SPRING 2023



CS 378: INTRO TO SPECH AND AUDIO PROCESSING

Gaussian Mixture Models

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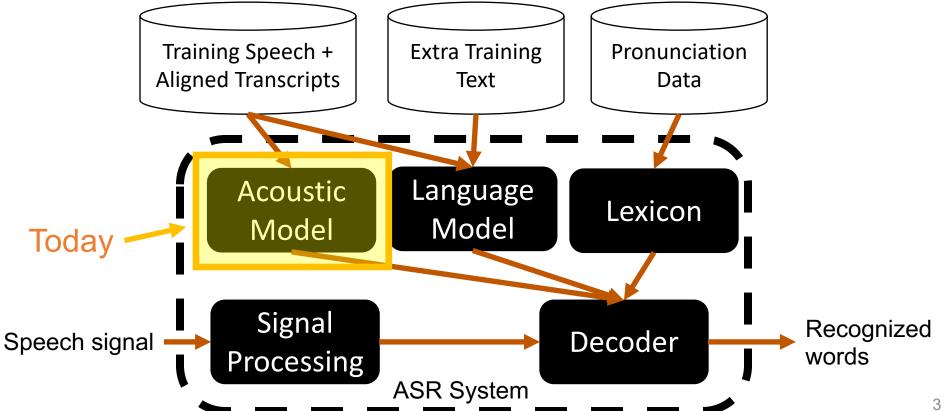
Agenda



- Acoustic Modeling Overview
- Gaussian Distributions
- Gaussian Mixture Models
 - K-means
 - Training GMMs with Expectation-Maximization

Components of an ASR system

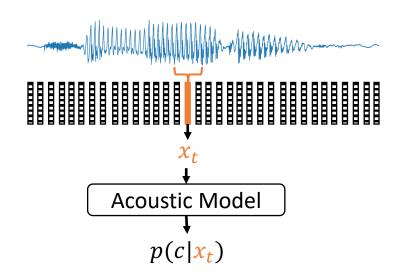




The Setting for Today



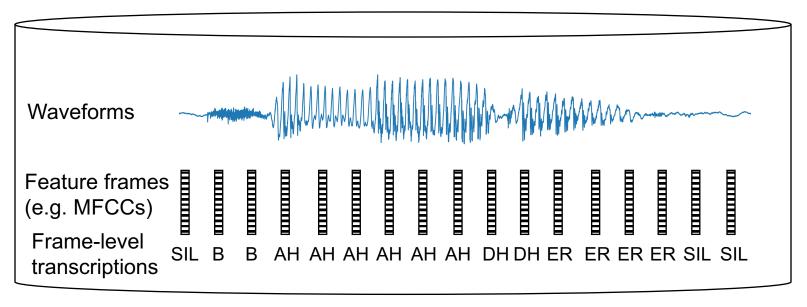
- How can we build a classifier to predict which particular speech sound is active at a particular point in time?
- What are Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs) and how can we use them for this task?



The Setting for Today

labels for new (unseen) speech frames at test time.





Assume we are given a collection of waveforms represented by features such as MFCCs, and that we have a phonetic state label for every single frame.

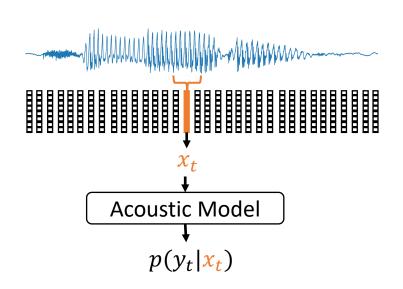
Our goal: Use this training data to build a classifier that can predict phonetic state

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The Setting for Today



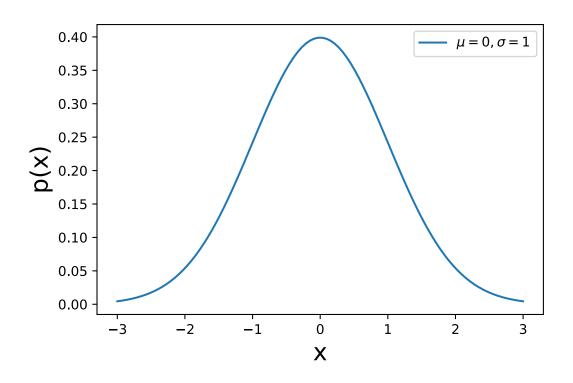
- We will discuss acoustic modeling today purely as a multi-class classification problem.
- In principle, any machine learning model capable of multi-class classification could be used here.



 However, we will focus our attention on Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs) as they have historically been dominant. (we will look at neural net acoustic models next lecture)

1-D Gaussian Distributions





1-D Gaussian PDF



Probability density function:

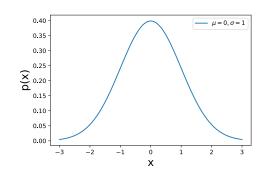
$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \mathcal{N}(x;\mu,\sigma) \stackrel{\circ}{\underset{0.15}{\stackrel{0.30}{\sim}}}_{0.15}$$

- Parameters:
 - μ : the mean of the distribution

$$\mu = E[x] = \int x \, p(x) \, dx$$

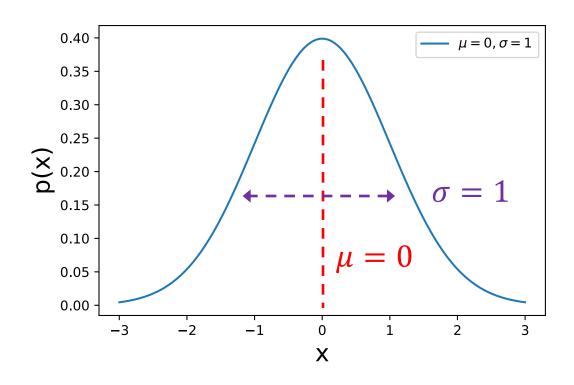
• σ^2 : the variance of the distribution (σ is called the standard deviation)

$$\sigma^2 = E[(x - \mu)^2] = \int (x - \mu)^2 p(x) dx$$



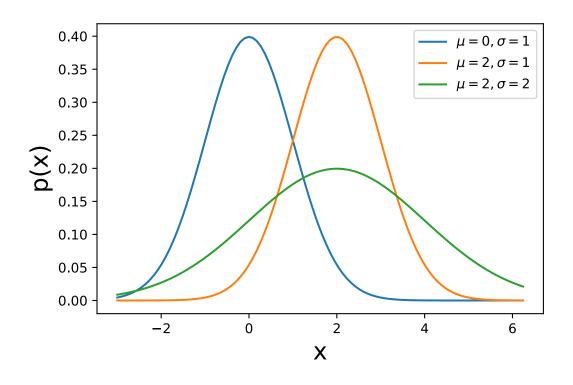
1-D Gaussian Distributions





1-D Gaussian Distributions





More on Gaussians



- To indicate a random variable x has a Gaussian distribution, we often write $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$
- The PDF can also be written $p(x \mid \mu, \sigma^2) = \mathcal{N}(x; \mu, \sigma^2)$
- "Normal distribution" is another common name
- Possibly the most widely-used continuous probability distribution
 - Easy to mathematically analyze and fit to data
 - Many real-world random variables happen to be Gaussian (Central Limit Theorem: sum of many independent R.V.s tends Gaussian)
 - One way to conceptualize the distribution: perturbations around some average value μ

Fitting Distributions to Data



- Fitting distributions to data in general is often cast as an optimization problem where we have 3 items:
 - The datapoints we want to fit
 - The parameters of the distribution (model parameters)
 - An objective function that measures how well the parameters fit the data
- Fitting the distribution boils down to algorithmically adjusting the parameters to maximize the objective function.

Fitting 1-D Gaussians to Data



- Assume we are given a dataset $X = \{x_1, ... x_N\}$
- We have model parameters $\theta = \{\mu, \sigma\}$
- Most common objective for fitting Gaussians is Maximum Likelihood (ML), or Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) $\max_{\theta} p(X \mid \theta)$
- Assume x_i 's are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.):

$$p(X; \mu, \sigma) = p(x_1, \dots, x_N \mid \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p(x_i \mid \theta)$$

MLE for 1-D Gaussians



We have that

$$p(X; \mu, \sigma) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i \mid \theta) = \frac{1}{\sigma \sqrt{2\pi}} \prod_{i=1}^{N} e^{\frac{-(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

• Differentiating the logarithm of the above term (for mathematical convenience, does not change the solution) w.r.t μ and σ^2 , setting it equal to 0 and solving for μ and σ^2 leads to their ML estimates:

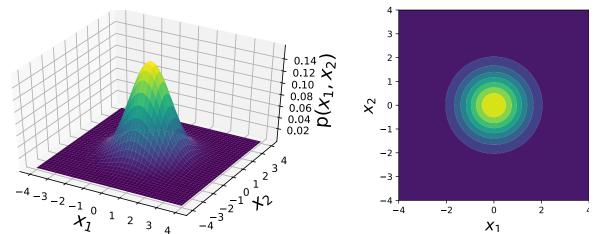
$$\mu^* = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

$$\sigma^{2^*} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x_i - \mu^*)^2$$

Multivariate Gaussian Distributions



- What if each $x_i \in \{x_1, ..., x_N\}$ is a vector in \mathbb{R}^D ?
 - Recall that typical MFCC vectors are in \mathbb{R}^{39}
- We can extend the Gaussian distribution to \mathbb{R}^D
- This is often called a multivariate Gaussian



Multivariate Gaussian Distributions



Probability density function:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(|\mathbf{\Sigma}|)^{\frac{1}{2}} (2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \mathbf{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})}$$

- Parameters:
 - μ : the mean vector, with ML estimate

$$\mu^* = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i$$

• Σ : the covariance matrix, with ML estimate

$$\mathbf{\Sigma}^* = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^*) (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}^*)^T$$

Understanding $oldsymbol{\mu}$ and $oldsymbol{\Sigma}$



- μ is simply the empirical mean vector of X
- ullet captures the covariance between every pair of dimensions

$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = egin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11}^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{1N}^2 \ dots & \ddots & dots \ \sigma_{N1}^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{NN}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Σ must be positive semi-definite to be valid

Types of Covariance Matrices



• Spherical (Isotropic) covariance matrix $\Sigma = \sigma^2 I$

Diagonal covariance matrix

$$\Sigma = diag([\sigma_1^2, ..., \sigma_N^2])$$

Full covariance matrix

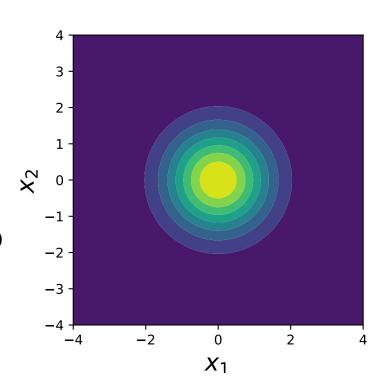
$$\mathbf{\Sigma} = egin{bmatrix} \sigma_{11}^2 & \cdots & \sigma_{1N}^2 \ draimspace{1mm} draimspace{1mm} arphi_{N1} & \ddots & draimspace{1mm} draimspace{1mm} arphi_{NN} \end{bmatrix}$$

Spherical Covariance Matrix



•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Individual dimensions assumed to be uncorrelated
- Each dimension assumed to have the same variance σ
- 1 parameter

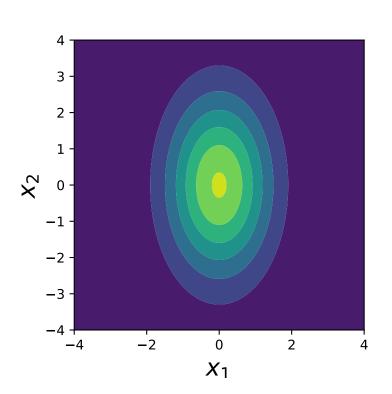


Diagonal Covariance Matrix



•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Individual dimensions assumed to be uncorrelated
- Each dimension has its own variance parameter σ_i
- N parameters

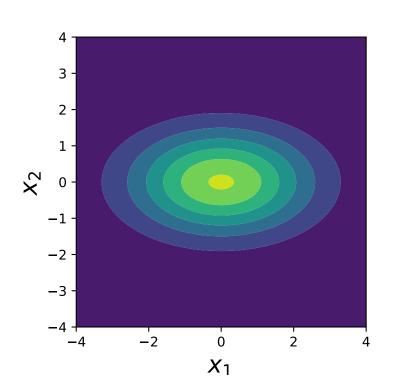


Diagonal Covariance Matrix



•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Individual dimensions assumed to be uncorrelated
- Each dimension has its own variance parameter σ_i
- N parameters

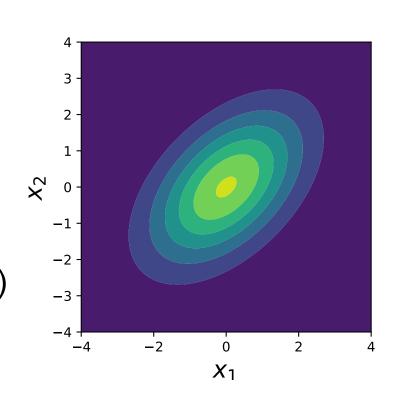


Full Covariance Matrix



•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Dimensions may be correlated
- All covariance terms can vary (subject to PSD matrix)
- N(N+1)/2 parameters

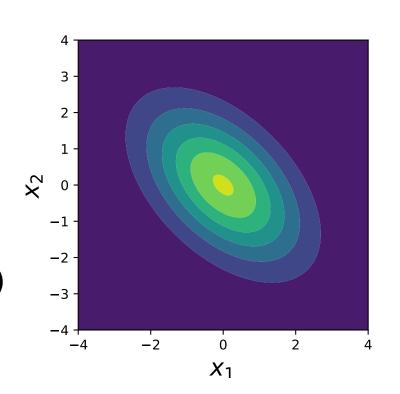


Full Covariance Matrix



•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

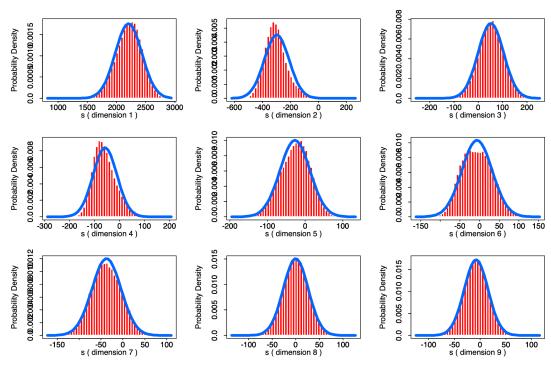
- Dimensions may be correlated
- All covariance terms can vary (subject to PSD matrix)
- N(N+1)/2 parameters



Fitting Gaussians to MFCCs



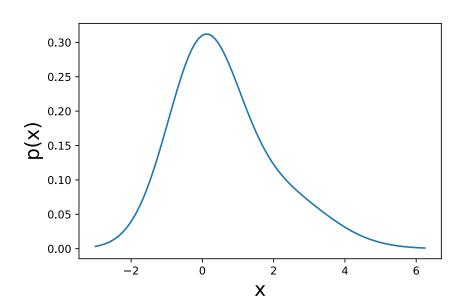
First 9 MFCC's from [s]: Gaussian PDF

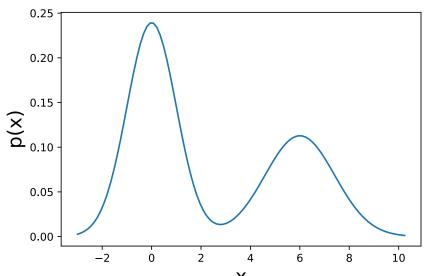


Mixtures of Gaussians



 Gaussians have convenient properties, but what if our data doesn't quite follow a Gaussian distribution?

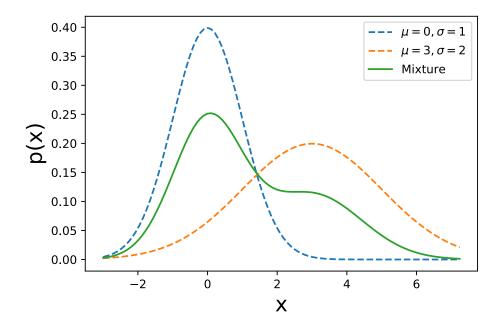




Mixtures of Gaussians



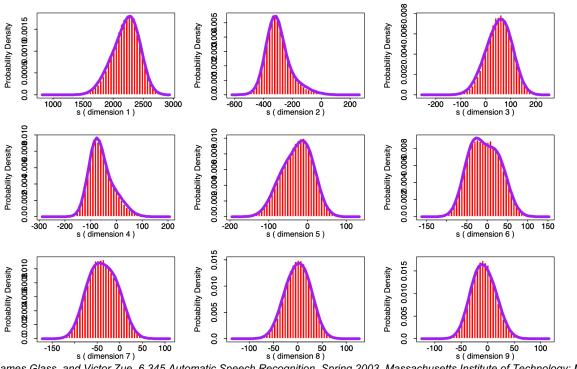
 We can model much more complex distributions by using a mixture (weighted sum) of several Gaussians



Fitting GMMs to MFCCs



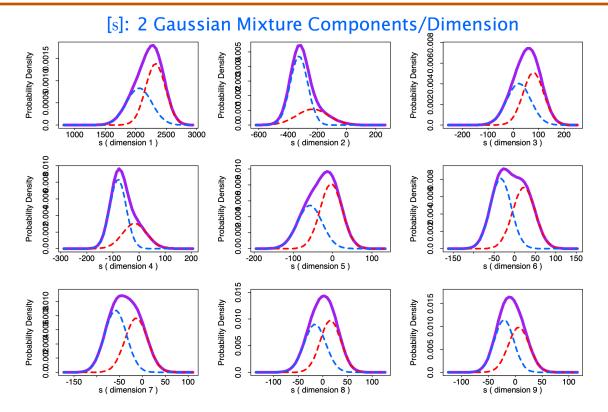
[s]: 2 Gaussian Mixture Components/Dimension



Adapted from James Glass, and Victor Zue. 6.345 Automatic Speech Recognition. Spring 2003. Massachusetts Institute of Technology: MIT OpenCourseWare, https://ocw.mit.edu. License: Creative Commons BY-NC-SA.

Fitting GMMs to MFCCs





Gaussian Mixture Models



A Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) is parameterized by:

- 1. A set of K Gaussian components, $\{(\mu_1, \Sigma_1), ..., (\mu_K, \Sigma_K)\}$
- 2. A set of component weights $\{w_1, ..., w_K\}$ that form a categorical distribution, i.e. $\sum_k w_k = 1$

The probability density of the GMM is given by:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\theta) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} w_k \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

The GMM Generative Story



We can tell a "story" about how a GMM generated our dataset, given parameters $\{(w_1, \mu_1, \Sigma_1), ..., (w_K, \mu_K, \Sigma_K)\}$

For
$$i = 1, ..., N$$
:

- 1. Randomly sample a Gaussian component index $k \sim Categorical(w_1, ..., w_K)$
- 2. Sample $x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(x; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$

2-D Spherical Covariance GMM



Component 1

•
$$\mu = [-0.5, -0.5]^T$$

•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

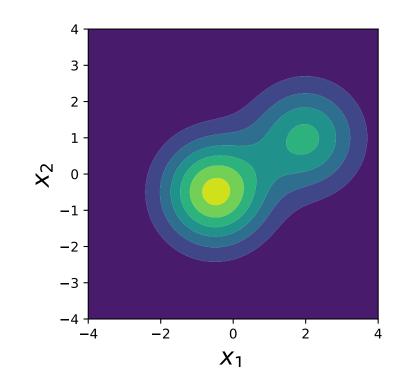
•
$$w = 0.6$$

• Component 2

•
$$\mu = [2, 1]^T$$

•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$w = 0.4$$



2-D Diagonal Covariance GMM



Component 1

•
$$\mu = [-1, -0.5]^T$$

•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

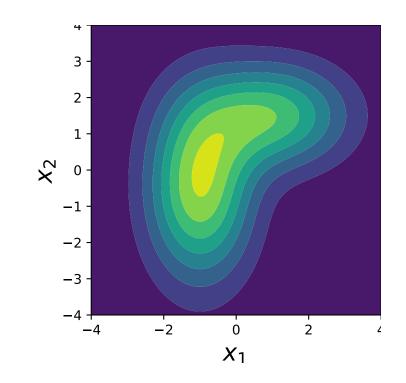
•
$$w = 0.6$$

Component 2

•
$$\mu = [1, 0.5]^T$$

•
$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

•
$$w = 0.4$$





- Assume we are given a dataset $X = \{x_1, ... x_N\}$
- We have model parameters $\theta = \{\theta_1, ..., \theta_k\}, \theta_k = \{w_k, \mu_k, \Sigma_k\}$
- We can still use MLE for fitting a GMM maximize_{θ} $p(X | \theta)$
- Assume x_i 's are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.):

$$p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^N w_k \, \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$



Data likelihood under a GMM:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N | \theta) = \prod_{i=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K w_k \, \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)$$

Directly maximizing this likelihood turns out to be intractable!

• However, think back to our generative story and pretend for a moment that we know which Gaussian component k was responsible for generating each x_i ...



- Define the indicator variable $z_i^k = 1$ if the k^{th} Gaussian component generated datapoint x_i , and 0 otherwise.
- If we knew the value of each z_i^k , we could easily estimate the parameters of the GMM (in a ML sense) like so:

$$w_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} z_i^k$$
 $\mu_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} z_i^k x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} z_i^k}$

$$\Sigma_{k} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} z_{i}^{k} (x_{i} - \mu_{k}) (x_{i} - \mu_{k})^{T}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} z_{i}^{k}}$$



Now let's look at this from the opposite angle.

Assume that we didn't know z_i^k , but we do know each w_i , μ_i , Σ_i .

We can then use the model + Bayes' Rule to infer z_i^k given $oldsymbol{x}_i$:

$$P(z_i^k|\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{p(\mathbf{x}_i|z_i^k)P(z_i^k)}{p(\mathbf{x}_i)} = \frac{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)w_k}{\sum_{l=1}^K \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_l, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_l)w_l}$$



To summarize:

- We want to estimate $\theta = \{\theta_1, ..., \theta_K\}$ from $\{x_1, ..., x_N\}$, but naïve MLE ends up being intractable
- If we knew each z_i^k , we could estimate θ
- If we knew θ , we could infer each $P(z_i^k|x_i)$

This gives rise to an iterative algorithm (Expectation-Maximization, or EM) in which we alternate between 2 steps until convergence:

- 1. Given the current value of θ , compute $P(z_i^k|x_i)$
- 2. Substitute $P(z_i^k|x_i)$ in place of z_i^k , and update our estimate for θ

The E-M Algorithm



- Expectation-Maximization (E-M) can be thought of as a *genre* of algorithms that are used to solve problems that involve *missing information*, AKA hidden variables.
- Typical properties of problems for which E-M is useful:
 - Jointly solving for the parameters and hidden variables is hard
 - If the hidden variables were known, estimating the model parameters would be easy
 - If the model parameters were known, inferring the hidden variables would be easy

The E-M Algorithm for GMMs



1. E-Step:
$$P(z_i^k|\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{P(\mathbf{x}_i|z_i^k)P(z_i^k)}{P(\mathbf{x}_i)} = \frac{\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_k)w_k}{\sum_{l=1}^K \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\mu}_l, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_l)w_l}$$

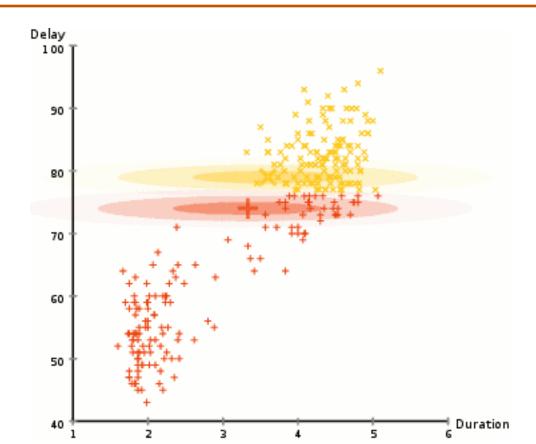
2. M-Step:
$$w_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} P(z_i^k | \mathbf{x}_i) \qquad \mu_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} P(z_i^k | \mathbf{x}_i) \mathbf{x}_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} P(z_i^k | \mathbf{x}_i)}$$

$$\Sigma_k = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} P(z_i^k | \mathbf{x}_i) (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k) (\mathbf{x}_i - \boldsymbol{\mu}_k)^T}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} P(z_i^k | \mathbf{x}_i)}$$

Repeat until convergence! E-M provably finds a *local* maximum of the data likelihood.

E-M Animation





K-Means as "Hard" E-M



Want to group datapoints $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_N\}$ into K clusters Algorithm:

- 1. Randomly initialize centroids $\{\mu_1, \mu_2, ..., \mu_K\}$
- 2. Assign each x_i to the closest cluster C_{j^*} according to

$$j^* = \operatorname{argmin}_j \|x_i - \mu_j\|_2$$

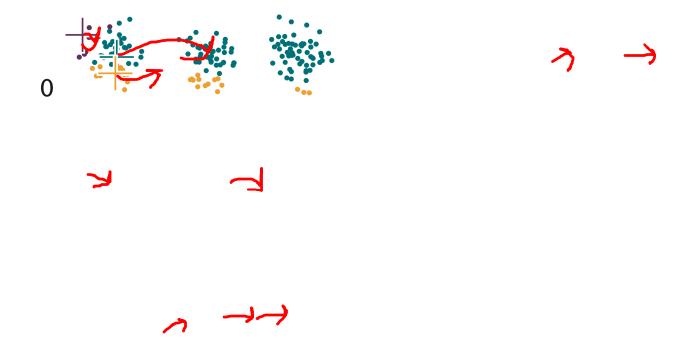
3. Update the centroid locations according to

$$\mu_k = \frac{1}{|C_k|} \sum_{x_i \in C_k} x_i$$

4. Repeat steps 2 and 3 until convergence

K-Means as "Hard" E-M

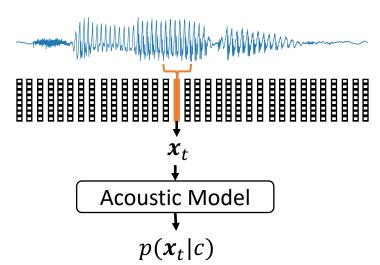




Multi-Class Classification with GMMs



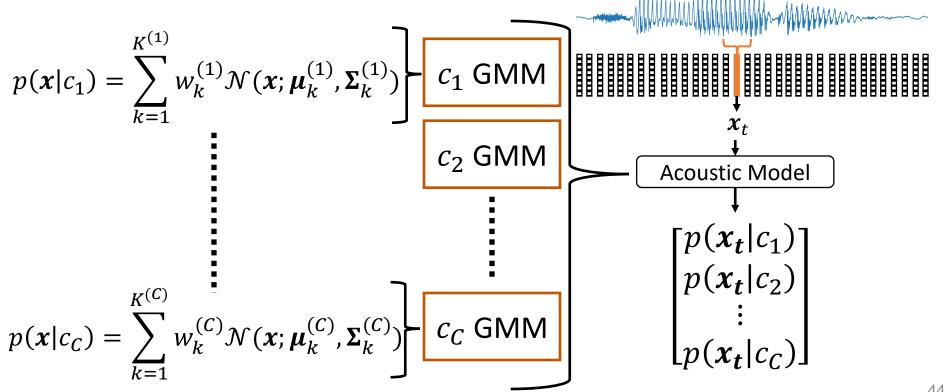
- Back to our original picture, how do we model the acoustic state at time t with GMMs?
- Assume we have C classes, where each $c_j \in \{c_1, ..., c_C\}$ is an acoustic state (e.g. a phone)



• Assume we know the ground-truth class label y_t for every frame. To create a model for class c_j , we can simply collect all the frames that satisfy $y_t = c_j$ and train a GMM with them.

Multi-Class Classification with GMMs



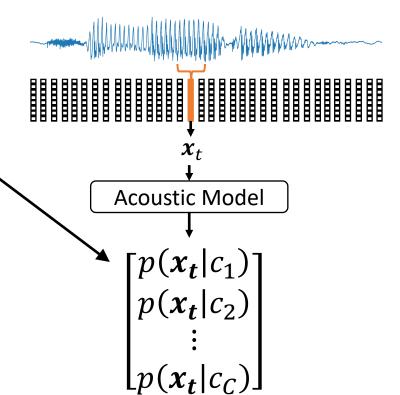


Multi-Class Classification with GMMs



We call these the acoustic state likelihoods

We could use Bayes' Rule to obtain the posterior $p(c|x_t)$ instead. But as we'll see later on, for an ASR system we generally use the likelihoods as-is



Remaining Questions



- How to integrate GMMs into an ASR system?
 - HMM lectures
- What about other acoustic models, like DNNs?:
 - Thursday + Next Week
- How do you get the frame-level labels in the first place?
 - HMM lectures
- Other training tricks
 - Adaptation/Discriminative Training lectures