Using Sparse Classification Outputs as Feature Observations for Noise-robust ASR

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Abstract
Sparse Classification (SC) is an exemplar-based approach to Automatic Speech Recognition. By representing noisy speech as a sparse linear combination of speech and noise exemplars, SC allows separating speech from noise. The approach has shown its robustness in noisy conditions, but at the cost of degradation in clean conditions. In this work, rather than using the state probability estimates obtained with SC directly in a Viterbi decoding, the probability distributions of SC are modeled by Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs), for which purpose we introduce a novel transformation. Results on the AURORA-2 task show that our proposed approach is effective in all high SNR conditions in both test set A and B. We achieve a word error rate reduction of 47.4% and 29.9% averaged cross 0-20dB SNR in test set A and B respectively. The reduction rate at clean goes up to 70.6% relative to the SC baseline.

Index Terms: template-based ASR, noise robustness, speech modeling

1. Introduction
Sparse Classification (SC) or Sparse Coding [1, 2, 3], a non-parametric exemplar-based approach to automatic speech recognition, has shown superior robustness in very noisy conditions. Noisy speech is modeled as a linear combination of both clean speech and noise exemplars; when a suitable dictionary of speech and noise exemplars is available, the exemplar-based model is inherently noisy robust. In SC, each speech exemplar, which spans multiple frames to model dependencies between neighboring frames, can be labelled with a sequence of sub-word units. In this research, we used state labels from an HMM framework to label subsequent frames of the exemplars. Using the weights of the linear combination of speech exemplars these labels were then used to estimate unscaled likelihoods of the states in an unknown speech segment. These likelihoods can then be normalized to obtain probabilities. In the well-known AURORA-2 task [4], SC with a classical Viterbi back-end outperforms traditional GMM-based systems significantly in matched noisy conditions [1], at the cost of a degradation of its performance in cleaner conditions.

In [5] it has been shown that transforming posterior probability estimates for context-independent phones obtained with a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) into a representation that makes them suitable for modeling as Gaussian Mixtures (similar to conventional MFCC features) can lead to improved performance in both clean and noisy conditions. In that approach the phone posterior probabilities estimated by a conventional three-layer MLP are used as base features after a two-step transformation, namely Gaussianization followed by decorrelation. Finally, the resulting so-called “tandem features” are processed by a conventional Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM)-based speech decoding system.

In this work, we investigated a similar approach for the SC output posterior probabilities. This is not evident: unlike the classifiers in [5], in which all phones get a non-zero probability mass, the probability vectors resulting from SC contain many “hard” zeros [1]. Moreover, the SC system yields posterior probability estimates for 179 states, instead of for the 18 phones that are relevant for the AURORA-2 task. As a result, it is not possible to use a straightforward log-transform, perhaps followed by a PCA for dimensionality reduction. To alleviate this problem, we here present an alternative way to whiten the SC probabilities into features that are suitable for being modeled by GMMs, by replacing all hard zeros (and all near-zero probability estimates) by samples drawn from an appropriately chosen Gaussian. The transformed SC features are modeled by GMMs in the traditional GMM-HMM based way. Experimental results on AURORA-2 task show that the proposed approach is effective in all conditions, except SNR -5dB in test set B.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows, in Section 2 we review the basic properties of the SC approach. Then we describe our proposed tandem approach and experiments in Section 3 and Section 4, respectively. This is followed by a discussion in Section 5. Finally conclusions and future plan can be found in Section 6.

2. Review of Sparse Classification
In this section, we first provide a brief review of the principle of the exemplar-based sparse representation and estimation of class conditional probabilities. And in Sec-
In computing the likelihoods special attention must be paid to proper balancing between the likelihoods of the silence states on the one hand and the speech states on the other. As in [1] we increased the likelihood of the silence exemplars in the SC system and that they may not generalize very well to data characteristics that are not represented in the exemplar dictionary. As a consequence, the posterior probability estimates from an SC system may occasionally be biased to the wrong states. Transforming the SC probabilities into features and training GMMs on these features may help to improve the capability of the output of a non-parametric classifier to generalize to unseen conditions. Therefore, we developed a method for transforming SC probability estimates such that they can be modeled by a GMM.

3. SC Probability-based Features

In the tandem approach proposed by [5], Gaussianized and decorrelated phone posterior features have already shown better performance on both clean and noisy speech than a conventional GMM or a hybrid system [9]. Similarly, we propose a GSC system in this work, where the estimated state posterior probabilities from SC are Gaussianized into features that can be used in a GMM/HMM system. The architecture is shown in the flowchart in Figure 1.

As briefly mentioned in Section 1, in each time frame many states receive a zero activation in the Sparse Representation. This results in a large proportion of hard zeros in the probability vectors produced by the SC system. This makes it impossible to Gaussianize the probability estimates by means of a straightforward log-transform. Moreover, especially in noisy cases, states with very small non-zero values in the SC probability vector are probably due to random speech exemplars, used in the linear SC approximation to fill in the gap between the unknown noisy speech and the noise-free speech exemplars. Consequently, states with very low probabilities may not represent useful information.

To alleviate this problem, a modified approach is de-
Table 1: WER in %. Grid search on validation data across \( \mu \) and \( \sigma \) in Eq. 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \mu )</th>
<th>-10</th>
<th>-9</th>
<th>-8</th>
<th>-7</th>
<th>-6</th>
<th>-5</th>
<th>-4</th>
<th>-3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \sigma )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: WER in %. SC refers to the SC baseline and GSC refers to Tandem SC system. Relative improvements are given in the \%diff column.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SNR</th>
<th>test set A</th>
<th>test set B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clean</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-20 dB</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-5 dB</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

features, and uses a dictionary comprising 4000 clean exemplars, randomly extracted from the speech in the multi-condition training set and 4000 noise exemplars, also randomly selected from the multi-condition training set (by subtracting the corresponding clean speech signals). We used an exemplar size of 300ms (30 frames). For each frame, the output of the SC system is a 179 dimensional vector, corresponding to the posterior probability estimate of each state.

In order to obtain the optimal values of \( \mu \) and \( \sigma \), we performed a grid search with \( \mu \) varying from -10 to -3 and \( \sigma \) varying from 1 to 4 in steps of 1 on the validation data. The results (averaged over the five SNR conditions in the validation data) are shown in Table 1. The best pair of values \((\mu = -7, \sigma = 1)\) in terms of WER is used in the transformation defined by Eq. (4). In training the diagonal covariance GMMs, the Gaussian means are used for each state – this number was expected to be high enough to accurately model the distribution after application of Eq.4. Experiments are conducted in HTK [10]. The word error rates obtained for the test sets A and B are shown in Table 2.

4. Experimental Setup and Results

We used the aurora-2 database for our experiments, where a subset (755 utterances) of the multi-condition training data is set apart as the validation data set, which will be used to find optimal values for the parameters \( \mu \) and \( \sigma \) in Eq. (4). The utterances in this set are evenly distributed across SNR and noise types. The remaining data are used in training the GMMs. We used test set A (utterances corrupted by the same noise types as in the multi-condition training set) and test set B, containing utterances corrupted by four other noise types. Both test set A and B contain 4004 utterances consisting of a sequence of one to seven digits, 1001 utterances for each noise type. All utterances occur in seven noise levels, viz. clean, and SNR = 20, 15, 10, 5, 0, and -5 dB.

The conventional aurora-2 setup described in [4] is used in the SC system: 16 states are used for each of the 11 digit words and 3 states for the single silence model. To obtain the posterior probability estimates from the SC system, we used the same configuration as in [1] with a threshold \( \theta = 10^{-3} \). In a nutshell, the SC method operates on 23-dimensional Mel-scale magnitude

The purpose of the transformation in Eq. (4) is to obtain a distribution that is suitable for subsequent processing by a GMM/HMM decoding system. This means that we must shape and position the Gaussian that generates the random numbers to replace probability estimates \( < \theta \) in such a way that it forms the tail of the distributions of the probability estimates \( \geq \theta \), without overlapping too much with the latter distribution. The best performance is found when \( \mu \) is set to -7, which is close to our threshold value \( \theta \) in the log domain \([\ln(10^{-3}) = -6.9]\); if \( \mu \) decreases further, performance on the validation set decreases. This suggests that most of the hard zero’s in the original distribution must be considered as being part of the lower end of the tail of the non-zero distribution and
that the transformation needs to retain the continuity of the distribution. This is further supported by the fact that for lower $\mu$ the value of $\sigma$ must be increased. The fact that given $\mu = -7$ optimal performance is found for $\sigma = 1$ (and not $\sigma > 1$) indicates that substantial overlap with the distribution of the non-zero estimates should be avoided.

From Table 2 it can be seen that the GSC system, which uses the SC features in a conventional GMM/HMM system improves the performance of using the ‘raw’ SC output in a Viterbi search in all SNR conditions, except the -5 dB condition in test set B. In the 0-20dB SNR conditions the average relative WER reduction is 43.2% in test set A and 20.0% in test set B respectively. The relative reduction in the clean condition is as high as 70.6%.

As in [5], we have no completely convincing explanation for the improvement of the GSC system over the SC system. The GSC system uses more parameters, and it is given an extra opportunity to learn the structure in the data. The fact that the overall improvement in test set B is substantially smaller than in test set A is probably due to the fact that learning three-mixtures GMMs from the multi-condition training data does not solve the problem that the noise exemplars in the SC system do not cover the noises in test set B. Thus, it seems that training GMMs does improve the capability of the posterior estimates of the SC system to generalize, but that this is not enough to compensate for the basic problem that the noise exemplar dictionary of the SC system is essentially incomplete.

Comparing to state-of-the-art ETSI [11] in Table 3, the proposed GSC system shows its noise robustness in matched noisy conditions (test set A). Especially at SNR -5dB, SC already performs significantly better than ETSI (42.9% vs. 56.5%) and GSC decreased the WER by another 12% (absolute). However, GSC’s advantage cannot be generalized to unmatched noise types (test set B). A dramatic degradation of GSC’s WER can be found from 30% to 63% from test set A to B at SNR -5dB. Plus, although a promising boost of the WER at clean can be observed at clean from SC to GSC, GSC is still worse than ETSI.

<table>
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<tr>
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<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
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8. Conclusions and Future Work

In this work, we present a technique for transforming the output of an SC system in such a way that it becomes suitable for being modeled by means of GMMs. The purpose of this operation is to increase the capability of the non-parametric SC system to generalize to data that are not well covered by the exemplars. The results for the AURORA-2 task show that the approach does indeed improve the generalization power of the SC system substantially. However, the generalization is not enough to fully compensate for the fact that the noise exemplars do not cover some realistic noises.

Follow-up research can be done along two lines. First, there are several options for better handling the distributions of the posterior estimates. For example, instead of trying to force the distributions into a Gaussian framework, a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) can be directly used on raw posterioris [12] or the KL-divergence based HMM approach [13] can be explored that removes the need for transforming the posterior distributions. The second line is to investigate the effect of the reduction of probability dimensions, for example using LDA or PCA, in order to scale well to large vocabulary tasks.

7. References