

数字语音处理V

浙江大学计算机学院



群名称:数字视音频处理-数2019媒

群号:398550295

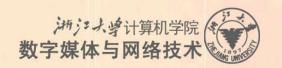
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QQ群: 数字视音频处理-数2019媒(398550295)

验证信息/群名片: 姓名学号口音

浙江大学外经贸楼520 2019年10月9日

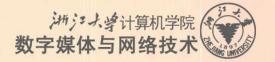


数字语音处理课程安排

- 讲授内容
 - (9月11日) 秋1: 课程简介+语音技术引言
 - (9月18日) 秋2: 语音分析 (I)
 - (9月25日) 秋3: 语音分析(Ⅱ)、语音识别(I)
 - (10月9日) 秋5: 语音识别(Ⅱ)
 - (1月7日) 冬9: 复习及项目成果展示
- 实验内容
 - 1. PRAAT 语音分析(9月16日)秋2
 - 2. VOICEBOX说话人识别 (9月30日) 秋4

考试: 2020年1月16日08:00-10:00

讲述提纲



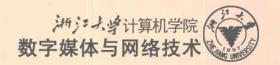
• 语音识别

语音识别技术

海沙大學计算机学院 数字媒体与网络技术

- 发展历程
- 技术框架
- 特征提取
- 识别模型

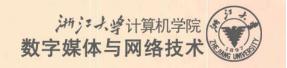
语音模型



DTW(Dynamic Time Warping)

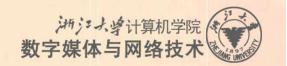
VQ(Vector Quantization)

HMM (Hidden Markov Models)



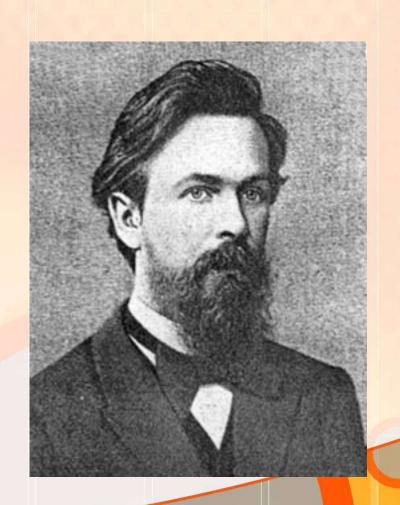
HMM在语音识别中的应用

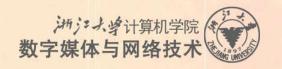
- 隐式马尔可夫模型(HMM)最开始出现在Baum等人的文章[Baum 72]中,紧接其后,它分别被CMU的Baker等人[Baker 75]和IBM的Bakis、Jelink等人[Bakis 76, Jelink 76]引入语音识别领域。在八十年代初美国Bell Lab的Rabiner等人提出了这一方法用于非特定人的语音识别[Rabiner 83]。
- HMM成为语音识别中一种很有效的技术,它不仅能用来作为(以音素、音节或词为单位的)语音产生的声学模型,而且能作为词法、语法、语义等高层次的语言模型,在很多领域都取得很大的应用。



Markov模型

- Andrei A. Markov
- Russian statistician
- 1856 1922





Brief History

- 1.Markov propose Markov framework from 俄国文学家普希金名著<叶夫盖尼.奥涅金>
- 2.Baum and his collegue introduced and studied Hidden Markov Model in 1960s and 1970s
- 3.Became popular in 1980s. work very well for several important applications such as speech recognizion.
 - L. R. Rabiner, "A tutorial on Hidden Markov Models and selected applications in speech recognition," *Proceedings of the IEEE*, vol. 77, pp. 257-286, 1989.
- 4. David Haussler etc. described preliminary results on modeling protein sequence multiple alignments in 1992. HMM has been applied in Bioinformatics since then.

Markov Model

- ·有N个可观测状态
 - $-S_1,S_2...S_N$
- 存在一个离散的时间序列
 - t=0,1,...,T
- 观测序列

$$- q_1, q_2, ..., q_T q_t \in \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_N\}$$

- 一阶马尔可夫假设
 - 当前状态qt只与前面相邻的一个状态qt-1有关,与其他状态无关

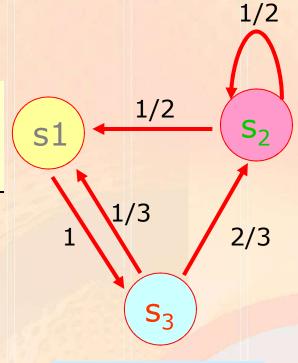
$$P(q_t = S_j | q_{t-1} = S_i, q_{t-2} = S_k, ...) = P(q_t = S_j | q_{t-1} = S_i)$$

一阶MM示例

$$P(q_{t+1} = s_1 | q_t = s_1) = 0$$

$$P(q_{t+1} \!\!=\! s_2|q_t \!\!=\! s_1) = 0$$

$$P(q_{t+1} = s_3 | q_t = s_1) = 1$$



$$P(q_{t+1}=s_1|q_t=s_2) = 1/2$$

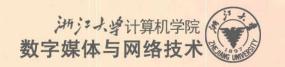
$$P(q_{t+1}=s_2|q_t=s_2) = 1/2$$

$$P(q_{t+1}=s_3|q_t=s_2)=0$$

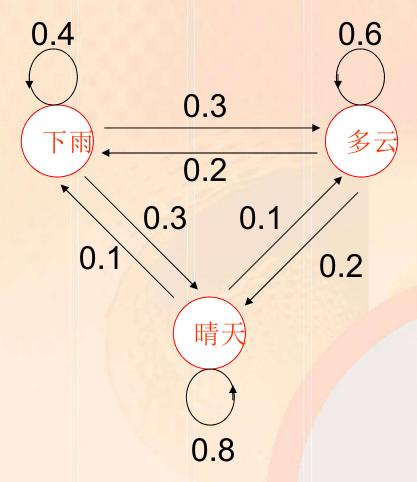
$$P(q_{t+1}=s_1|q_t=s_3) = 1/3$$

$$P(q_{t+1} {=} s_2 | q_t {=} s_3) = 2/3$$

$$P(q_{t+1}=s_3|q_t=s_3)=0$$



一阶MM实例



- ▶下雨---状态1--R
- ▶ 多云---状态2--C
- ▶ 晴天---状态3--S

$$A = \begin{vmatrix} 0.4 & 0.3 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.6 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.8 \end{vmatrix}$$

Markov Model

- Markov Model $\lambda = \{\Pi, A\}$
- ·状态转移矩阵A

$$a_{ij} = P(q_t = S_j | q_{t-1} = S_i), 1 \le i, j \le N$$

• 满足

$$a_{ij} \ge 0$$
 $\forall i, j$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} a_{ij} = 1$$
 $\forall i$

$$A = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1j} & \cdots & a_{1N} \ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2j} & \cdots & a_{2N} \ dots & dots & \cdots & dots & \cdots & dots \ a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \cdots & a_{ij} & \cdots & a_{iN} \ dots & dots & \cdots & dots & \cdots & dots \ a_{N1} & a_{N2} & \cdots & a_{Nj} & \cdots & a_{NN} \ \end{pmatrix}$$

• 初始概率

$$\Pi = {\pi_i \mid i = 1, 2, ..., N}, \pi_i = P(q_1 = S_i)$$

例子

• 问题

- 今天是晴天,从今天开始连续8天的天气状况为"晴天-晴天-晴天-下雨-下雨-晴天-多云-晴天"的概率是多少?
- 计算P(SSSRRSCS| え)

$$\lambda = \{\Pi, A\}$$



马尔可夫链规则

- 基本条件概率公式
 - P(A,B)=P(A|B)P(B)
- 马尔可夫链规则

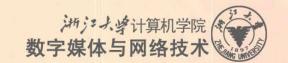
$$P(q_1, q_2, ..., q_T)$$

$$= P(q_T | q_1, q_2, ..., q_{T-1}) P(q_1, q_2, ..., q_{T-1})$$

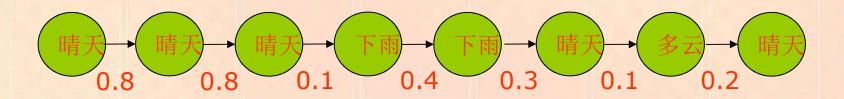
$$= P(q_T | q_{T-1}) P(q_1, q_2, ..., q_{T-1})$$

$$= P(q_T | q_{T-1})P(q_{T-1} | q_{T-2})P(q_1, q_2, ..., q_{T-2})$$

$$= P(q_T | q_{T-1})P(q_{T-1} | q_{T-2})...P(q_2 | q_1)P(q_1)$$



例子



P(O | Model) = P([S,S,S,R,R,S,C,S] | Model)

$$= P(S)P(S|S)^{2}P(R|S)P(R|R)P(S|R)P(C|S)P(S|C)$$

$$= \pi_3 (a_{33})^2 a_{31} a_{11} a_{13} a_{32} a_{23}$$

$$= (1.0)(0.8)^{2}(0.1)(0.4)(0.3)(0.1)(0.2)$$

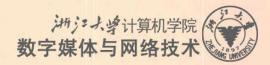
$$=1.536*10^{-4}$$

例: 连续保持某状态的概率

- 例子
 - 连续5天晴第6天阴/雨的概率是多少?
- 抽象
 - 连续d个时间单位内保持某状态 S_i ,而到d+1时刻状态改变的概率

$$p_i(d) = P(q_1 = i, q_2 = i, ..., q_d = i, q_{d+1} \neq i, ...)$$

= $\pi_i(a_{ii})^{d-1}(1 - a_{ii})$



例: 连续保持某状态的概率

• 问题

- 平均的连续晴天时间是多少天?
- 平均的连续雨天时间是多少天?
- 平均的连续阴天时间是多少天?

• 抽象

- 求连读d天保持某状态i的期望

• 雨天: 1/(1-a₁₁)=1/(1-0.4)=1.67天

• 阴天: 1/(1-a₂₂)=1/(1-0.6)=2.5天

• 晴天: 1/(1-a₃₃)=1/(1-0.8)=5天

$$\bar{d}_{i} = \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} dp_{i}(d)$$

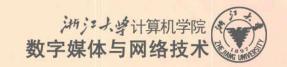
$$= \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} d(a_{ii})^{d-1}(1 - a_{ii})$$

$$= (1 - a_{ii}) \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} d(a_{ii})^{d-1}$$

$$= (1 - a_{ii}) \frac{\partial}{\partial a_{ii}} \sum_{d=1}^{\infty} (a_{ii})^{d}$$

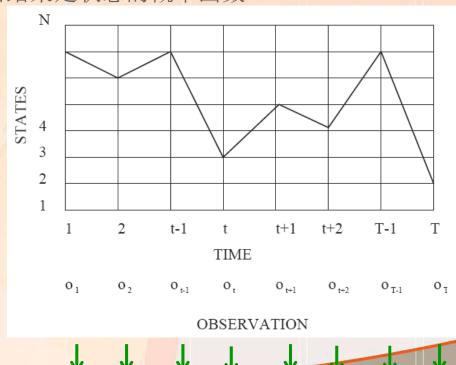
$$= (1 - a_{ii}) \frac{\partial}{\partial a_{ii}} \left(\frac{a_{ii}}{1 - a_{ii}}\right)$$

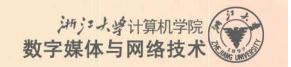
$$= \frac{1}{1 - a_{ii}}$$



MM++MM

- MM
 - 状态可见, 状态即观测结果
- HMM
 - 状态不可见,但状态之间的转移仍然是概率的
 - 观测/输出结果是状态的概率函数





举例: 从罐子里取颜色球

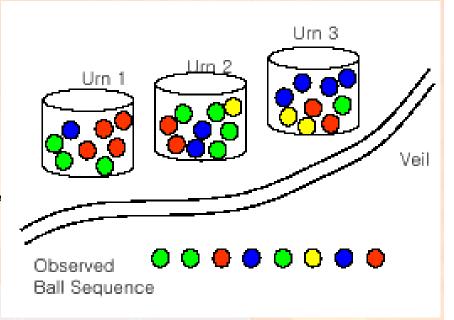
- · N个罐子, 内装各种颜色的球
- ·共有M个不同颜色的球
- 每个罐子装的球的颜色分布可能不同
- 序列产生过程
 - 1. 随机选择一个初始罐子
 - 2. 从选中的罐子中随机取一个球, 然后放回
 - 3. 根据一个与当前罐子有关的随机过程再选择一个罐子
 - 4. 重复2和3

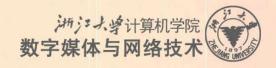


实验内容:

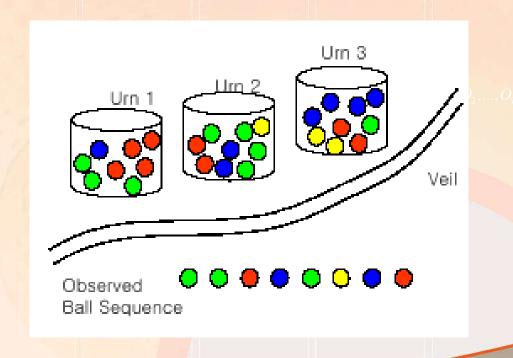
- 1. 根据某个初始概率分布,随机选择N个缸中的一个,例如第i个缸,再根据这个缸中彩色球颜色的概率分布,随机的选择一个球。记下球的颜色 O_1 ,再把球放回缸中。
- 2. 又根据缸的转移概率随机选出下一个缸, 比如第j个缸,再从缸中随机取出一个球, 记下球的颜色 ,再绝球放回缸中。
- 3. 一直进行下去。可以得到一个描述球的 颜色的序列

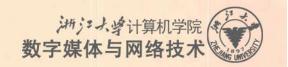
$$O = O_1, O_2, ..., O_T$$





- 是观察到的事件,称之为观察值序列。
- ●缸之间的转移以及每次选取的缸被隐藏
- ●从每个缸中选取的球的颜色并不是与缸一一对应,而是由该缸中彩球颜色概率分布随机决定
- ●每次选取哪个缸则是由一组转移概率决定





HMM分类

- · 根据观察输出函数是基于VQ、连续密度还 是二者的综合, HMM又分为:
 - 离散HMM (DHMM, Discrete HMM);
 - 连续密度HMM (CDHMM, Continuous Density HMM, 简称CHMM)
 - 半连续HMM (SCHMM, Semi-Continuous HMM)
- 下面以DHMM为例介绍HMM



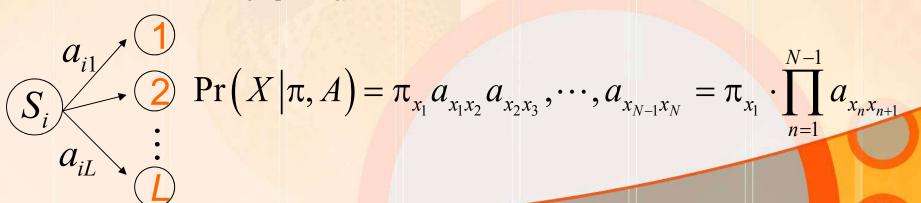
- 1. 状态S_l (l=1,2,...,L)
 - 所有状态构成了状态空间
 - $-x_n$ 表示n(=1,2,...,N)时刻系统所处的状态
 - $x_n \in \{S_1, S_2, ..., S_L\}$
- 2. 初始状态概率
 - $-\pi = (\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_L)$
 - 表示1(初始)时刻系统处于状态 S_l 的概率 $\pi_l = \Pr(x_1 = S_l), l = 1, 2, \dots, L$

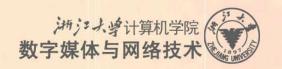
- 3. 状态转移矩阵A = {a_{ij}}_{LxL}
 - $-a_{ij}$ 表示 n时刻系统处在 S_i 状态下,n+1时刻系统转移到 S_j 的概率(一步转移概率)

$$a_{ij} = \Pr\left(x_{n+1} = S_j \mid x_n = S_i\right), \quad n \ge 1 \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, L$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{L} a_{ij} = 1, \quad \forall i$$

- 有了A,对长度为N的输出,系统可能产生 L^N 种互异的有限的状态序列,任何一种状态序列 $X=(x_1, x_2, ..., x_N)$ 的出现概率可写成:





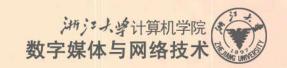
- 4. 观察矢量序列 $Y=(y_1, y_2, ..., y_N)$
 - 任意时刻n,系统的状态 x_n 隐藏在系统内部,外界能得到一个观察 矢量 y_n
 - 如 y_n 具有<mark>离散</mark>分布: n时刻系统处于 S_l 状态下,观察矢量 y_n 的概率分布函数为

$$P_{x_n=S_l}(y_n) = \Pr(y_n | x_n = S_l), \quad n \ge 1 \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, L$$

- 如 y_n 具有<mark>连续</mark>分布: n时刻系统处于 S_l 状态下,观察矢量 y_n 的概率密度函数为

$$P_{x_n=S_l}(y_n) = p(y_n | x_n = S_l), \quad n \ge 1 \quad l = 1, 2, \dots, L$$





Pr和p只取决于 S_l ,可直接用 $Pr_{S_l}(y)$ 或 $p_{S_l}(y)$ 表示

有L个状态: S_1, S_2, \dots, S_L

对应L个概率密度函数

$$B = (p_{S_1}(y), p_{S_2}(y), \dots, p_{S_L}(y))$$

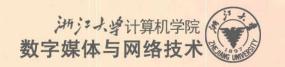
或L个概率分布函数

$$B = \left(\Pr_{S_1}(y), \Pr_{S_2}(y), \dots, \Pr_{S_L}(y)\right)$$

以后用P表示Pr或p

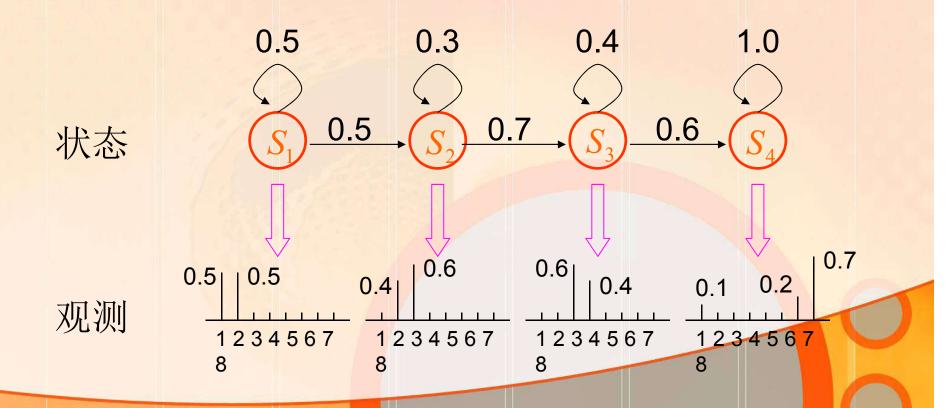
- HMM模型常用λ=(π, A, B)来简记
- HMM系统从n=1时刻运行到N时刻,给出有N个随机矢量的矢量序列 $Y=(y_1, y_2, ..., y_N)$,称为观测矢量序列
- 该HMM产生Y的概率由π, A, B三者决定(由全概率公式): 对所有可能状态序列X的积分(求期望)

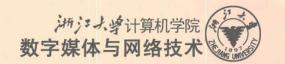
$$P(Y|\pi, A, B) = \sum_{X} \Pr(X) \cdot \left\{ \prod_{n=1}^{N} P_{x_n = S_I}(y_n) \right\}$$



举例

· 4个状态, 8个VQ码字, 单链的拓扑结构





码字

初始状态概率

$$\pi = (1, 0, 0, 0)$$

A

到达
$$S_1$$
 S_2 S_3 S_4 S_1 S_2 S_3 S_4 S_4 S_2 S_3 S_4 S_5 S_5

B

状态	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
S_1	$\lceil 0.5 \rceil$	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0
S_2	0	0.4	0.6	0	0	0	0	0
S_3	0	0	0.6	0.4	0	0	0	0
S_4	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0.2	0.7

HMM的三个基本问题

- 问题1: <u>Training Problem</u> (训练/建模问题)
 - 输入: 给定若干个矢量序列 Y(m)——训练集
 - 目标: 调整模型参数λ=(π, A, B), 使得该HMM产生训练集中所有矢量序列概率的(算术或几何或某种)平均值最大
 - 第1个问题的解决用于获得HMM模型的参数,以便建立模型

$$\prod_{m} P(Y^{(m)}|\lambda) \to \max$$



HMM的三个基本问题

- <u>问题2</u>: Evaluation Problem (估计问题)
 - 给定一个观察矢量序列Y——待识别语音,和一个HMM模型 λ =(π , A, B),如何计算该模型 λ 产生该序列Y的概率P(Y| λ)?

$$P(Y|\pi, A, B) = \sum_{X} \left[Pr(X) \cdot \left\{ \prod_{n=1}^{N} P_{x_n = S_l}(y_n) \right\} \right]$$

- 该问题的解决可以用于根据观察序列, 计算每个模型的得分, 从而实现对未知 语音的识别, 适用于孤立词识别系统



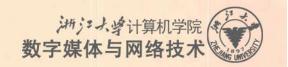
HMM的三个基本问题

- 问题3: Hidden State Sequence Uncovering Problem (状态序列选择问题)
 - 给定一个观察矢量序列Y和一个HMM模型 λ =(π , A, B), 如何选择一个在某种意义下最优的状态序列(S_1 , S_2 , ..., S_N)? 比如

$$\mathbf{x}^{\star} = \underset{X}{\operatorname{arg max}} \left[\Pr(X) \cdot \left\{ \prod_{n=1}^{N} P_{x_{n} = S_{l}} (y_{n}) \right\} \right]$$

- 也称为解码/识别问题,其解决使HMM在连续语音识别中发挥作用

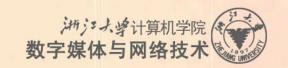




HMM三个基本问题的求解

- 问题1: 训练问题
 - 根据已知观测确定模型参数
 - Baum-Welch算法
- 问题2: 估计问题
 - 根据已知模型求未知观测似然度
 - Forward-Backward算法
- 问题3: 最优路径搜索、状态序列分割问题
 - Viterbi算法



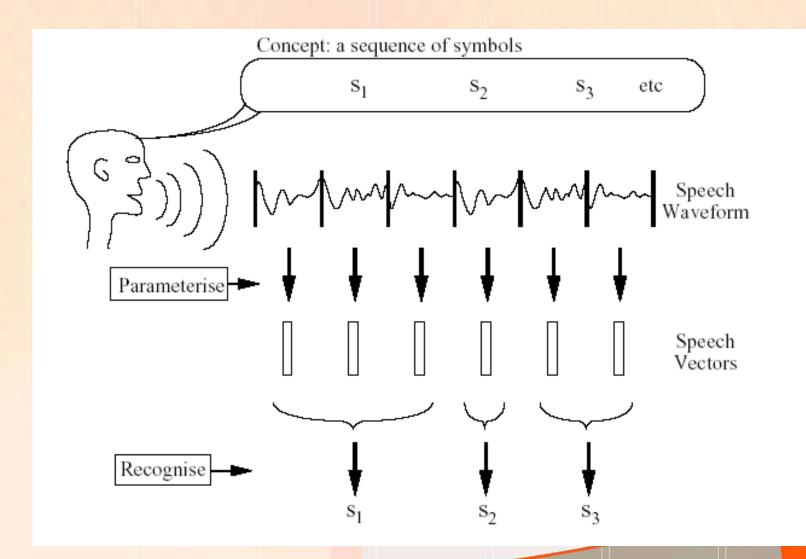


语音信号与HMM

- 语音信号的短时平稳假设
 - 特征序列可以分成若干段(状态)
 - 在每个状态内观察特征是服从相同的分布的
- 可以用两个过程去刻画:
 - 状态之间的转移(隐藏的)
 - 在特定状态下的特征输出(可见的)



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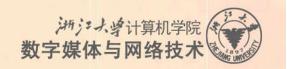


两个基本假定

- 问题简化的数学模型
 - 当前状态只与前一状态有关,而与更早的状态无关(无后效性或马尔可 夫性)
 - 一阶马尔可夫链(过程)

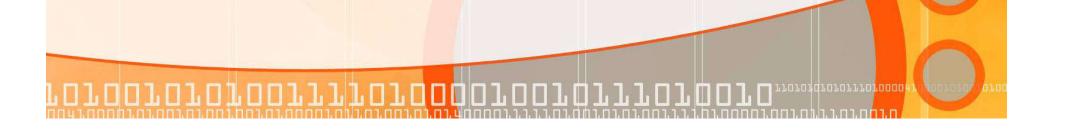
$$\Pr(x_{n+1} = S_{n+1} | x_1 = S_1, x_2 = S_2, \dots, x_n = S_n) = \Pr(x_{n+1} = S_{n+1} | x_n = S_n)$$

- 当前状态下的输出只与当前状态有关,而与其他任何状态均无关
 - 状态间输出的独立性

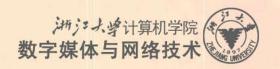


HMM的三个基本问题求解的应用

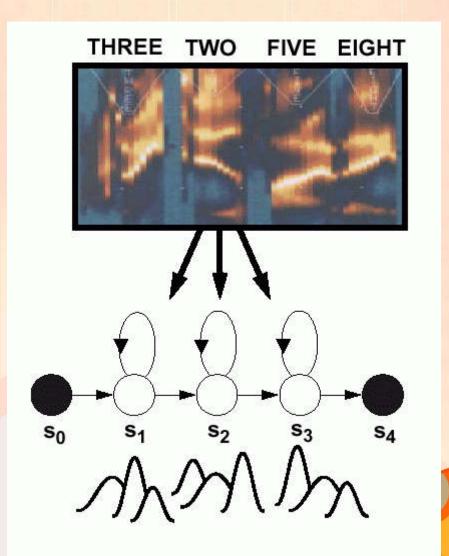
- 问题1: Training Problem
 - 给定每个基元(词/音素)的m个训练样本(表示为m个特征矢量),学习得到基元的HMM模型
- 问题2: Evaluation Problem (估计问题)
 - 给定某测试样本Y,可以给出HMM模型所有可能状态序列产生Y的似然概率
- 问题3:解码问题/状态序列选择问题
 - 给定某测试样本Y,可以给出HMM模型产生Y的似然概率最大的状态序列/路径

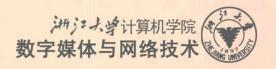


HMM (Hidden Markov Model)

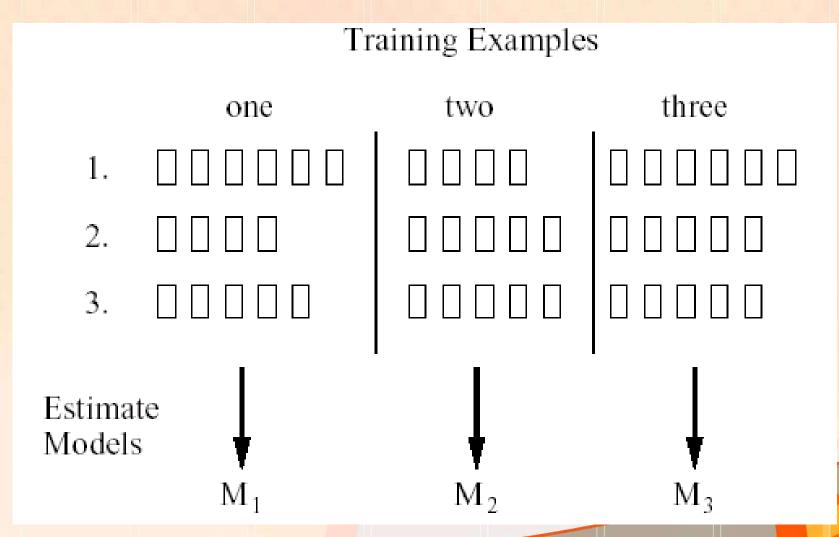


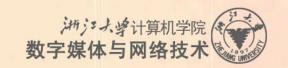
- HMM是描述说话人发音的统计模型
- 高斯混合密度分布刻划了语音状态 (如音素)以及语音状态之间的时 序变迁的统计规律
- 基本算法:
 - -评估: 给定观测向量Y和模型, 利用前向后向(Forward-Backward)算法计算得分;
 - -匹配: 给定观测向量Y, 用 Viterbi算法确定一个优化的状态 序列;
 - -训练:用Baum-Welch 算法(类似于EM)重新估计参数,使得分最大。





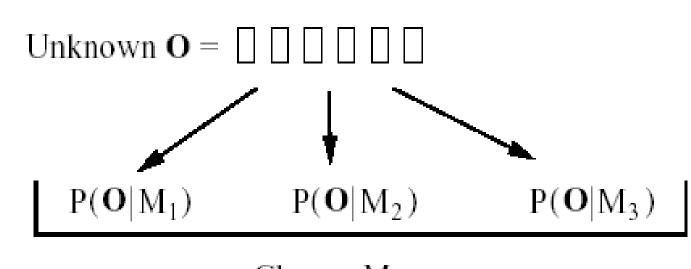
训练





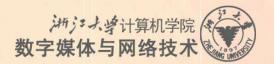
HMM用于孤立词识别

• 计算观察特征矢量序列Y与任意一个模型 $\lambda h \in \{\lambda 1, \lambda 2, ..., \lambda H\}$ 之间的匹配得分,并认为argmax $P(Y|\lambda h)$ 对应的就是识别结果。



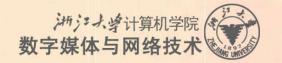
Choose Max

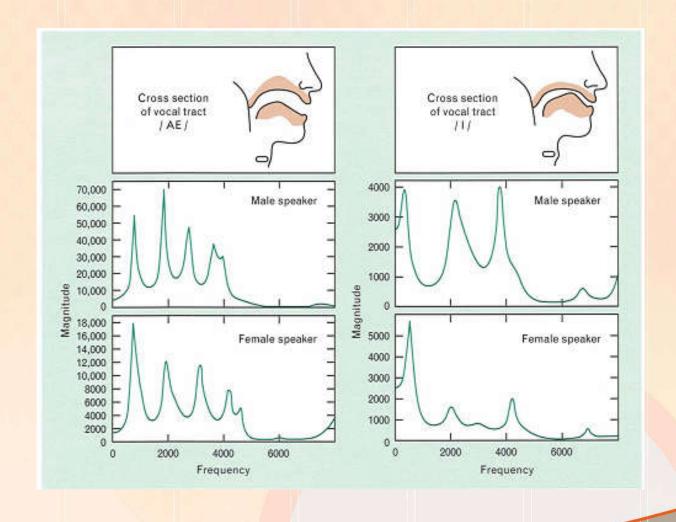
讲述提纲



• 说话人识别

Problem Statement





Problem Statement

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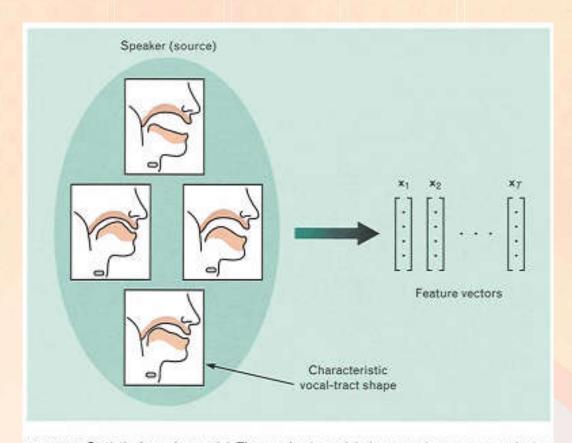
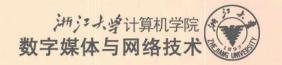


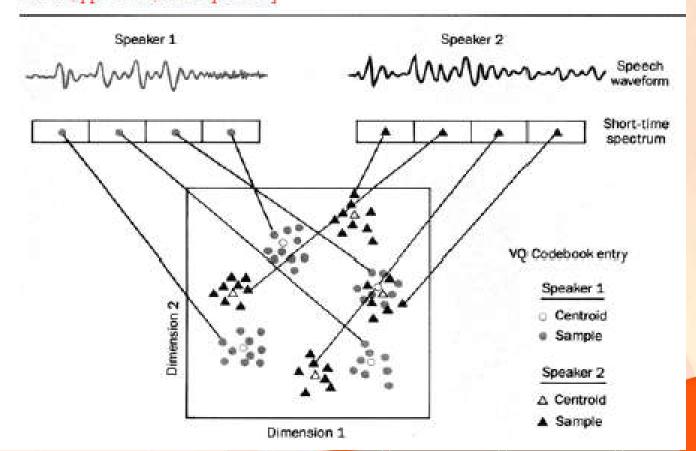
FIGURE 5. Statistical speaker model. The speaker is modeled as a random source producing the observed feature vectors. Within the random source are states corresponding to characteristic vocal-tract shapes.



VQ (Vector Quantization)

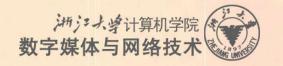
An Example of Speaker Modeling

[F. K. Soong, A. E. Rosenberg, L. R. Rabiner and B. H. Juang, "A Vector Quantization Approach to Speaker Recognition," AT&T Technical Journal, Vol. 66, pp. 14-26, Mar/Apr 1987]



(Text-Independent) Speaker Modeling Revisited

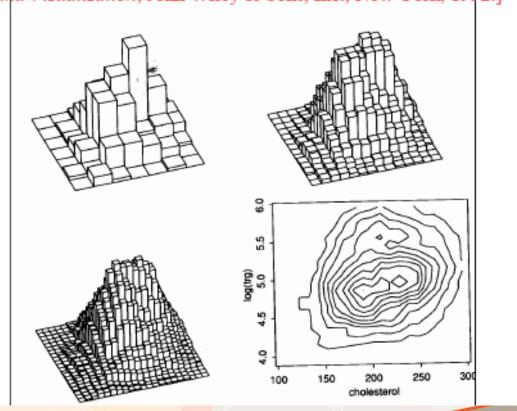
- The purpose of speaker modeling is to characterize the source that generated the feature vectors
- Since the same source (in this case, the speaker) produces the vectors, these should follow some probability distribution that is characteristic for this source.
- In statistics and pattern recognition, the problem of estimating the probability distribution of observation vectors is known as density estimation
- The more training data (vectors) we have, the better estimate we have
- A simple example of a density estimator : histogram
 - 1. Select the number of histogram bins M
 - 2. Divide the data range $[x_{\min}, x_{\max}]$ into M bins of width $(x_{\max}, x_{\min}) / M$
 - 3. For each bin *i*, the density estimate is given by $p_i = N_i / N$



Examples of Histogram Density Estimates

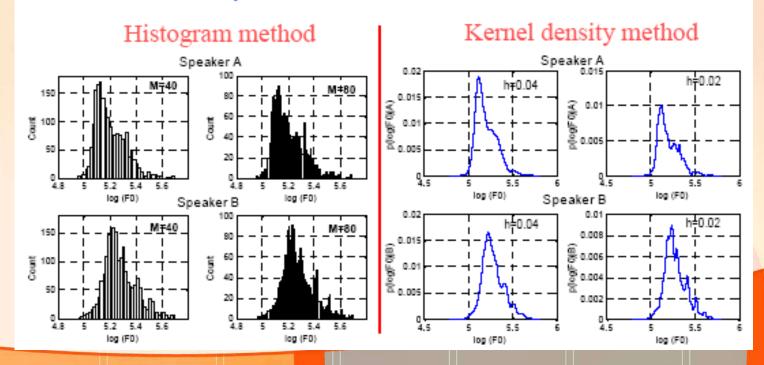
(2-dimensional data)

[D.W.Scott, Multivariate Density Estimation - Theory, Practise, and Visualization, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1992.]



Beyond the Histogram Density Estimator

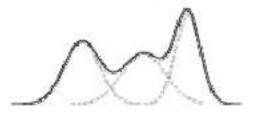
- The histogram method is simple and intuitive, but not the best one: for instance, the density estimates that it generates are "ragged" which violates the nature of our data (continuous in most cases)
- A more general approach that generates smoother density estimates is socalled kernel density estimator



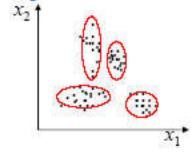
The Gaussian Mixture Model (cont.)

Dimensionality=1, K=3:

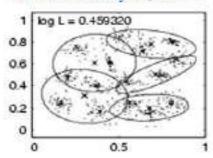
Examples:



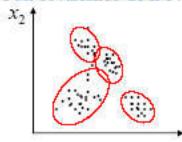
Diagonal covariance GMM:



Dimensionality=2, K=5:



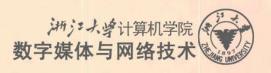
Full covariance GMM:



 x_1

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- · Usually the diagonal covariance GMM is used, for several reasons:
 - Some typically used features have rather low inter-correlations (or, they should have at least!
 Remember p. 54, requirement (6).)
 - · Computational complexity, memory usage
 - Numerical stability
 - · Ease of implementation



a set of acoustic feature vectors representing an utterance: $X = \{\vec{x}_1, \dots, \vec{x}_T\}$, the likelihood of those feature vectors given a GMM model λ is the following:

$$p(\vec{x}|\lambda) = p(\vec{x}|w_i, \vec{\mu}_i, \Sigma_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} w_i p_i(\vec{x})$$
 (1.1)

where

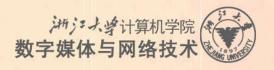
$$p_i(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}} |\Sigma_i|^{1/2}} e^{-(1/2)(\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}_i)^T \Sigma_i^{-1} (\vec{x} - \vec{\mu}_i)}$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M} w_i = 1$$

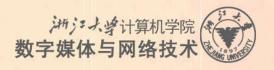
Here, there are M gaussians in the GMM and each mixture i is associated with a weight w_i , a mean $\vec{\mu}_i$, and a covariance Σ_i .





With the GMM as the basic speaker representation, we can then apply this model to specific speaker-recognition tasks of identification and verification. The identification system is a straightforward maximum-likelihood classifier. For a reference group of S speaker models $\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_S\}$, the objective is to find the speaker identity \hat{s} whose model has the maximum posterior probability for the input feature-vector sequence $X = \{x_1, ..., x_T\}$. The minimum-error Bayes' rule for this problem is

$$\hat{s} = \arg \max_{1 \le s \le S} \Pr(\lambda_s | X) = \arg \max_{1 \le s \le S} \frac{p(X | \lambda_s)}{p(X)} \Pr(\lambda_s).$$

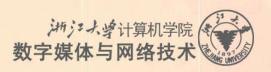


Assuming equal prior probabilities of speakers, the terms $Pr(\lambda_s)$ and p(X) are constant for all speakers and can be ignored in the maximum. By using logarithms and assuming independence between observations, the decision rule for the speaker identity becomes

$$\hat{s} = \arg \max_{1 \le s \le S} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \log p(\mathbf{x}_{t} | \lambda_{s}),$$

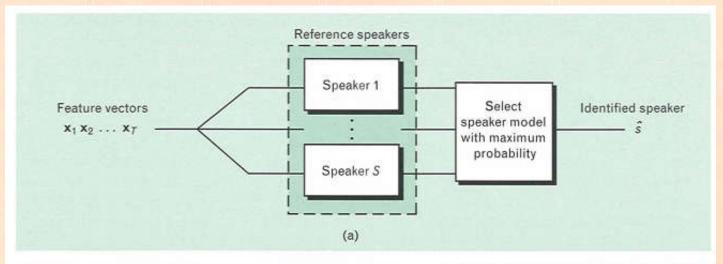
in which T is the number of feature vectors and $p(\mathbf{x}_t | \lambda_s)$ is given in Equation 1. Figure 6(a) shows a diagram of the speaker-identification system.

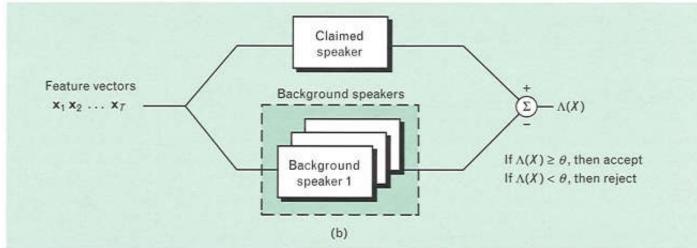




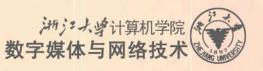
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GMM(Gaussian Mixture Model)





GMM(Gaussian Mixture Model) 数字媒体与网络技术



E-step: Given the following statistic for mixture *i* of a GMM model:

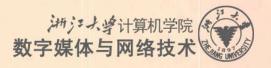
$$P(i|\vec{x}_t) = \frac{w_i p_i(\vec{x}_t)}{\sum_{j=1}^{M} w_j p_j(\vec{x}_t)}$$

we have:

$$n_i = \sum_{t=1}^T P(i|\vec{x}_t)$$

$$E_i(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{t=1}^{T} P(i|\vec{x}_t) \vec{x}_t$$

$$E_i(\vec{x}^2) = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{t=1}^{T} P(i|\vec{x}_t) \vec{x}_t^2$$



M-step: New model parameters obtained using statistics computed during E-step as follows:

$$\hat{w}_i = \left[\alpha_i n_i / T + (1 - \alpha_i) \hat{w}_i\right] \gamma$$

$$\hat{\vec{\mu}}_i = \alpha_i E_i(\vec{x}) + (1 - \alpha_i) \vec{\mu}_i$$

$$\hat{\vec{\sigma}}_i^2 = \alpha_i E_i(\vec{x}^2) + (1 - \alpha_i)(\vec{\sigma}_i^2 + \vec{\mu}_i^2) - \hat{\vec{\mu}}_i^2$$

where the scale factor γ ensures that the new weights \hat{w}_i sum to unity. In addition, α is the relevance factor, controlling the balance between the UBM prior and new estimates obtained in the E-step.



GMM-UBM (Universal Background Model)

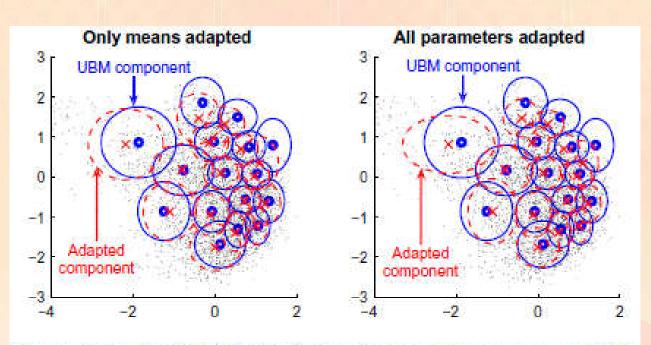
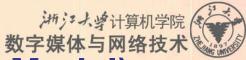


Fig. 8. Examples of GMM adaptation using maximum a posteriori (MAP) principle. The Gaussian components of a universal background model (solid ellipses) are adapted to the target speaker's training data (dots) to create speaker model (dashed ellipses).



GMM-UBM (Universal Background Model)

LLR_{avg}(
$$\mathscr{X}, \lambda_{\text{target}}, \lambda_{\text{UBM}}$$
) = $\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} \{ \log p(x_t | \lambda_{\text{target}}) - \log p(x_t | \lambda_{\text{UBM}}) \},$ (13)

The use of a common background model for all speakers makes the match score ranges of different speakers comparable.

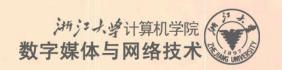
Score normalization

the "raw" match score is normalized relative to a set of other speaker models known as cohort.

$$s' = \frac{s - \mu_I}{\sigma_I} \tag{15}$$

zero normalization ("Z-norm")
test normalization ("T-norm")

参考文献



1.吴朝晖,杨莹春,说话人识别模型与方法,清华大学出版社,2009,2

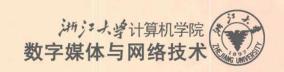
2.杨莹春, 陈华, 吴飞, 视音频信号处理, 浙江大学出版社, 待出版

3. Roger Jang (張智星)

Audio Signal Processing and Recognition (音訊 處理與辨識)

http://neural.cs.nthu.edu.tw/jang/books/audioSignalProcessing/index.asp

课后任务



- 阅读文献
 - Douglas A. Reynolds. Automatic Speaker Recognition Using Gaussian Mixture Speaker Models
 - L. R. Rabiner, "A tutorial on Hidden Markov Models and selected applications in speech recognition". *Proceedings of the IEEE*, vol. 77, pp. 257-286, 1989. (可选读)