On-Line Bayesian Speaker Adaptation By Using Tree-Structured Transformation and Robust Priors

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ON-LINE BAYESIAN SPEAKER ADAPTATION USING TREE-STRUCTURED TRANSFORMATION AND ROBUST PRIORS

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents new results by using our recently proposed on-line Bayesian learning algorithm for affine transformation parameter estimation in speaker adaptation. The on-line Bayesian learning technique allows updating parameter estimates after each utterance and it can accommodate flexible forms of transformation functions as well as prior probability density function. We show through experimental results the robustness of heavy-tailed priors to mismatch with talker variabilities to improve accuracy of speech recognition. The underlying theoretical framework is the recursive Bayesian learning we developed recently. This technique allows updating parameter estimates after each utterance and it can accommodate flexible forms of transformation functions as well as prior probability density functions. Through speaker adaptation, recognition accuracy was consistently improved for increasing number of adaptation data, and the performance was shown to be superior to existing on-line adaptation methods. In the current work, we further investigate the choices on the form of prior density function, transformation matrices, depth of hierarchical trees, and demonstrate their significant impact on recognition performance. We show that heavy-tailed priors are more robust for speaker adaptation, and the form of transformation matrix and the tree size should be adaptive to data size.

1. INTRODUCTION

On-line speaker adaptation is a practical method of coping with talker variabilities to improve accuracy of speech recognition. Several approaches appeared in the literature [3, 6, 10, 17, 18] for on-line speaker adaptation. One approach [17, 18] used EM algorithm or segmental k-means training algorithm sequentially to on-line test speech to accomplish unsupervised learning of model parameters. Since the accumulated sufficient statistics from each past utterance are computed using the model parameters updated at that time, the model parameter estimates are not as accurate as batch training.

Another approach [8] uses an incremental version of the EM algorithm proposed in [14]. In incremental EM approach, when the complete-data likelihood has the regular exponential-family form, the E step reduces to incrementally computing and maintaining the conditional sufficient statistics, and M step to computing the ML/MAP estimates given these conditional sufficient statistics. In the k-th iteration, the conditional sufficient statistics of current observation are computed using the k-1-th model estimates, others are unchanged, as opposed to the batch version, and after each M step the conditional sufficient statistics of all the training data are recalculated using the fastest parameter estimates. In incremental EM training, eventhough likelihood is not guaranteed to increase as in the batch EM algorithm [2], its convergence is recently proved by Csiszar’s alternating minimization procedure [9]. However, as pointed by Digalakis [6], this incremental EM algorithm is not an on-line algorithm since multiple passes through the data are performed and storage of current value of the conditional sufficient statistics from each past observations is required. Digalakis [6] suggested modifications to the incremental EM algorithm to enable its on-line computation. However, convergence of this modified incremental EM is still open.

On-line quasi-Bayes learning [10] approximates the successive posterior distributions by the “closest” tractable distribution within a given class P under the criterion that both distributions have the same mode. Then the EM algorithm is applied and the hyperparameters of the approximate posterior distribution and model parameters are incrementally updated. Empirical evidence showed that the quasi-Bayes algorithm does converge to a reasonable solution in terms of improving recognition rate and it has a similar behavior with the batch MAP algorithm [10].

2. ON-LINE BAYESIAN LEARNING FOR TREE-STRUCTURED TRANSFORMATION PARAMETERS

In this section, we briefly summarize recursive Bayesian learning for tree-structured transformation parameters [16]. Assume that $g$ is a collection of $g_1, \ldots, g_k$ are $k$ successively independent blocks of speech feature vectors and are described by a probability density function with parameter $\eta$. Let $Q_{k+1}(\eta, \eta^{(k)})$ denote the auxiliary function of log likelihood as defined in EM algorithm [4, 13] and $p(\eta|\phi)$ be the prior pdf of $\eta$ with parameter $\phi$. Define $R_{k+1}(\eta, \eta^{(k)}) = Q_{k+1}(\eta, \eta^{(k)}) \cdot log p(\eta|\phi)$, which becomes the auxiliary function of log posterior likelihood. Let $\xi_{k}(\eta, \eta^{(k)}) = R_{k+1}(\eta, \eta^{(k)}) - R_{k}(\eta, \eta^{(k)}) = Q_{k+1}(\eta, \eta^{(k)})$. Then a recursive estimation algorithm can be derived as

$$\eta^{(k+1)} = \eta^{(k)} + \xi_{k}(\eta, \eta^{(k)})$$

where recursive computation of $H_{k+1}(\eta^{(k)})$ is approximated as $\frac{1}{k+1} \sum_{k=1}^{k+1} I_{\eta|\phi}(q|\eta^{(k)}) + I_{\eta}(q|\eta^{(k)})$, $I_{\eta|\phi}(q|\eta^{(k)})$ is the conditional expectation of the complete-data information matrix given $q$, $I_{\eta}(q)$ is prior information matrix, i.e., negative Hessian matrix of log $p(\eta|\phi)$. The optimal choice of $\xi_k$ at each step is determined by line search [12] along the direction of $H_{k+1}(\eta^{(k)}) = 1$ to maximize $\frac{1}{k+1} R_{k+1}(\eta, \eta^{(k)})$, which is approximated by $\frac{1}{k+1} \sum_{k=1}^{k+1} I_{\eta}(\eta^{(k+1)} - I_{\eta}(\eta^{(k)}))$.

Continuous density hidden Markov models of isolated words are adapted with state-dependent observation pdfs being Gaussian mixture densities. Affine transformation [5] is applied to the observations in the feature space, i.e., $Q = AX + b$, and it is equivalent to a constrained model space transformation on both the mean vectors and covariance matrices of Gaussian densities. For the ith state and
mth mixture, the transformation has the form of
\[ \lambda = G_y(c, m) = \left( c_{1,m}, A_y(c, m), b_x^{(y)}(c, m) \right) \]  
\[ (2) \]

The transformation function \( G_y(c, m) \) has \( C \) clusters with
\[ \eta^{(y)} = \sum_{c=1}^{C} \zeta_c \]  
\[ (\zeta_c, m) \text{ is assumed to be labeled by a cluster membership } \Omega_c \text{. Details of derivations can be found in [16].} \]

A hierarchical tree of the entire set of HMM Gaussian parameters is employed to dynamically control the transformation tying and the prior knowledge of Gaussian parameters is incorporated to estimate the transformation parameters. The Gaussian densities are clustered by using the K-means algorithm with a divergence measure [3, 16]. In [3], a bottom-up strategy is proposed to automatically search for the transformation parameters of each Gaussian mixture component, the computational cost is \( O(G\log d) \), where \( G \) is the number of Gaussian components and \( d \) the the depth of the hierarchical tree. In [16], we use a more efficient strategy, i.e., white-black tree based bottom-up top-down strategy, for on-line Bayesian learning of affine transformation parameters, where a bottom-up probability of learning the type of prior knowledge available. Different choices of the priors in principle will lead to different robustness properties of the learning procedure. Because there is no conjugate priors can have a pronounced effect on the answers even if the data is in conflict with the specified prior information [1]. On the other hand, the distributions with heavy tails, such as a-stable, generalized Gaussian and Student-\( t \) families, tend to be more robust than the standard choices.

In the current work, we adopt the generalized Gaussian density priors (GGD), which have the form
\[ p(\eta|\gamma) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1/\gamma)} \{ 2^\gamma \pi \}^{1/2} \exp\left\{ -\frac{(\eta - \mu_\gamma)^2}{2\Sigma_{\eta \gamma}^{-1}} \right\} \]  
\[ (3) \]
where \( f(\eta|\gamma) = (\eta - \mu_\gamma)^2 \Sigma_{\eta \gamma}^{-1} \gamma^{-1} \) and \( \gamma \) the shape parameter, and \( \Gamma(\cdot) \) the Gamma function. The pdf is also known as the power exponential distribution, or \( \alpha \)-Gaussian etc. The GGD model contains the Gaussian and Laplacian density functions as special cases when using \( \gamma = 2 \) and \( \gamma = 1 \), respectively. For decreasing values of \( \gamma \), the tails of the distribution become increasingly flat. The pdf exhibits an algebraic singularity at \( \eta = \mu_\gamma \), for \( \gamma < 1 \), and as \( \gamma \) goes to zero, \( p(\eta|\gamma) \) goes to infinity. Fig. 1 illustrates the distributions corresponding to \( \gamma = 0.7, 1, 2, \text{ and } 5 \).

The prior information matrix is given as
\[ I_p(\eta) = -\theta^2 \log p(\eta|\gamma) \frac{\partial \eta}{\partial \eta} \]  
\[ (4) \]
where \( \eta_0 \) denotes the iteration number. Note that when \( \gamma = 2 \), \( f(\eta|\gamma)^{-1/2} = 1 \) and the above equations are the explicit solution of maximum likelihood estimation.

Empirical Bayes approach has been commonly used to estimate the parameters \( \phi \) of prior densities [1, 7]. In the empirical Bayes approach, speaker independent training data set \( O \) for estimating hyperparameters \( \phi \) can be divided into different subsets \( O_1, \cdots, O_S \) that correspond to \( S \) different speakers and each has the transformation parameter \( \eta_{s,c} \). The parameter \( \eta_{s,c} \) is accounted as random observations generated by a common prior distribution \( p(\eta_{s,c}|\phi_s) \).

The marginal distribution of training data \( O \) can be written as
\[ p(O|\phi_s) = \prod_{s=1}^{S} p(O_1|\phi_s)p(\eta_{s,c}|\phi_s)d\eta_{s,c} \]  
\[ (5) \]

There are two methods for parameter estimation of prior density, namely moment approach and type-II ML approach [1]. The moment approach applies when it is possible to relate prior moments to moments of the marginal distribution \( p(O|\phi_s) \). This method is often difficult to apply except in few simple cases as provided in [3, 10]. In type-II maximum likelihood approach, a maximum likelihood estimate, \( \hat{\phi}_c \), is obtained by maximizing \( p(O|\phi_s) \), and \( p(\eta_{s,c}|\phi_s) \) is called type-II maximum likelihood prior [1]. However, \( \hat{\phi}_c \) is rather difficult to obtain due to the integration in Eqn. (5). Although EM algorithm can be applied as suggested in [4], it is often difficult to derive an explicit expression of solution in the E step of EM.

To alleviate the problem, we attempt to maximize an approximation of the integral in Eqn. (5). We assume that for any \( \phi_s, p(O_s, \eta_{s,c}|\phi_s) \) is sharply peaked at \( \eta_{s,c} = \arg\max_{\eta_{s,c}} p(O_s, \eta_{s,c}|\phi_s) \) and we try to find \( \phi_s \) to maximize \( p(O_s, \eta_{s,c}|\phi_s) \). This leads to an alternative maximization procedure over \( \eta_s \) and \( \phi_s \) as suggested in [7], i.e.
\[ \eta^{(k)}_{s} = \arg\max_{\eta_{s,c}} p(O_s, \eta_{s,c}|\phi^{(k-1)}_s) \]  
\[ (6) \]
\[ \phi^{(k+1)}_s = \arg\max_{\phi_s} p(O_s, \eta^{(k)}_s|\phi_s) \]  
\[ (7) \]

Here Eqn. (6) is used in the posterior estimate of \( \eta_{s,c} \) and it can be solved by the batch EM gradient method in [16]. For Eqn. (7), there is no closed form solution, except for the case \( \gamma = 2 \) (Gaussian). For each given \( \eta^{(k)}_s, \phi^{(k+1)}_s \) can be iteratively solved as
\[ \mu^{(k+1)}_s = \sum_{i=1}^{S} \frac{f(\eta^{(k)}_s|\phi^{(k+1)}_s(i))^{1/2} - \mu^{(k)}_s}{f(\eta^{(k)}_s|\phi^{(k+1)}_s(i))^{1/2} - \mu^{(k)}_s} \]  
\[ (8) \]
\[ \Sigma^{(k+1)}_s = \sum_{i=1}^{S} \frac{f(\eta^{(k)}_s|\phi^{(k+1)}_s(i))^{1/2} - \mu^{(k)}_s}{f(\eta^{(k)}_s|\phi^{(k+1)}_s(i))^{1/2} - \mu^{(k)}_s} \]  
\[ (9) \]

![Figure 1. GGD's with unit variance and shape parameters γ = 0.7, 1, 2, and 5](image-url)
4. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The on-line Bayesian learning approach is applied to on-line speaker adaptation using a vocabulary of 26-letter English alphabet. Two severely mismatched speech databases: the OGI ISOLET and the TI46, were used for evaluating the adaptation algorithm. A full description of these two corpora can be found in [10]. For speaker independent training, the OGI ISOLET database was used. It consists of 150 speakers, each speaking the letter twice. For on-line Bayesian adaptation and testing, the English alphabet subset of the TI46 isolated word corpus was used. Among the 16 talkers, data from 4 males were incomplete. Therefore, only 12 speakers (4 males and 8 females) were used in this study. Each person uttered each of the letters 26 times, where ten were collected in the same session and the remaining 16 were collected in 8 different sessions with 2 in each session. For each person and each letter, we divided equally those 16 tokens collected in eight different sessions into two parts, one for adaptive training, another for testing. Each letter was modeled by a single left-to-right five-state CDHMM. Each state had a Gaussian mixture density of four components with each component density having a diagonal covariance matrix. The speech feature was extracted based on a tenth-order LPC analysis, where the feature components were 12 cepstral coefficients, a normalized log energy and their first time derivatives.

A number of experiments were conducted, which included a comparison among Generalized Gaussian prior models with different γ’s, a comparison among using diagonal, block diagonal and full transformation matrices, a comparison among the use of different depths of hierarchical tree. By default, we used six layered hierarchical tree and Gaussian prior in the experiments.

I. Robustness of Priors

We investigated the robustness of generalized Gaussian prior models. Here we used block diagonal matrix and the depth of hierarchical tree was 6. The recognition performance by using three values of the shape parameter γ = 2, 1, 0.7 are shown in Fig. 2. As the results indicate, the recognition performance was improved when using priors with heavy tails than using standard Gaussian. There was little difference between the results for γ = 1 and γ = 0.7.

II. Full, Block Diagonal and Diagonal Transformation Matrices

A transformation matrix can be chosen as full, diagonal or block diagonal. The use of block diagonal matrix is based on the assumption that a separate transformation can be used for each type of speech features, including cepstral coefficients, energy, first-order time derivatives, resulting in a block diagonal transformation matrix in which parameter correlation is considered only within the same set of features. The choice of the transformation matrix structure is generally a trade-off between the number of parameters to be estimated and the amount of adaptation data required. The problem is referred to as model parameterization complexity. Previously, Leggetter and Woodland [11] investigated the effect on recognition performance by taking transformation matrix to be either full or diagonal in maximum likelihood linear regression batch adaptation approach. Here we investigate the effect in online Bayesian learning of tree-structured affine transformation parameters.

We tested the effect of model parameterization complexity on recognition performance by using full, block diagonal as well as diagonal matrices while adaptation was using different depths of hierarchical tree, where the total adaptation data were 10 utterances per speaker in one case and were 100 in another.

Fig. 3 gives the recognition performance when using the small amount of adaptation data. All transformations provided improvements over the initial model, but the effect of diagonal matrices was limited. The full matrices gave a substantial improvement when using one or three layered trees. However, as the depth of the tree was increased, the amount of data allocated to each leaf became small and the matrices were poorly estimated, and thus the performance of full matrices dropped rapidly. With diagonal matrices, as deeper trees were used the performance gradually increased; however, this effect was very small and using 500 diagonal matrices was only 5.0% better than using one diagonal matrix. The amount of data needed to estimate a diagonal matrix is much smaller than that of a full matrix. This indicates that deeper tree can be used for diagonal matrices than for full matrices with the same amount of data. The results show that increasing the depth of the tree did improve performance, but the performance never reached that of the full matrix. It is clear that the off-diagonal terms accounting for the interdependencies between elements of feature vectors were important.

Fig. 4 gives the recognition performance when using the large amounts of adaptation data. In this case, the amount of data allocated to each leaf were abundant and the matrices were well estimated. Since full transformation matrices...
sufficient amount of data was used, good recognition per-
tute, which indicates underfitting the adaptation data. As
the above results, we see that a critical issue is obtaining
performance was achieved by trees with deeper depths. From
data was presented, the performance of all trees gradually
varied with the number of adaptation
depths, which is termed as the problem of
utterances. We observe that when the number of adap-
tation data was small, good recognition performances were
achieved by trees with shallow depths, and trees with deeper
depths gave poor performance, since deeper tree structure
overfitted the limited training data. As more adap-
tation data was presented, the performance of all trees gradually
improved, but the trees with shallow depths improved lit-
tle, which indicates underfitting the adaptation data. As
sufficient amount of data was used, good recognition per-
ance was achieved by trees with deeper depths. From
the above results, we see that a critical issue is obtaining
right-sized trees, i.e., trees which neither underfit nor overfit
the adaptation data.

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The proposed on-line Bayesian learning technique allows
updating parameter estimates after each utterance and can accommodate flexible forms of transformation functions as
well as prior probability density functions. In this work, we
suggested using GGD as priors for on-line Bayesian learning of tree-structured transformation parameters. Fig. 5 gives the recognition results of on-line learning of block-diagonal transformation matrices with various tree depths while varying the number of adaptation
utterances. We observe that when the number of adap-
tation data was small, good recognition performances were
achieved by trees with shallow depths, and trees with deeper
depths gave poor performance, since deeper tree structure
overfitted the limited training data. As more adaptation
data was presented, the performance of all trees gradually
improved, but the trees with shallow depths improved lit-
tle, which indicates underfitting the adaptation data. As
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formance was achieved by trees with deeper depths. From
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right-sized trees, i.e., trees which neither underfit nor overfit
the adaptation data.

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