INVESTIGATING ONLINE LOW-FOOTPRINT SPEAKER ADAPTATION USING GENERALIZED LINEAR REGRESSION AND CLICK-THROUGH DATA

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ABSTRACT
To develop speaker adaptation algorithms for deep neural network (DNN) that are suitable for large-scale online deployment, it is desirable that the adaptation model be represented in a compact form and learned in an unsupervised fashion. In this paper, we propose a novel low-footprint adaptation technique for DNN that adapts the DNN model through node activation functions. The approach introduces slope and bias parameters in the sigmoid activation functions for each speaker, allowing the adaptation model to be stored in a small-sized storage space. We show that this adaptation technique can be formulated in a linear regression fashion, analogous to other speak adaptation algorithms that apply additional linear transformations to the DNN layers. We further investigate semi-supervised online adaptation by making use of the user click-through data as a supervision signal. The proposed method is evaluated on short message dictation and voice search tasks in both unsupervised and semi-supervised setups. Compared with the singular value decomposition (SVD) bottleneck adaptation, the proposed adaptation method achieves reasonable accuracy improvements with much smaller footprint.

Index Terms: automatic speech recognition, deep neural network, speaker adaptation

1. INTRODUCTION
Recent progress in deep learning has attracted a lot of interest in automatic speech recognition (ASR) [1], [2], [3], [4]. The discovery of the strong modeling capabilities of deep neural networks (DNN) and the availability of high-speed hardware has made it feasible to train large networks with tens of millions of parameters. In the framework of context-dependent DNN hidden-Markov-models (CD-DNN-HMM) [1], the conventional Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) is replaced by a DNN to evaluate the senone log-likelihood.

However, the outstanding performance of CD-DNN-HMM requires huge number of parameters, which makes adaptation very challenging, especially with limited adaptation data. Several methods for DNN adaptation have previously been proposed. The most popular approach to adapting DNNs is applying a linear transformation to the certain DNN layer to account for the mismatch between the training and testing conditions. In [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], an additional layer is defined between the input observations and the first hidden layer, similar to the conventional feature space maximum likelihood linear regression (fMLLR) [10] in CD-GMM-HMM. The linear transformation has been further applied to the hidden layers [11], and to the top layer [8], [12]. One main issue in these adaptation techniques is that they typically need to update and store a large amount of adaptation parameters due to the high dimensionality of the DNN layers. Feature discriminative linear regression (fDLR) [9] introduces a small-sized adaptation model by sharing each of the input frames with the same transform. Nevertheless, all these techniques define the transforms on one or a few DNN layers, and the potential of deeply adapting the DNN model across many layers has not yet been fully explored. In [13], we have proposed the SVD bottleneck adaptation by adapting all the linear bottleneck layers in the SVD-restructured model. This technique involves much less adaptation parameters, while providing significant accuracy improvement.

The aforementioned adaptation methods either adapt or add matrices to characterize the target speaker or environment. There has been few efforts in the literature to adjust the node activation functions. In [14], a very complicated Hermitian polynomial function is used as the hidden node activation function of the shallow neural network. The complexity of Hermitian polynomial function makes it very easy to change the activation shape by adjusting its parameters. However, there is no conclusion whether the discovery in [14] with the shallow Hermitian polynomial neural network can be applied to DNN adaptation.

In this study, we propose to adapt the DNN model by adjusting the node activation functions. The proposed approach introduces slope and bias parameters in the activation functions for each speaker. One advantage of adapting the node activation function is that the number of adaptation parameters is much smaller than those used for matrix adaptation. Therefore, it is very suitable for low-footprint adaptation or personalization. We show that this adaptation method can also be formulated in a linear regression fashion. The unified view facilitates the implementation of a general framework for adapting the DNN model.

The accuracy of the hypothesized transcripts in the adaptation set plays an important role in training the SD model. It is desirable to adapt the models in an unsupervised or semi-supervised manner. In this work, we leverage the abundance of implicitly labeled voice search queries that are logged in search engines. We investigate semi-supervised adaptation by making use of the user click-through data as a supervision signal.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. We will first briefly introduce the DNN adaptation from linear regression perspective in Section 2. In Section 3, we propose the DNN adaptation method by adjusting node activation functions. Section 4 describes the strategies to train the adaptation model. Then, we evaluate our proposed method and compare it with the existing adaptation methods in Section 5, and conclude the study in Section 6.

2. DNN ADAPTATION USING LINEAR REGRESSION
A deep neural network (DNN) [1] can be considered as a conventional multi-layer perceptron (MLP) with many hidden layers, where the input feature is concatenated from multiple consecutive frames and the output predicts the posterior probabilities of thousands of senones. Given a DNN with $L$ hidden layers, the output at the $l$-th
hidden layer, \( h^l \), is recursively defined as the nonlinear transformation of the \((l-1)\)-th layer:

\[
h^l = \sigma(v^l) = \sigma(W^l h^{l-1} + b^l)
\]

(1)

where \( W^l \) is the weight matrix, \( b^l \) is the bias vector, and \( \sigma(\cdot) \) is the sigmoid activation function defined element-wise

\[
\sigma(v) = 1/(1 + e^{-v})
\]

(2)

Note \( h^l \) and \( v^l \) correspond to the activations and excitations of the \( l \)-th layer, respectively. \( h^0 = x \) is the input observation vector. For CD-DNN-HMM [1], the output layer is normalized by the softmax function to produce the posterior probability of senone id \( s \), \( p(s|x) \).

Many DNN adaptation techniques have been developed in the past. The most popular approach to adapting DNNs is applying a linear transformation to the certain DNN layer to account for the mismatch between the training and testing conditions. In [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], an additional layer is defined between the input observations and the first hidden layer, similar to the conventional feature space maximum likelihood linear regression (MLLR) [10] in CD-GMM-HMM. The linear transformation has been further applied to the hidden layers [11], and to the top layer [8]. The basic idea of this model is illustrated in Fig. 1a. Note that the parameters corresponding to the red dashed links are trained using the adaptation set, keeping other weights of the original DNN fixed.

One main issue in these adaptation techniques is that they typically need to update and store a large amount of adaptation parameters due to the high dimensionality of the DNN layers. Feature discriminative linear regression (fDLR) [9] introduces a small-sized adaptation model by sharing each of the input frames with the same transform. Nevertheless, all these techniques define the transforms on one or a few DNN layers, and the potential of deeply adapting the DNN model across many layers has not yet been fully explored.

2.1. SVD bottleneck adaptation

We recently presented a SVD-based method in [15] to restructure the DNN model in a significantly small size while maintaining the recognition accuracy. Given an \( m \times n \) weight matrix \( W \) in DNN, we approximate it as the product of two low-rank matrices by applying SVD

\[
W_{m \times n} \approx U_{m \times k} N_{k \times n}
\]

(3)

If \( W \) is a low-rank matrix, \( k \) will be much smaller than \( m \) and \( n \), and the number of parameters is reduced from \( mn \) to \((m+n)k\). Applying this decomposition to the weight matrix, it acts as if inserting a linear bottleneck layer of fewer units between the original nonlinear layers. Thus, the original large full-rank DNN model is converted to a much smaller low-rank model without loss of accuracy.

Furthermore, we propose the SVD bottleneck adaptation in [13] to produce low-footprint SD models by making use of the SVD-restructured topology. The linear transformation is applied to each of the bottleneck layer by adding an additional layer of \( k \) units, as illustrated in Fig. 1b. We have

\[
W_{s, m \times n} = U_{m \times k} S_{s, k \times k} N_{k \times n}
\]

(4)

where \( S_{s, k \times k} \) is the transformation matrix for speaker \( s \) and is initialized to be identity matrix \( I_{k \times k} \). The advantage of this approach is that only a couple of small matrices need to be updated for each speaker. This dramatically reduces the deployment cost for speaker personalization.

3. DNN ADAPTATION THROUGH ACTIVATION FUNCTION

The aforementioned adaptation methods either adapt or add transformation matrices to characterize the target speaker. In this section, we propose to adapt the DNN model by adjusting the node activation functions. We modify the sigmoid function (2) in a general form

\[
\tilde{\sigma}(v) = 1/(1 + e^{-(\alpha v + \beta)})
\]

(5)

where \( \alpha \) is slope and \( \beta \) is bias. The slopes and biases are initialized to 1 and 0, respectively, and updated for each speaker. The main advantage of adapting through activation functions is that the total number of adaptation parameters is much small, two times of the total number of hidden units.

Substituting (5) into (1), we have

\[
h^l_s = \tilde{\sigma}(v^l) = \sigma(A^s_s v^l + b^l_s)
\]

(6)

where \( A^s_s \) is the diagonal matrix with activation slopes \( \alpha_s \) on the diagonal, and \( b_s \) is the activation bias vector. We can see that adapting
the slopes and biases through the activation functions amounts to adding a linear layer right before the activation functions with the one-to-one correspondence, as shown in Fig. 1c.

### 3.1. Generalized linear regression

We have shown that many adaptation techniques introduced above belong to the family of the linear regression. Motivated by the widely used MLLR [16] and fMLLR [10] in the conventional CD-GMM-HMM, linear transformation matrices are inserted between the DNN layers to account for the mismatch between the training and testing conditions. Various such adaptation schemes are illustrated in Fig. 1. The unified view from the generalized linear regression (GLR) perspective facilitates the implementation of a general framework for adapting the DNN model, and these adaptation techniques can be readily combined for potentially improved performance.

### 4. TRAINING ADAPTATION MODELS

The parameters of DNNs are usually trained to maximize the negative cross entropy

$$D = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{t=1}^{N} \sum_{l=1}^{S} \tilde{p}(s_t|x_t) \log p(s_t|x_t)$$  (7)

where $S$ is the total number of senones, and $N$ is the number of samples in the training set. With the above objective function, a DNN can be trained with the method introduced in [1], which consists of unsupervised pre-training and supervised fine-tuning. The algorithm used in the fine-tuning stage is error back propagation (BP). The BP procedure updates the parameters by propagating the error signal backwards from the top layer to bottom as follows:

$$e^l = \frac{\partial D}{\partial W} = (W^{l+1})^T e^{l+1} \circ (h^l)'$$  (8)

where the operator $\circ$ denotes an element-wise product. When the $l$-th layer is nonlinear with the sigmoid function, we have $(h^l)' = \sigma'(v^l) = \sigma(v^l) \circ \sigma(1 - v^l)$. When the layer is linear, such as the SVD bottleneck layer and the inserted adaptation layer, $(h^l)' = 1$.

This also indicates the normal BP algorithm can be directly used to train the DNN adaptation models that employ the generalized linear regression. Given the adaptation data, we typically train the linear transforms from an identity matrix and zero bias, keeping the weights of the original DNN fixed.

### 4.1. KLD regularized adaptation

A straightforward approach to adapt a DNN is to estimate the SD parameter with the adaptation data using the regular cross entropy criterion in (1). However, doing so may over-fit the model to the adaptation data, especially when the adaptation set is small and the supervision hypotheses are erroneous. A regularized adaptation method was proposed to address this issue [17]. The idea is that the posterior senone distribution estimated from the adapted model should not deviate too far from the one estimated with the SI model. By adding the Kullback-Leibler divergence (KLD) as a regularization term to (1), we get a regularized optimization criterion, which has the same form as (1) except that the target probability distribution $\tilde{p}(s_t|x_t)$ is substituted by

$$\hat{p}(s_t|x_t) = (1 - \rho)\tilde{p}(s_t|x_t) + \rho \hat{p}^{SI}(s_t|x_t)$$  (9)

where $\rho$ is the regularization weight, and $\hat{p}^{SI}(s_t|x_t)$ is the posterior probability estimated from the SI model. It can be seen that $\hat{p}(s_t|x_t)$ is a linear interpolation of the distribution estimated from the SI model and the ground truth alignment of the adaptation data. This interpolation constrains the adapted model not to deviate far away from the SI model, when the adaptation data are limited.

### 4.2. Supervision from click-through data

The accuracy of the hypothesized transcripts in the adaptation set plays an important role in training the SD model. Manually transcribing the adaptation data for each speaker is infeasible for the large-scale system deployment. It is desirable to adapt the models in unsupervised and semi-supervised manners. One popular approach is to generate better quality hypotheses using various offline decoding techniques, such as the use of more powerful acoustic models and language models, and multiple system combination [18], [19], [20], [21]. However, such an approach would be very time-consuming and expensive when the system serves a huge amount of users. An alternative approach is to reuse the online recognition results and select the utterances that are plausibly accurate [22]. Simple selection based on confidence measure may produce utterances with high accurate hypotheses, but is not optimal, as it just reinforces well-known and less informative patterns to the system, and limits the diversity of the data set. It has been observed that a good strategy is to discard utterances with either a very low or a very high confidence [21].

In this work, we leverage the abundance of implicitly labeled voice search queries that are logged in search engines. The large-scale search engines such as Bing or Google can be accessed through voice interface. The user click for a voice query is a significant indicator for the satisfaction of the voice search service, in which the recognition accuracy plays an important part. As a preliminary study, we simply select the user click-through data for adapting the DNN models.

### 5. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

The proposed methods were evaluated on two tasks, short message dictation (SMD) and voice search (VS). The baseline SI models were trained with 300 hours VS and SMD data. The input feature to CD-DNN-HMM system is a 24-dimension mean-normalized log-filter bank feature with up to second-order derivatives and a context window of 11 frames, forming a vector of 792-dimension ($72 \times 11$) input. On top of the input layer there are 5 hidden layers with 2,048 units for each. The output layer has a dimension of 5,976.

The proposed method is compared with the SVD bottleneck adaptation method. We first convert the full-rank DNN model to low-rank model by doing SVD on all the matrices except the one between the input and the first hidden layer, and keep 40% of total singular values. The numbers of units on the linear layers after SVD are 500, 1,000, 1,500, 2,000, and 2,500, respectively. The output layer has a dimension of 5,976.

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### Table 1: Comparison of the number of parameters for different adaptation methods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acoustic model</th>
<th># of parameters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-rank SI model</td>
<td>30M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-rank SI model</td>
<td>7.4M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVD adaptation</td>
<td>266K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigmoid adaptation</td>
<td>20K</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 compares the number of parameters for different methods. The baseline SI DNN has 30M parameters and the low-rank SI DNN has 7.4M parameters. The SVD adaptation produces 266K SD parameters for the introduced regression matrix on SVD linear layers. In contrast, the Sigmoid adaptation methods adapt the slopes and biases of activation functions on the hidden layers, requiring 20K parameters, which is only 7.5% of parameters for the SVD adaptation.

5.1. Results on SMD task
The initial experiments were conducted on an unsupervised SMD task which consists of 9 speakers. The total number of test set words is 26,433. There is no overlap among the development and testing data. The DNN models are adapted in an unsupervised way, where the SI model is used to decode the development data. The regularization weight $\rho$ is set to 0.5, and the WER shown is averaged on 9 speakers.

Table 2 compares the WERs for different adaptation methods using 5 and 100 utterances of development data, respectively. The baseline full-rank SI model has 25.21% WER and the low-rank SI model has 25.12% WER. The SVD bottleneck adaptation and the sigmoid adaptation obtain 8.8% and 6.3% relative WER reduction (WERR) with 100 utterances of adaptation data, respectively. Though the sigmoid adaptation does not perform as well as the SVD bottleneck adaptation, given its reduced adaptation model size, the accuracy improvement is considered reasonable. For both methods, adapting with 5 utterances is slightly better than the result obtained with the SI model.

Table 2: Comparison of WER for different adaptation methods on an unsupervised SMD task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acoustic model</th>
<th>5 utt.</th>
<th>100 utt.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-rank SI model</td>
<td>25.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-rand SI model</td>
<td>25.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVD adaptation</td>
<td>24.91</td>
<td>22.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigmoid adaptation</td>
<td>25.04</td>
<td>23.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2. Results on VS task
The second experiment was conducted on a VS task to investigate the performance of the adaptation techniques using the click-through data as supervision signal. In this section, we report WERR as a reference of system performance, as the click-through data are collected from the deployed speech recognition service. To apprehend the acoustic characteristics of the click-through data, we first profiled a set of VS queries collected during a certain period of service, as shown in Table 3. It is observed that around 1/3 of VS queries are followed by the click actions. The user click to a voice query acts as a significant indicator for the recognition correctness, as the click-through data remarkably decrease the WER by 60.5% relative. Moreover, the click-though data feature a higher confidence score and more number of words per utterance than the ordinary data in average.

The evaluation was conducted on data from 30 speakers. Each speaker uses 100 utterances as adaptation data. In the semi-supervised setup, the utterances associated with the clicked queries are selected for adaptation, and the online recognition results are used as supervision hypotheses. In the unsupervised setup, the development data are randomly chosen. There is no overlap among the development and testing data.

Table 4 compares the WERR for different adaptation methods in unsupervised and semi-supervised setups, respectively. We can see that the use of click-through data contributes significant gains to the recognition performance. In particular, adapting using the click-through data provides 15.08% and 11.35% WERR on the SVD bottleneck adaptation and the sigmoid adaptation, respectively, compared with 8.17% and 6.04% WERR for the standard unsupervised adaptation.

Table 4: Comparison of WERR (%) for different adaptation methods on a VS task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unsup.</th>
<th>Semi-sup.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SVD adaptation</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sigmoid adaptation</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>11.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. CONCLUSION
In this paper we presented a low-footprint DNN adaptation technique that adapts the DNN model through node activation functions. This technique requires only a small amount of parameters for each speaker, two times of the total number of hidden units. We demonstrated that this adaptation technique falls in the category of generalized linear regression. The sigmoid adaption reduces the WER by 6-11% relative over the SI model in unsupervised and semi-supervised setups. It performs a little worse than the SVD bottleneck adaptation, which can be deemed as a trade-off between the accuracy of the models and the amount of model parameters. The sigmoid adaptation requires 20K parameters, only 7.5% of parameters for the SVD adaptation. The small size of the SD model makes it appealing in deploying large-scale speech recognition service for possible millions of users.

Our preliminary investigation showed that the semi-supervised adaptation using click-through data outperformed the conventional unsupervised adaptation. In the future, we plan to explore more complicated methods to process the click-through data for the purpose of the DNN training and adaptation. The click-through data are still noisy. Often, the recognized query that partially matches the speech input triggers user clicks, because it retrieves the search results relevant to the user’s intent. Sometimes, they are just random clicks. It is desirable to incorporate a confidence classifier to refine the click-through data. Moreover, selecting the adaptation data at a segment or frame level would be beneficial.

7. REFERENCES


Table 3: Profile of the user click-through data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Utts (%)</th>
<th>WERR (%)</th>
<th>Conf. score</th>
<th># words per utt.</th>
<th>Speech length (s)</th>
<th>SNR (dB)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>34.16</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>0.124</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td>16.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clicked</td>
<td>34.16</td>
<td>60.5</td>
<td>0.789</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>17.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


