USSS-MITLL 2010 HUMAN ASSISTED SPEAKER RECOGNITION*

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ABSTRACT

The United States Secret Service (USSS) teamed with MIT Lincoln Laboratory (MIT/LL) in the US National Institute of Standards and Technology's 2010 Speaker Recognition Evaluation of Human Assisted Speaker Recognition (HASR). We describe our qualitative and automatic speaker comparison processes and our fusion of these processes, which are adapted from USSS casework. The USSS-MIT/LL 2010 HASR results are presented. We also present post-evaluation results. The results are encouraging within the resolving power of the evaluation, which was limited to enable reasonable levels of human effort. Future ideas and efforts are discussed, including new features and capitalizing on naïve listeners.

Index Terms— Speaker recognition, human assisted, NIST SRE 2010, HASR 2010

1. INTRODUCTION

The United States Secret Service (USSS) teamed with MIT Lincoln Laboratory (MIT/LL) in the NIST Human Assisted Speaker Recognition (HASR) Evaluation [11]. We completed the 15-trial HASR1 Evaluation over the 8-week evaluation period.[1] USSS provided the expert human analyst and MIT/LL provided support, tools, and automatic recognition systems.

Unlike conventional NIST SRE, HASR audio samples are provided one trial at a time, listening to data is allowed, the sex of the talker(s) is not provided, the prior probability of a match is not provided (or inferable), costs of errors are not provided, a performance metric is not defined, and the conditions were not specified. The 15 trials of HASR1 all appear to be in the microphone interview versus telephone conversation condition. The duration of the samples was approximately 3 minutes for the interview[2] and 5 minutes for the telephone conversation (prior to speech activity detection). The samples are provided in two-channel (stereo) format, which allows for analysis of the person of interest (specified via the "channel of interest" by NIST) and the interlocutor in each sample. NIST specifies the samples as the "model segment" and the "test segment", but, consistent with our forensic process, this distinction was ignored and the samples were processed appropriately to produce the required speaker comparison score and decision. NIST granted permission to proceed in this manner and all evaluation rules were strictly followed. MIT/LL also participated in SRE, but no attempt was made to exploit this in HASR (e.g., the file names differed between HASR1 and SRE data and we did not match up the audio during the evaluation or attempt to use additional data available in SRE, such as automatically generated transcripts for SRE).

2. AUDIO PREPROCESSING

First, the samples are acquired for a given trial and prepared for human analysis and for automatic processing. Two samples for a given trial are acquired, per an automated e-mail from NIST, via ftp. The samples are in NIST SPHERE (.sph) format using two-channel G.711 μ-law (8 kHz, 8-bit sampling). The following audio processing chains were used, depending on the recording condition and use:

- Interview recordings for both human analysis and automatic processing:

Source .sph → Peak normalize (90% FS), DC Bias removal → Enhancement[3] → Purification (in stereo) → Extract channel of interest [always channel a (left channel)]

- Telephone recordings for human analysis:

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[1] The 8-week evaluation period was too short to implement the standard forensic process on the 150-trial HASR2 Evaluation.

[2] The duration of the interview sample ranged from approximately 1¼ to 2½ minutes after purification (and is further reduced by speech activity detection; down to 1 minute in trial 13).

[3] Both channels are enhanced independently. A two-stage enhancement process is run on the individual channels. First, MIT/LL's stationary narrowband noise reduction (RemTones) is run. Next, MIT/LL's stationary wideband noise reduction is run (LLEnhance). Various settings of these algorithms were tried, but the default settings worked well throughout all the HASR1 trials.

Source .sph → Peak normalize (90% FS), DC Bias removal → Extract channel of interest [channel a or b]

In the purification step, we (a human) manually remove segments of the interlocutor's speech and regions of overlapped speech. Performing this editing on the two-channel enhanced audio was found to speed the process, likely improve purification accuracy, and reduce fatigue (NIST had apparently added noise to the interviewer's channel and, at times, there was substantial HVAC noise in the interview room).

The FRED system[4] includes telephone network echo cancelation processing, which was deemed unnecessary in the HASR1 trials for human processing because the echo was negligible (and providing those samples would have introduced delay in our grand process).[5] Likewise, the automatic system did not make use of the human-generated transcripts to streamline our processing.

Now these audio samples are ready for our HASR system process.

3. HASR SYSTEM

The Human Assisted Speaker Recognition (HASR) system is an expert-based process adopted from general forensic-phonetics methodology combined with output from the MIT/LL GMM LFA FRED2 automatic system.[4] The following multistep process is used with the aid of the Super Phonetic Annotation and Analysis Tool [7, 8]:

1. Transcribe audio for speaker(s) on channels of interest.
2. Align transcript with audio (force/correct), creating phone (speech sound) and word tiers for annotation.
3. Create "rules" file for phonetic annotation of features. Rules are developed on a per-set basis depending on dialect, vocabulary, and articulatory-feature content.
4. Generate phonetic-based regions of interest (ROIs) from applying rules to aligned audio/transcript file sets.
5. Perform expert annotation of regions of interest at phonetic level within each ROI (see Table 1).
6. Analysis of ROI annotation output (see Figure 1).
7. Generate prosodic analysis of speaker(s) on channels of interest.
8. Generate acoustic analysis (if applicable).
9. Vocabulary/word usage analysis (SVM).
10. Final critical listening for various features.
11. Quantify level of similarity between, and distinctiveness of, speakers of interest on a numerical scale from 0.3 to 0.9 (see Table 2).
12. Combine qualitative score with score from MIT/LL FRED2 automatic system output.

[4] See Section 4.
[5] Also, because of negligible echo, manual purification of the audio was unnecessary on the telephone recordings.

Table 1. Annotation Judgments Scale.

A: Feature transformation did *not* occur	**B:** Feature transformation did occur
1: Sounds like A	
2: Sounds in between A and B	
3: Sounds like B	
4: Sounds like something else entirely	
5: Impossible to judge	
6: This ROI is wrong	

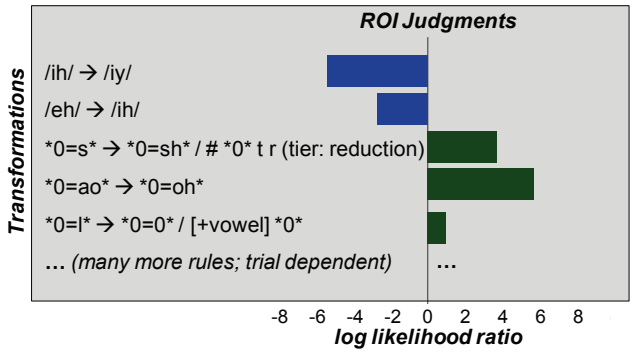

Figure 1. Analysis of ROI Annotation Output. How much more likely is a given feature transformation in a sample than in a reference population? At the phonetic level shown here, e.g., /eh/ → /ih/ in the pen/pin merger.

Table 2. Conclusion Scale (adapted from IAFPA).

Score	Level
0.9	Exceptionally distinctive – the possibility of this combination of features being shared by other speakers is considered to be remote
0.8	Highly distinctive
0.7	Distinctive
0.6	Moderately distinctive
0.5	Not distinctive
0.4	Dissimilar – moderately indistinctive
0.3	Dissimilar – highly indistinctive

4. FRED GMM LFA SYSTEM

The FoRensic Enhanced Detection (FRED) system uses the MIT/LL GMM-UBM speaker detection system [1] used in the SRE'08 Addendum evaluation for the interview microphone vs telephone condition [6] with human preprocessing. The main differences this year are:

- A GMM-based speech detector was used as initial speech detector followed by a second-stage, energy-based speech detector.

- The UBM was trained using Switchboard II and SRE'04 corpora.
- A noise reduction system was used on the microphone channels.
- Audio preprocessing, including human purification on the microphone channels.
- Telephone network echo cancelation on the telephone channels.
- Latent Factor Analysis (LFA) GMM.
- Logistic-regression backend.

The features used were a 19-dimensional mel-cepstral vector extracted from the speech signal every 10 ms using a 20 ms window. The mel-cepstral vector is computed using a simulated triangular filterbank on the DFT spectrum. The log-energy filterbank values are passed through a RASTA filter to remove slowly varying linear channel effects. Bandlimiting is then performed by only retaining the filterbank outputs from the 300 Hz to 3138 Hz frequency range and by computing cepstral coefficients via a DCT transform. Delta cepstra are then computed over a +/-2 frame span and appended to the cepstral vector, producing a 38-dimensional feature vector. Finally, the cep+dcep features are mean and variance normalized over the speech segments per file.

To combat additive noise in the microphone channel, the two MIT/LL noise-reduction techniques employed (steady tone removal and wideband noise reduction) were applied in series as a preprocessor step to MFCC feature extraction. The steady tone suppression method used a very long analysis window, 8 seconds, to exploit the coherent integration of the Fourier transform. The wideband noise reduction algorithm used an adaptive Wiener-filter approach directed toward preserving the dynamic components of a speech signal, while effectively reducing noise. Greater detail can be found in [2].

The GMM Latent Factor Analysis (LFA) was based directly on the work presented in [3]. The approach models session variability through a low-dimensional subspace projection in both training and testing. The session variability is modeled as a low-dimensional additive bias to the model means:

$$m_i(s) = m(s) + Ux(s) \quad (1)$$

where $m_i(s)$ and $m(s)$ are supervectors of stacked GMM means [3, 4]. The $m_i(s)$ is the supervector from the i-th session of talker s, $m(s)$ is the session-independent term of talker s, and $x(s)$ is the subspace.

Training of the low-rank transformation matrix U was generated directly, as described in [5], and not iteratively. Z-norm followed by T-norm was also performed on the scores.

The LFA system was applied gender dependently. Factor analysis was performed using session loading matrices generated with class-variation constrained to be speaker only. However in the presence of a microphone channel, the loading matrix used was one generated with class variation constrained to speaker and session. Additionally, when microphone data was present, the noise-reduction frontend was applied.

For the microphone test conditions, the following configuration was used:

- GMM background model – Trained from Switchboard II and SRE'04 corpora.
- Stacked FA session loading matrix – Trained from 1) NIST SRE Eval'05 microphone data with the class variation to be per speaker-session,[6] 2) NIST SRE Dev'08 interview-microphone data from six speakers across all SRE'08 microphones, and 3) NIST SRE Eval'04 using data from speakers with more than 16 enrollment sessions.
- Z-norm test utterances – chosen from 1) NIST SRE Eval'04 and Switchboard II when testing on the telephone channel or 2) NIST SRE Eval'05 microphone data when testing on the microphone channel.
- T-norm speakers – chosen from 1) NIST SRE Eval'04 corpus when the enrollment condition was on the telephone channel or 2) NIST SRE Eval'05 microphone corpus when the enrollment condition was on the microphone channel.
- LFA co-rank was 64.

4.1. Backend Calibration

A logistic regression was trained on the NIST 2008 SRE data for the condition that used 4-wire (stereo) conversational telephone data for enrollment and interview microphone data for verification. Since the target prior probability was not known for HASR, we used an equal prior for target and nontarget trials. We used the optimal Bayesian decision threshold for the equal-prior and equal-cost case, which is a threshold of 0.0 applied to our system's output log-likelihood ratio of target versus nontarget, estimated using logistic regression.

The FRED and FRED2 systems require the interview recording and telephone channel to be specified and the sex of the talker(s) to be specified. These specifications were not given in HASR and are based on human judgment (to be later verified with NIST's keys). The FRED and FRED2 systems differ technically only in score transformation: FRED uses a log-likelihood ratio (λ), whereas FRED2 uses a posterior probability estimate: e^λ/(e^λ+1), assuming equal priors and equal costs of errors. FRED and FRED2 also differ in trial 1, for which FRED had reversed inputs (ironically, this mistake eliminated a trial error for FRED).

[6] We also explored using a loading matrix to learn variation over microphones and found this to work well on development data. We elected not to use it for our evaluation system due to concern that it might not generalize well to new microphones.

5. PROCESSING TIME

Automatic processing time was negligible [6]. The total processing time (human plus machine), after our efficiency improved in the later trials, was approx. 8 hours per trial.

6. HUMAN-MACHINE FUSION

An adaptive subjective human weighting is used to combine the human qualitative score with automatic system score. Weights are adapted per trial based on subjective assessments of the following: confidence in the human analysis, how well matched the automatic system is to the conditions, and considering automatic score distributions on development data. This is all highly subjective and we rely on an expert human to make these assessments to adapt the fusion using linear combination:

$$f = wq + (1 - w)s \quad (2)$$

where f is the fused score, q is the qualitative score [0.3, 0.9], s is the automatic system score [0, 1], and w is the weight. We constrained the weight $0.5 \leq w \leq 1$ to limit the automatic system's influence because "difficult trials" were selected for the HASR evaluation [11]. This fusion produces the final overall score f submitted to NIST. NIST also requires a hard decision. The prior probabilities, costs of errors, and performance metric were not specified. In the absence of this information, we chose a balanced operating point. The score f was thresholded at 0.5 to form the hard decision submitted to NIST.

7. RESULTS

NIST reported the results of the HASR1 sites using hard decisions only. There were 15 trials (6 targets and 9 nontargets). Table 3 shows the results for our qualitative method; two automatic systems, FRED and FRED2; and the fusion of the qualitative method with FRED2.

Table 3. NIST SRE 2010 HASR results for USSS and MIT/LL. (*FRED's reversed inputs on trial 1 eliminated an error.)

System	Misses (out of 6 targets)	False alarms (out of 9 nontargets)
Qualitative	2	2
FRED*	2	1
FRED2	3	1
Fusion	2	2
Post Evaluation	*0*	*1*

Some of these errors occur on different trials. We continued improving our system post evaluation, in particular our human-machine fusion, as shown in the last row of Table 3.

8. FUTURE

This HASR experience gave us new ideas for tools and methods in human-machine speaker recognition. These ideas are being incorporated into a next-generation Super Phonetic Annotation and Analysis Tool (SPAAT) [7, 8]. It supports the 12-step process presented here and adds a new voice-quality feature. SPAAT also has both improved recognizers and human-machine fusion. Another system improvement for the qualitative analysis will be the ability to use background data for a variety of dialectal features to assess typicality. Additionally, we are investigating ways to capitalize on large-scale human listening using crowd sourcing via Mechanical Turk [10].

9. CONCLUSION

Comparing 15 sets of samples over a short period of time helped crystallize tools and ideas that work, as well as those that do not. HASR is inconsistent with forensic speaker comparison, e.g., w.r.t. scoring and decision making and bias due to selection of "difficult trials" [11]. Conclusions about forensic performance and human vs machine performance cannot be fairly drawn here. HASR is, however, helping to advance forensic science, as demanded by the National Academy of Sciences [9].

10. REFERENCES

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