}}_i^{(t)})$, an output gate $(\hat{\mathbf{g}}_\theta^{(t)})$, a forget gate $(\hat{\mathbf{g}}_f^{(i)})$, and a memory cell $(C^{(i)})$ in the LSTM network [[36\]](#page-10-1), as shown in the Fig. [3a](#page-4-1). The memory cell is made up of two layers: the *sigmoid* layer, which is responsible for updating weights, and the *tanh* layer, which is responsible for formulating new cell state vectors $(\hat{C}^{(t)})$, that add to memory cells.

Bidirectional LSTM (Bi-LSTM), is an updated version of LSTM model that employ two LSTMs on the input data [[37](#page-10-2)]. The proposed network learns not only from input cell $(C^{(t-1)})$ to the output cell $(C^{(t)})$ in the forward direction using Eq. ([4](#page-3-4)), but also from output cell to input cell in the backward direction using Eq. [\(5](#page-3-5)), via two diferent hidden layers [\[38\]](#page-10-3), inorder to preserve previous and future information as depicted in Fig. [3](#page-4-1)b.

$$
\vec{h}^{(t)} = \tanh(U_{\vec{h}}[\vec{h}^{(t-1)}, x^{(t)}] + b_{\vec{h}})
$$
\n(4)

$$
\overline{h}^{(t)} = \tanh(U_{\overline{h}}[\overline{h}^{(t-1)}, x^{(t)}] + b_{\overline{h}})
$$
\n(5)

Here $x^{(t)}$ denotes current input, $\vec{h}^{(t)}$ is the forward hidden sequences from $t = 1$ to *T*, and $\overline{h}^{(t)}$ is the backward hidden sequence from $t = T$ to 1, $U_{\vec{h}} \& U_{\vec{h}}$ are the corresponding weights with bias vectors $b_{\vec{h}}$ and $b_{\vec{h}}$.

Finally, the output $y^{(t)}$, is obtained by appending the two hidden states with an output bias vector b_y as shown in Eq. ([6](#page-3-6)).

$$
y^{(t)} = U_{\vec{h}} \vec{h}^{(t)} + U_{\vec{h}} \vec{h}^{(t)} + b_y
$$
 (6)

Fig. 2 Decomposition using wavelet scattering network. Red color denotes non-linear modulus after convolution with series of band-pass flter at center frequency (*𝜆*) & blue colour denotes outputs obtained via low-pass filter (ρ_I)

Fig. 3 a Basic details of LSTM cell. **b** Recurrent neural network with Bi-LSTM layer

Table 1 Details of train and test split in non-native children speech corpus

Type of children's speech	Split	No. of utterances	Total
TD Speech	Train	1736	2173
	Test	437	
TI Speech	Train	580	725
	Test	145	

Implementing the gated cell (LSTM) twice enhances the ability to learn long-term dependencies and, as a result, improves prediction performance. A more detailed description of Bi-LSTM network configuration is discussed in Sect. [4.3](#page-5-0).

4 Results and discussions

This section describes the experimental settings and outcomes in developing the child speaker identifcation model. Initially, the datasets were randomly split into train and test sets both in TD and TI speech. To gauge the overall system performance, average values of accuracy, precision, and recall metrics were employed and compared with the existing work. MATLAB R2022a was used for all investigations of children's speech, including feature extraction, modeling, and identifcation.

4.1 Data processing

This article incorporates, a closed-set child speaker identifcation system that integrates TD and TI speech to promote voice biometric applications [[39](#page-10-4)–[41\]](#page-10-5). The overall corpus length is 3.34 h (∼200 min) and comprises 2898 utterances, of which 2173 are TD speech data and 725 are TI speech data. Furthermore, as indicated in Table [1,](#page-4-2) each type of speech is randomly divided into 80% and 20% as training and testing data, respectively.

4.2 Feature extraction

Feature extraction is an important process in any recognition system since it provides the system to reliably identify speakers by transforming the raw data into feature vectors. The most popular feature extraction methods used in automatic speaker recognition systems are the MFCC and LPCC [\[42\]](#page-10-6). Filters with nonlinearly variable bandwidths are imposed over the STFT in MFCCs. Filter implementation may be considered as frequency domain pooling that negates the efect of instability. Unfortunately, this frequency pooling entails loss of signal information at higher frequencies [[43\]](#page-10-7). To counteract the loss of high frequency information in MFCC, the WST approximates second order coefficients of the speech signal.

In the proposed speaker identifcation models, WST approach employs the Gabor (analytic Morlet) wavelet [[31](#page-9-29)] was generated to a depth of 2. The very first layer comprised with eight Gabor wavelets per octave, whereas

the second included one Morlet wavelet per octave and represented as quality factors $Q = [8 1]$. The wavelets use a low pass scaling function to produce interpretations of children's speech with low variation. The time scale for invariance is set at 500 ms and a batch size of 64. The coeffcients are therefore standardized and log-transformed. As a result, analyzing children speech by employing the frst and second orders flter banks of the WST extends the Mel flter bank representation, while conserving the information. Finally, the scattering network obtained has 411 paths by 25 scattering time windows for each audio signal.

4.3 Training network confguration

The proposed child speaker identifcation system was developed and trained using the Bi-LSTM model classifer. The training network comprises of fve layers, with the extracted scattering coefficients from the wavelet scattering network served into a 5-layer RNN. The input layer is a sequence layer that has 410 dimensions, followed by a Bi-LSTM layer with 512 hidden units and a 20-fully connected layer. The softmax function is required as the activation function in the output layer, which predicts a multinomial probability [[44\]](#page-10-8) for multiple speaker. Finally, a cross entropy is employed in the classifcation layer to update the network via computing the diference between the output and target multinomial probabilities is as shown in Fig. [3b](#page-4-1). The proposed model was trained using "Adam (adaptive moment estimation)" [[45](#page-10-9)], an optimization algorithm with an adaptive learning rate that evaluates individual learning rate for various parameters. The details of learning options used in both TD and TI speaker identifcation system are depicted in Table [2](#page-5-1).

4.4 Evaluation metrics

The performance measures considered to evaluate the proposed non-native children identifcation system in TD and TI tasks are average accuracy, average precision, average recall, and average F1 score [[46](#page-10-10)] as shown in Table [3,](#page-5-2) since this approach is employed to recognize children in multi-class problem [[47](#page-10-11)]. Moreover, area under the receiver operator characteristic curve (AUROC) or ROC index is mostly used to measure the model's scoring ability. This is a likelihood graph that efectively separates the signal from the noise by analyzing the true positive rate (TPR) to the false positive rate (FPR) at various threshold levels [[48](#page-10-12)].

4.5 Text‑dependent speaker identifcation (TD‑SI)

To investigate the performance of speaker identifcation system in TD speech task of non-native children, Bi-LSTM network is trained on 1736 utterances and tested with 437

Table 3 Evaluation in multiple cla utterances from 11 female children and 9 male children. The training method consists of 13 iterations per epoch for 50 epochs, for a total of 650 iterations all through the training cycle. The TD-SI system achieves an overall average accuracy of 97.94% with a misclassifcation of 2.1%, primarily owing to the F6 speaker, who has a similar voice to F5 and F2 due to age resemblance. Male children M6 and M9 are often misclassifed as female child F6 because of the fact that, occasionally male children whose vocals have not changed as a result of puberty may attain a close match with the females [[15\]](#page-9-13). Overall average accuracy may not provide a deep insight into system performance because of the imbalance in the dataset in recognizing non-native speakers; consequently, the F-measure is used as a combined measure (Harmonic Mean) of precision and recall. In TD speech task, the F-measure of non-native speaker identifcation is 98.01%, with a respective precision of 98.02% and a recall of 98.01%, as displayed in the confusion matrix in Fig. [4.](#page-6-0)

Table 4 Performance measure of speaker identifcation system in terms of average accuracy (\bar{A}_v) , average precision (\bar{P}) , average recall (\bar{R}) , average F-measure (\bar{F} 1-score)

Model	$A_{n}(\%)$	$P(\%)$	$R(\%)$	$F1-Score(\%)$
TD-SI	97.94	98.02	98.01	98.01
TI-SI	96.6	97.32	96.94	97.1

Figure [6](#page-8-0)a and Fig. [6b](#page-8-0) show the ROC curves for the female and male classes in TD-SI tasks, respectively.

4.6 Text‑independent speaker identifcation (TI‑SI)

The reliability of the speaker identifcation model in TI speech of non-native children is shown in Table [4](#page-6-1). The Bi-LSTM network is trained on 580 utterances of children aged 7-12 years and evaluated against 145 imbalanced

Fig. 4 Confusion matrix of text-dependent speaker identifcation system

Fig. 5 Confusion matrix of text-independent speaker identification system

utterances from 20 speakers. The training procedure involves 4 iterations per epoch for 50 epochs, results in maximum of 200 iterations in the training cycle. The TI-SI system achieves an overall average accuracy of 96.6% with an error rate of 3.4%. Two F10's utterances are incorrectly identifed as F8, one F4's utterance is incorrectly anticipated as M5's, and two F9's utterances are poorly predicted as F6's and F8's, respectively. The above misclassifcation is regarded to be largely from female children aged 7 and 8, because the females in this age group have comparable pitch. As this TI-SI model includes limited test data, perhaps a misclassifcation of one utterance results in a considerable loss, as illustrated in the confusion matrix in Fig. [5](#page-7-1). The ROC curves for the female and male classes in TI-SI tasks, is depicted in Fig. [6](#page-8-0)c and [6](#page-8-0)d respectively. Finally, the F-measure is also employed as a consolidated unit of precision and recall. In TI speech task, the F-measure of non-native speaker identifcation is 97.1%, with a respective precision of 97.32% and a recall of 96.94%.

4.7 Comparative analysis of proposed system with earlier work

This section provides a much more detailed comparison of current state-of-the-art models for identifying child speakers, including information on the speech corpus type, feature extraction method, modeling strategy, and accuracy results. Additionally, adult speaker identifcation systems using wavelet scattered features are also compared. The proposed model outperforms earlier approaches in children's speech as depicted in Table [5](#page-8-1) in both TD and TI speech tasks.

5 Conclusion and future work

In this study, non-native child speaker identifcation systems were built using WSTs as feature vectors, which directly acquired speaker discriminatory information from raw speech signals. A corpus of non-native children learning English as a second language is being collected and examined in natural environmental settings in order

Table 5 Comparative analysis of earlier state-of-the-art results in speaker identifcation

to beneft children's speech technology. The proposed system proved to work reasonably well for both TD and TI speech scenarios in identifying over 20 unique children. The experimental fndings showed that both the TD-SI and TI-SI models performed almost equally well with an overall accuracy of 97.9% and 96.6% respectively using scatter features trained on Bi-LSTM RNNs. The outcome of the study shows that the suggested closed set speaker identification method is reliable and efficient. The significant fndings indicate that this system may be deployed to a variety of tasks, including control and security access. Future developments of the proposed study will include the automatic identifcation of speaker, nativity, age, and gender for a large corpus of non-native children's speech.

Acknowledgements The authors extend their thanks to the High-Performance Computing Lab at VIT-AP University for supplying the resources and assistance that made this research possible. The access to state-of-the-art computing equipment and expert technical support greatly aided in completing this article.

Data Availibility The open access data that support the fndings of this study is made publicly available in KAGGLE repository, [https://](https://doi.org/10.34740/KAGGLE/DS/2160743) doi.org/10.34740/KAGGLE/DS/2160743. The more details about the data collection is given in Sect. [3.1.](#page-2-1)

References

- 1. Furui S (1996) An overview of speaker recognition technology. Autom Speech Speaker Recognit 31–56
- 2. Bai Z, Zhang X-L (2021) Speaker recognition based on deep learning: An overview. Neural Netw 140:65–99
- 3. Kinnunen T, Li H (2010) An overview of text-independent speaker recognition: From features to supervectors. Speech Commun 52(1):12–40
- 4. Reynolds DA (2002) An overview of automatic speaker recognition technology. In: 2002 IEEE international conference on acoustics, speech, and signal processing, vol 4. IEEE, p 4072
- 5. Badillo-Urquiola K, Smriti D, McNally B, Golub E, Bonsignore E, Wisniewski PJ (2019) Stranger danger! social media app features co-designed with children to keep them safe online. In: Proceedings of the 18th ACM international conference on interaction design and children, pp 394–406
- 6. Gretter R, Matassoni M, Falavigna GD, Keelan E, Leong CW (2020) Overview of the interspeech TLT2020 shared task onasr for non-native children's speech. In: Interspeech 2020, pp 245–249
- 7. Radha K, Bansal M (2022) Audio augmentation for non-native children's speech recognition through discriminative learning. Entropy 24(10):1490
- 8. Lee S, Potamianos A, Narayanan S (1999) Acoustics of children's speech: developmental changes of temporal and spectral parameters. J Acoust Soc Am 105(3):1455–1468
- 9. Kumar A, Mittal V (2021) Hindi speech recognition in noisy environment using hybrid technique. Int J Inf Technol 13(2):483–492
- 10. Kalra D, Gupta R (2021) Novel model for pitch estimation using hybrid DWT-DCT HPS. Int J Inf Technol 13(4):1409–1415
- 11. Schmidt-Nielsen A, Crystal TH (2000) Speaker verifcation by human listeners: experiments comparing human and machine performance using the NIST 1998 speaker evaluation data. Dig Signal Process 10(1–3):249–266
- 12. Schuller B, Steidl S, Batliner A, Burkhardt F, Devillers L, MüLler C, Narayanan S (2013) Paralinguistics in speech and language-state-of-the-art and the challenge. Comput Speech Lang 27(1):4–39
- 13. Bansal M, Sircar P (2019) Phoneme based model for gender identifcation and adult-child classifcation. In: 2019 13th international conference on signal processing and communication systems (ICSPCS). IEEE, pp 1–7
- 14. Schuller B, Batliner A (2013) Computational paralinguistics: emotion, affect and personality in speech and language processing, pp 1–321
- 15. Rogol AD, Clark PA, Roemmich JN (2000) Growth and pubertal development in children and adolescents: effects of diet and physical activity. Am J Clin Nutr 72(2):521–528
- 16. Gerosa M, Giuliani D, Brugnara F (2007) Acoustic variability and automatic recognition of children's speech. Speech Commun 49(10–11):847–860
- 17. Radha K, Bansal M, Shabber SM (2022) Accent classifcation of native and non-native children using harmonic pitch. In: 2022 2nd international conference on artifcial intelligence and signal processing (AISP). IEEE, pp 1–6
- 18. Safavi S, Najafan M, Hanani A, Russell MJ, Jancovic P, Carey MJ (2016) Speaker Recognition for Children's speech. [https://doi.](https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.1609.07498) [org/10.48550/ARXIV.1609.07498](https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.1609.07498)
- 19. Safavi S, Russell M, Jančovič P (2018) Automatic speaker, agegroup and gender identifcation from children's speech. Comput Speech Lang 50:141–156
- 20. Shahnawazuddin S, Ahmad W, Adiga N, Kumar A (2021) Children's speaker verifcation in low and zero resource conditions. Dig Signal Process 116:103115
- 21. Ghezaiel W, Luc B, Lézoray O (2020) Wavelet scattering transform and CNN for closed set speaker identifcation. In: 2020 IEEE 22nd international workshop on multimedia signal processing (MMSP). IEEE, pp 1–6
- 22. Ghezaiel W, Brun L, Lézoray O (2021) Hybrid network for endto-end text-independent speaker identifcation. In: 2020 25th international conference on pattern recognition (ICPR). IEEE, pp 2352–2359
- 23. Nammous MK, Saeed K, Kobojek P (2022) Using a small amount of text-independent speech data for a Bi-LSTM large-scale speaker identifcation approach. J King Saud Univ Comput Inf Sci 34(3):764–770
- 24. Su Y, Kuo C-CJ (2019) On extended long short-term memory and dependent bidirectional recurrent neural network. Neurocomputing 356:151–161
- 25. Basri S, Hawaldar IT, Nayak R, Rahiman HU (2022) Do academic stress, burnout and problematic internet use affect perceived learning? evidence from India during the covid-19 pandemic. Sustainability 14(3):1409
- 26. Radha K, Bansal M (2022) Non-native children speech mini corpus. Kaggle.<https://doi.org/10.34740/KAGGLE/DS/2160743>
- 27. Bijou SW, Peterson RF, Harris FR, Allen KE, Johnston MS (1969) Methodology for experimental studies of young children in natural settings. Psychol Rec 19:177–210
- 28. Mateo C, Talavera JA (2020) Bridging the gap between the shorttime Fourier transform (STFT), wavelets, the constant-Q transform and multi-resolution STFT. Signal Image Video Process 14(8):1535–1543
- 29. Sifuzzaman M, Islam MR, Ali M (2009) Application of wavelet transform and its advantages compared to Fourier transform. J Phys Sci 13:121–134
- 30. Bruna J, Mallat S (2013) Invariant scattering convolution networks. IEEE Trans Pattern Anal Mach Intell 35(8):1872–1886
- 31. Vetterli M, Herley C (1992) Wavelets and flter banks: theory and design. IEEE Trans Signal Process 40(ARTICLE):2207–2232
- 32. LeCun Y, Bengio Y, Hinton G (2015) Deep learning. Nature 521(7553):436–444
- 33. Jayanthi K, Mohan S et al (2022) An integrated framework for emotion recognition using speech and static images with deep classifer fusion approach. Int J Inf Technol 1–11
- 34. Hochreiter S, Schmidhuber J (1997) Long short-term memory. Neural Comput 9(8):1735–1780
- 35. Staudemeyer RC, Morris ER (2019) Understanding LSTM—a tutorial into long short-term memory recurrent neural networks. [arXiv:1909.09586](http://arxiv.org/abs/1909.09586)
- 36. Yu Y, Si X, Hu C, Zhang J (2019) A review of recurrent neural networks: LSTM cells and network architectures. Neural Comput 31(7):1235–1270
- 37. Schuster M, Paliwal KK (1997) Bidirectional recurrent neural networks. IEEE Trans Signal Process 45(11):2673–2681
- 38. Singh B, Jaiswal R (2022) Automation of prediction system for temporal data. Int J Inf Technol 14(6):3165–3174
- 39. Punyani P, Gupta R, Kumar A (2022) A multimodal biometric system using match score and decision level fusion. Int J Inf Technol 14(2):725–730
- 40. Shashidhar R, Patilkulkarni S, Puneeth S (2022) Combining audio and visual speech recognition using LSTM and deep convolutional neural network. Int J Inf Technol 1–12
- 41. Ann OC, Theng LB (2011) Biometrics based assistive communication tool for children with special needs. In: 2011 7th international conference on information technology in Asia. IEEE, pp 1–6
- 42. Hansen JH, Hasan T (2015) Speaker recognition by machines and humans: a tutorial review. IEEE Signal Process Mag 32(6):74–99
- 43. Andén J, Mallat S (2014) Deep scattering spectrum. IEEE Trans Signal Process 62(16):4114–4128
- 44. Mohammed AA, Umaashankar V (2018) Efectiveness of hierarchical softmax in large scale classification tasks. In: 2018

international conference on advances in computing, communications and informatics (ICACCI). IEEE, pp 1090–1094

- 45. Kingma DP, Ba J (2014) Adam: a method for stochastic optimization. <https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.1412.6980>
- 46. Grandini M, Bagli E, Visani G (2020) Metrics for multi-class classifcation: an overview. [https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.2008.](https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.2008.05756) [05756](https://doi.org/10.48550/ARXIV.2008.05756)
- 47. Kaur P, Gosain A (2018) Issues and challenges of class imbalance problem in classifcation. Int J Inf Technol 1–7
- 48. Güvenir HA, Kurtcephe M (2012) Ranking instances by maximizing the area under ROC curve. IEEE Trans Knowl Data Eng 25(10):2356–2366
- 49. Safavi S, Najafan M, Hanani A, Russell MJ, Jancovic P, Carey MJ (2016) Speaker recognition for children's speech. [arXiv:1609.](http://arxiv.org/abs/1609.07498) [07498](http://arxiv.org/abs/1609.07498)
- 50. Jia N, Zheng C, Sun W (2019) Children's speaker recognition method based on multi-dimensional features. In: International conference on advanced data mining and applications. Springer, pp 462–473

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.