

Data-Driven Unsupervised Adaptation of Acoustic-Prosodic Models

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Abstract

Training categorical prosody models for spoken language systems requires a significant amount of speech data annotated with the discrete labels of interest (such as boundary marks or word prominence information). In practice, the difficulty and expense incurred in producing corpora with rich prosodic transcriptions severely limits their integration within applications. In this paper, we explore the possibility of using a large, unlabeled corpus to adapt, in an unsupervised fashion, acoustic-prosodic models trained from a small, human-annotated seed dataset. Our experiments show that the proposed adaptation scheme improves the ability of the acoustic-prosodic model to distinguish between prosodic categories. On a test set derived from the Boston University Radio News Corpus, the adapted models reduced pitch accent detection error rate by 4.3% relative to the seed acoustic-prosodic models trained from the annotated data.

1. Introduction

Categorical representations of prosody based on annotation standards such as ToBI [1] have been shown to be useful for designing spoken language systems, including automatic speech recognition. Models linking discrete prosody labels to linguistic elements (words and syllables) allow us to tap into the parallel stream of information (supplementary to traditional segment-level acoustic-phonetic features, such as MFCCs) contained in speech prosody, in a robust and principled fashion. Hasegawa-Johnson et al. [2] used joint prosodic-phonetic acoustic models and a prosody-enriched language model to improve speech recognition performance. Subsequently, we presented a scheme for using categorical prosody models decoupled from the ASR to rescore N -best lists [3] and to directly enrich ASR lattices with symbolic prosody [4] for improved speech recognition performance.

The key to developing categorical prosody models for spoken language applications is the availability of prosody-annotated speech corpora. Producing such corpora, however, is a laborious and expensive exercise - with the result that such corpora are usually small in size and are available only for select domains. This presents a sparsity issue for training the prosody models. For instance, a Gaussian mixture acoustic-prosodic model (GMM) may require several hundred free parameters to be trained with just a few thousand training samples, causing the model to overfit the training set and prevent generalization to unseen data.

In this paper, we present a technique for unsupervised adaptation of GMM-based acoustic-prosodic models using a much

larger, unannotated dataset. Our scheme involves weighting the adaptation data using the seed models (trained from a small, human-annotated corpus), followed by maximum *a-posteriori* (MAP) adaptation of the seed models using a weighted variant of the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm. We show that the adapted models outperform the seed models on the binary pitch accent (presence vs. absence) detection task. The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the data corpus used in our experiments. Section 3 describes the acoustic and linguistic components of the baseline pitch accent detection system. Section 4 provides an in-depth description of our adaptation scheme. Section 5 summarizes our experimental results and finally, Section 6 concludes the paper with a brief discussion of our findings and outlines future directions for research.

2. Data Corpus

The Boston University Radio News Corpus (BU-RNC) [5] consists of about 3 hours of read news broadcast speech from 6 speakers (3 male, 3 female) with ToBI-style pitch accent and boundary tone annotations. The entire corpus consisted of 29,573 words, which we split into a training set (14,719 words) and an evaluation set (14,854 words). After eliminating story repetitions from the evaluation set, its useful size was reduced to 10,273 words. We then performed a 10-fold split of the evaluation set, with 90% (9,246 words) of the data in held-out development sets and 10% (1,027 words) in test sets. These partitions were carried out in such a way that all 10 cross-validation test sets were independent of each other. We chose a much smaller training set than usual to simulate real-world situations where very little prosodically annotated data is available, and to test the efficacy of our algorithm in a data-starved scenario. As before, various types of pitch accents annotated in the BU-RNC were collapsed to binary labels that indicated presence or absence of pitch accents. A total of 7,002 words (47.5%) in the training set carried any type of pitch accent.

The adaptation dataset was derived from the WSJ1 (CSR-II) [6] broadcast news speech recognition corpus and consisted of approximately 22,400 utterances (52 hours, 407,000 words). This corpus consists of just the speech data and associated transcriptions, and does not provide symbolic transcription of pitch accents or other prosodic events. The unsupervised algorithms described in the following sections used this corpus to adapt the seed model.

Table 1: Acoustic-prosodic features

| Feature | Description |
|------------|--|
| VOWEL_DUR | $\max_{v \in w_i} \text{norm_dur}(v)$ |
| F0AVG_UTT | $ \text{avgF0}(w_i) - \text{avgF0}(\text{utt}) $ |
| FORANGE | $\text{maxF0}(w_i) - \text{minF0}(w_i)$ |
| F0AVG_PAVG | $ \text{avgF0}(w_i) - \text{avgF0}(w_{i-1}) $ |
| F0AVG_NAVG | $ \text{avgF0}(w_i) - \text{avgF0}(w_{i+1}) $ |
| F0MAX_PMAX | $ \text{maxF0}(w_i) - \text{maxF0}(w_{i-1}) $ |
| F0MAX_NMAX | $ \text{maxF0}(w_i) - \text{maxF0}(w_{i+1}) $ |
| ERMS_AVG | $\text{rmse}(w_i)/\text{rmse}(\text{utt})$ |
| ERMS_PRMS | $\text{rmse}(w_i)/\text{rmse}(w_{i-1})$ |
| ERMS_NRMS | $\text{rmse}(w_i)/\text{rmse}(w_{i+1})$ |

3. Baseline system

The prosodic event detector used in our experiments follows our work in [7], where we proposed a maximum *a-posteriori* (MAP) structure for the prosody recognizer. Thus, our system chooses the sequence of binary pitch accent labels \mathbf{P} that maximizes their posterior probability given the acoustic-prosodic features \mathbf{A}_p and the word sequence \mathbf{W} , according to Eq. 1.

$$\mathbf{P}^* = \arg \max_{\mathbf{P}} p(\mathbf{P} | \mathbf{A}_p, \mathbf{W}) \quad (1)$$

We simplify the above expression by first applying Bayes' rule and then by invoking the assumption that the acoustic-prosodic features are conditionally independent of the lexical evidence, given the sequence of pitch accent labels. Eq. 1 can then be rewritten as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}^* &= \arg \max_{\mathbf{P}} p(\mathbf{A}_p, \mathbf{W} | \mathbf{P}) p(\mathbf{P}) \\ &\approx \arg \max_{\mathbf{P}} p(\mathbf{A}_p | \mathbf{P})^\gamma p(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{P}) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

In Eq. 2, the RHS involves two factors - a) the prosodic acoustic model $p(\mathbf{A}_p | \mathbf{P})$, which provides the likelihood of the acoustic-prosodic features given the pitch accent label and b) the prosodic language model $p(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{P})$, which relates the word sequence to the pitch accent label sequence. A weighting parameter γ controls the contribution of the acoustic-prosodic model; low weights imply that the prosodic language model plays a more important role in classification, and vice-versa.

3.1. Prosodic acoustic model

The acoustic model is implemented as a 25-mixture Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) with diagonal covariance structure. Since the pitch accent labels are binary (accent vs. no accent), we trained two GMMs, one for each class, using the EM algorithm. In order to test the utility of our method in sparse data conditions, we also trained more complex seed models with 45 mixtures. Word-level acoustic-prosodic features for training these GMMs are obtained from ASR forced alignment at the word- and phone-level, and are based on previous work on prosody labeling. Table 1 lists a total of 10 features extracted from the F0 track, energy, and vowel duration cues.

3.2. Prosodic language model (PLM)

The PLM is a joint probability distribution over the word sequence \mathbf{W} and binary pitch accent tags \mathbf{P} . We implemented it by creating compound tokens $\mathbf{W}' = (\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{P})$ and training a standard back-off trigram LM with these tokens. This model is

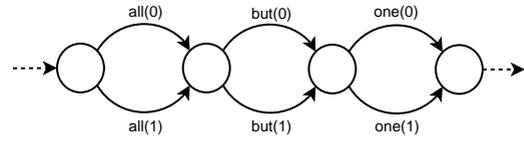


Figure 1: Word confusion network with prosodic variants

trained only on the annotated data from the BU-RNC. We used the SRILM toolkit [8] to train the prosodic language model.

3.3. Labeling algorithm

Our word-level pitch accent labeling implementation begins with the construction of a word graph (“sausage”) for each test utterance, as shown in Fig. 1. Accented and non-accented variants of a word form the arcs between successive nodes in the graph. Next, we evaluate likelihood scores for the two prosodic variants using the acoustic model and embed these within the corresponding arcs. The graph is then rescored with the seed PLM. Finally, Eq. 2 is implemented using the Viterbi algorithm to determine the best path through the resulting lattice.

4. Acoustic-prosodic model adaptation

One straightforward approach to adaptation involves using the seed prosody models to obtain binary pitch accent labels for the adaptation data, and using this automatically annotated data to adapt the seed acoustic models using standard EM-based MAP [9]. However, the seed models are likely to exhibit a higher-than-desirable error rate for pitch accent detection on the unlabeled data, thereby reducing the utility of those data for adaptation. Instead, we propose a soft adaptation approach in which the seed models assign posterior probability scores for prosodic variants of each word. These scores are then used to adapt the seed acoustic-prosodic models using weighted EM-MAP.

4.1. Adaptation data weighting

We set up the pitch accent detection framework for the unlabeled adaptation data using the seed models as described in Section 3.3. Due to the back-off structure of the prosodic LM, the lattices generated by rescored the word graph with the seed models no longer retain the original sausage structure.

Next, we generate posterior probabilities for each compound token $W' = (W, P)$ by a two-step process: 1) link posteriors $p(l | \mathbf{A}_p)$ are computed for each link l in the rescored lattice using a variant of the forward-backward algorithm and 2) links corresponding to the same compound token are collapsed to generate a confusion network identical to the one that was originally created for labeling, except that the arcs in the network now contain compound token posterior probabilities computed from the prosodic acoustic and language models. This technique for generating posteriors and confusion networks is borrowed from minimum word error rate decoding for ASR [10, 11]. These posterior probabilities are used as adaptation weights in the modified EM-MAP scheme.

4.2. Weighted EM-MAP

We propose a novel, weighted EM-MAP scheme for soft adaptation of the acoustic-prosodic models using posterior probabilities obtained from the prosodic confusion networks. This method differs from conventional EM training for GMM esti-

mation in that each adaptation sample has a weight associated with it. Samples with larger weights (indicative of high confidence) contribute more to the adaptation process, whereas samples with low confidence do not have a significant influence on the adapted estimates. A distinctive feature of this approach is that we do not divide the unlabeled data into classes based on confidence scores; rather, all adaptation samples affect both acoustic-prosodic models simultaneously, but to different degrees. The relative influence of each sample on the GMMs is dictated by the external information source, in this case the posterior probability assigned to each sample by the seed models.

We begin by defining a likelihood function that incorporates the seed model weights as shown in Eq. 3.

$$\begin{aligned} L(\Theta|\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{B}) &= p(\mathbf{X}|\Theta, \mathbf{B}) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \omega_k p_k(x_i|\theta_k, \beta_i) \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where $p_k(x_i|\theta_k, \beta_i) \equiv \mathcal{N}(x_i; \mu_k, \beta_i^{-1}\Sigma_k)$. This function differs from the traditional likelihood function due to integration of the confidence weights $\mathbf{B} = \{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_N\}$ associated with vector adaptation samples $\mathbf{X} = \{x_1, \dots, x_N\}$. The rationale behind this modified likelihood function is that adaptation samples associated with a large weight “see” a narrow, focused distribution, whereas samples with low confidence weights “see” a diffuse, flat distribution. As we will see, this formulation leads to parameter update equations that emphasize samples with high confidence and vice-versa.

Following the notation of [12], the modified auxiliary function for EM is then given by Eq. 4 (the superscript in Θ^g indicates an initial “guess” for the parameter Θ).

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\Theta, \Theta^g) &= \mathbb{E}(\log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}|\Theta, \mathbf{B})|\mathbf{X}, \Theta^g, \mathbf{B}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}} \log p(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}|\Theta, \mathbf{B}) p(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{X}, \Theta^g, \mathbf{B}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ik} \log(\omega_k p_k(x_i|\theta_k, \beta_i)) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $c_{ik} = p(k|x_i, \Theta^g, \beta_i) = \frac{\omega_k p_k(x_i|\theta_k^g, \beta_i)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \omega_l^g p_l(x_i|\theta_l^g, \beta_i)}$.

Using basic vector and matrix calculus [12], this modified auxiliary function can be maximized w.r.t the unknown parameters to obtain the following maximum-likelihood (ML) update equations for the mixture weights ω_k , mean vectors μ_k and covariance matrices Σ_k .

$$\omega'_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ik} \quad (5)$$

$$\mu'_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i c_{ik} x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i c_{ik}} \quad (6)$$

$$\Sigma'_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i c_{ik} (x_i - \mu'_k)(x_i - \mu'_k)^t}{\sum_{i=1}^N c_{ik}} \quad (7)$$

These modified update equations make intuitive sense: Eq. 6 is the mean of the adaptation samples weighted not only by the mixture occupation likelihoods c_{ik} as in conventional EM, but also by the confidence weights β_i . This suggests that adaptation samples with large confidence weights influence the estimated GMM mean vectors to a greater extent than samples

with low weights. Similarly, Eq. 7 implies that the distributions are focused around samples with large confidence weights.

While the ML update equations provide intuition on how the confidence weights impact parameter estimation, our task in this paper is to adapt existing seed acoustic-prosodic models using unlabeled data. Maximum *a-posteriori* (MAP) adaptation is the traditional approach to this problem. Following the approach of [9], we construct a prior distribution for the GMM parameters by assuming the form of a Dirichlet distribution for the mixture weights ω_k and a normal-Wishart distribution for the mean vectors μ_k and covariance matrices Σ_k (Eq. 8).

$$\begin{aligned} P(\Theta) &\propto \prod_{k=1}^K \omega_k^{\lambda_k} |\Sigma_k^{-1}|^{\alpha_k - d/2} \\ &\cdot \exp\left(-\frac{\tau_k}{2}(\mu_k - m_k)^t \Sigma_k^{-1} (\mu_k - m_k)\right) \\ &\cdot \exp(-\text{tr}(U_k \Sigma_k^{-1})) \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The prior “hyperparameters” λ_k , α_k , τ_k , m_k and U_k are computed using the original (labeled) seed training data in a manner similar to that described in [13]. This leads to the following update equations for weighted EM-MAP.

$$\omega'_k = \frac{\lambda_k + \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ik}}{N + \sum_{k=1}^K \lambda_k} \quad (9)$$

$$\mu'_k = \frac{\tau_k m_k + \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i c_{ik} x_i}{\tau_k + \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i c_{ik}} \quad (10)$$

$$\Sigma'_k = \frac{2U_k + S_k + M_k}{2\alpha_k - d + \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ik}} \quad (11)$$

where, for ease of notation, we have defined S_k and M_k as follows:

$$S_k = \sum_{i=1}^N \beta_i c_{ik} (x_i - \mu'_k)(x_i - \mu'_k)^t \quad (12)$$

$$M_k = \tau_k (m_k - \mu'_k)(m_k - \mu'_k)^t \quad (13)$$

As with standard EM, Eqs. 9, 10, and 11 are evaluated iteratively until convergence.

5. Experimental results

The BU-RNC dataset was split into training and evaluation sets as described in Section 2. The evaluation set was further divided into 10 held-out development and cross-validation test sets with 90% of evaluation data (9,246 samples) in the former and 10% (1,027 samples) in the latter. The 10 cross-validation test sets were independent of one another.

We first trained seed acoustic-prosodic GMMs and prosodic language models as described in Section 3. For testing our adaptation scheme in sparse data conditions, we trained more complex seed GMMs with 45 mixtures; we were forced to use diagonal covariance matrices for these models because full-covariance matrices quickly became ill-conditioned as a result of data sparsity. Using our adaptation technique, it is possible to start from these seed diagonal covariance models and train full-covariance models that can better fit the data, possibly leading to improved classification performance as well.

The adaptation data was scored using the seed acoustic-prosodic models and the prosodic language models to generate

Table 2: Pitch accent classification error

| Model | Held-out | Test |
|---------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Seed 1 (25 / diag) | 27.00% | 26.52% |
| Seed 2 (45 / diag) | 26.40% | 26.39% |
| Adapted (45 / full) | 25.21% | 25.26% |

lattices encoding prosodic variants of each word in the adaptation set. Posterior probabilities (confidence weights) were then obtained for each adaptation sample by converting the scored lattices to confusion networks as described in Section 4.1. Samples corresponding to tokens not present in the PLM (OOV terms) were discarded to ensure that the confidence weights contained contributions from both the prosodic acoustic and language models. The raw confidence weights were pruned so that only those samples with a large difference between the two class posteriors would be used for adaptation (these samples have a very high likelihood of being labeled correctly by the seed models). The pruned confidence scores were used to adapt the seed models according to the weighted EM-MAP scheme described in Section 4.2. Two parameters were sequentially optimized by evaluating classification performance of the adapted models on the held-out development data: 1) the weight of the acoustic-prosodic model in Eq. 2 and 2) the pruning threshold for selecting samples from the adaptation set.

Table 2 summarizes pitch accent classification error performance of the seed and adapted models averaged across the 10 development and test sets. It is clear from these figures that increasing the number of mixtures from 25 to 45, while maintaining the diagonal covariance structure does not improve classification performance (only 0.5% relative on the test sets). On the other hand, we note that the adapted models reduce the classification error rate by 4.5% relative to the 45-mixture seed models on the held-out sets ($p \leq 0.002$) and by 4.3% relative on the test sets ($p \leq 0.06$). We used the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test to evaluate the statistical significance of these results.

6. Discussion

Data sparsity due to lack of large, annotated corpora is a problem encountered by almost all spoken language applications that use categorical representations of prosody. This makes it difficult to learn relationships between prosodic symbols and acoustic-prosodic features or lexical items (syllables and words). In this paper, we presented a novel technique based on a modified EM-MAP algorithm to adapt seed acoustic-prosodic models using a large, unlabeled corpus. This technique permitted us to train full-covariance GMMs, which was not possible with the seed training data due to sparsity. The adapted models provided classification error reduction of 4.3% relative to the seed models on the binary pitch accent classification task.

Our main contribution in this paper was the formulation of a modified EM algorithm for maximum-likelihood or MAP estimation of GMM parameters in the presence of an external knowledge source, which ranks (by assigning numerical weights) the training or adaptation samples in order of their “belongingness” to the model that represents them. This technique is very general and may be applied to arbitrary data.

One limitation of this approach is that the two GMMs are adapted in a generative fashion; while this may likely result in the adapted GMMs better fitting their respective classes, it does not necessarily guarantee better classification performance. Thus, we would like to determine whether a discriminative-

based adaptation framework would have a greater impact on classification performance, and by how much. Our ultimate goal is to use the adapted models within spoken language applications, beginning with prosody-integrated speech recognition.

7. References

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