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Use of acoustic prior information for confidence measure in ASR (*automatic speech recognition*) applications

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Abstract: In this paper, a new acoustic confidence measure of automatic speech recognition hypothesis is proposed and it is compared to approaches proposed in the literature. This approach takes into account prior information on the acoustic model performance specific to each phoneme. The new method is tested on two types of recognition errors: the out-of-vocabulary words and the errors due to additive noise. An efficient way to interpret the raw confidence measure as a correctness prior probability is also proposed in the paper.

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1. Introduction

The use of acoustic confidence measures can be very useful for most automatic speech recognition (ASR) applications. Indeed, it could be of great help to be able to predict whether a hypothesis provided by an ASR system is correct or not. For instance, high level dialogue systems can be significantly improved if we have a good idea of the recognition accuracy,^{1,2} detection of out-of-vocabulary words is required for keyword spotting systems.^{3,4} Let's cite also the selection of reliable acoustics for unsupervised model adaptation,^{5,6} alternative pruning methods in efficient search techniques,⁷ use of confidence measures in diagnostic tools to evaluate performance of ASR components,⁸ etc.

Recognition errors can roughly be classified into two groups: (a) the out-of-vocabulary words (OOV) which occur when words that are not in the recognizer lexicon have been pronounced and (b) recognition in mismatched conditions, which is when use conditions strongly differ from training conditions, that is, the acoustic models are not well suited anymore. This can be due to ambient noise, disfluencies, reverberation, etc. The goal of acoustic confidence measures is to extract from the acoustic information only, an indicator of the confidence we can have in the word hypothesis. As we will see in the following, many approaches can be investigated, unfortunately few of them are well suited for both types of error (OOV and mismatched condition). In this paper, we will propose a new acoustic confidence measure and compare it to other approaches in the two specific conditions of OOV words and noisy speech signal. All the methods have been developed in the framework of hybrid HMM/ ANN system which are well suited to confidence measure calculation as they provide local phone class posterior probability estimations. Finally, confidence measures need to be interpreted in order to decide whether a word is probably correct or incorrect. Ideally, the value should be interpreted as the prior probability that the word hypothesis is correct. We then propose a mapping of the raw confidence measure on a probability-like scale. Experiments have been carried out on PHONEBOOK, an American English isolated word database.

2. Definition of the problem

The problem of confidence measure can be seen as a process of statistical hypothesis testing⁹ in which we want to decide to accept or reject the hypothesis that the most probable sequence of words provided by the recognizer is correct. In this particular case, the acceptance region is delimited by a single threshold value. Therefore, a value of the test statistic that falls on one side of the threshold will result in the hypothesis being accepted, while a value falling on the other side will result in the hypothesis being rejected. Two types of error can occur in such a test: (a) a *type I error* if the hypothesis is rejected when it is true, we will call it *false rejection error* (FR) in the following, and (b) a *type II error* if the hypothesis is accepted when it is false, we will call it *false acceptance error* (FA). We then define the unconditional classification error rate (CER) as the metric for the hypothesis test evaluation:

$$CER = \frac{N(type \ I \ errors) + N(type \ II \ errors)}{N(tested \ hypothesis)}.$$
 (2.1)

Of course, this metric is dependent on the global performance of the system. This is the reason why in the experiments we carried out, we have defined test conditions for which the word error rate is set to 50%. In this case, extreme decisions (accept/reject every hypothesis) will lead to a classification error rate of 50%. The confidence measure can therefore be used as the value used to perform this test statistic.

Note that this paper is concerned by acoustic confidence measure which is derived from the acoustic model only; no higher level information such as language model, semantic analysis, etc. is investigated here. As stated before, two types of recognition errors must be detected: the out-of-vocabulary words and the mismatched test conditions. It is important to note that from the acoustic point of view these two kinds of errors must be examined differently. Indeed, in the case of mismatched conditions, we can expect the acoustic model to poorly classify acoustic data and provide rather smooth likelihoods with high confusion. On the other side, in the case of out-of-vocabulary words, the model matches the acoustic data correctly but leads to sequences of phonetic units that are not covered by the lexicon so that part of the word hypothesis (some phonemes for instance) will not match the acoustic data. As we will see in the next section, some confidence measures are well suited for one type of error and not the other. For this reason, we defined two evaluation sets, one specific to out-of-vocabulary words by modifying the lexicon so that 50% of the set is not recognized anymore, the other one specific to the mismatched condition by adding white noise to the half database.

3. Confidence measures

All the confidence measures we have tested in this study are based on (possibly scaled) posterior probabilities provided by ANN.¹⁰ As stated in Ref. 11, these posterior probabilities are well suited to confidence measures as they are independent of what has been uttered, so that no explicit normalization is required as in Ref. 3.

So, if we denote $W = \{q_k^1, \dots, q_k^N\}$, the best state sequence as provided by the Viterbi decoding, the basic measure denoted PCM is defined as

$$PCM(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(P(q_k^n | X^n)),$$
(3.1)

where $P(q_k^n | X^n)$ is the posterior probability of being in state q_k for acoustic vector X^n , and N is the number of frames of the hypothesized word. The Confidence measures proposed hereafter are basically different normalization procedures of the PCM. Note that some of these approaches can be combined.

3.1 Use of acoustic prior information (PPCM)

A source of disparity between different phonemes comes from the acoustic model itself which intrinsically better matches some acoustics than others. This will lead to average posterior probabilities higher for certain phonemes than for others. So the idea is to compensate for this effect by normalizing the posterior phoneme probability by the mean posterior probability of this phoneme when it is actually pronounced.

Practically during the training phase, we compute for each phoneme, and according to a phonetic alignment, the average posterior probability provided by the ANN. This value gives an idea of the acoustic score we can expect for a given phoneme when it is correctly recognized. Normalizing the posterior probabilities by this value comes to give the same importance to each phoneme. In the following, this confidence measure will be denoted PPCM for *prior phone probability normalized posteriors*:

$$\bar{P}(q_k) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^{T} P(q_k^t | X^t),$$
(3.2)

where X^t are the frames corresponding to the phoneme q_k as provided by a phonetic alignment. $\overline{P}(q_k)$ are computed during the training phase,

$$PPCM(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(P(q_k^n | X^n) / \overline{P}(q_k)), \qquad (3.3)$$

where $P(q_k^n | X^n)$ is the posterior probability of being in state q_k for feature vector X^n and N is the number of frames of the current word.

3.2 Relative posterior probability (RPCM)

This measure is computed by dividing each posterior probability of a frame by the best posterior probability for this frame, and normalizing over the length of the word. This comes to compare to the best acoustic score we can expect for a word hypothesis in the same time segment. As we will see in the results, this confidence measure is very efficient for OOV words but degrades performance for mismatched conditions:

$$\operatorname{RPCM}(W) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(P(q_k^n | X^n) / P(q_{best}^n | X^n)), \qquad (3.4)$$

where $P(q_k^n | X^n)$ is the posterior probability of being in state q_k for feature vector X^n , $P(q_{best}^n | X^n)$ is the best posterior probability for the current frame, and N is the number of frames of the current word.

3.3 Entropy (ECM)

The entropy is calculated for each frame and is independent of the optimal state sequence. Therefore, entropy should rather be seen as a measure of the acoustic model adequacy. The lower the entropy is, the better the model matches the acoustic data:

$$ECM(W) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(q_k^n | X^n) \log(p(q_k^n | X^n)),$$
(3.5)

where K is the number of phones and $p(q_k^n | X^n)$ is the probability estimated by ANN for the current phone.

3.4 Phone based normalization¹²

This normalization can be applied to any of the above described measures. It is computed by normalizing the posterior probabilities of a hypothesis word, first by the phoneme length, then over the word. This comes to give the same importance to each phoneme of the word whatever its length is. As we will see in the results, this normalization leads to very good performance. Indeed, due to their poor acoustic score, mismatched phonemes will be kept as short as possible by the Viterbi decoding. Without normalization, they would have very little influence on the global confidence measure,

$$PCM_{PN}(W) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{1}{n_s - n_e} \sum_{n = n_s}^{n_e} \log(P(q_k^n | X^n)),$$
(3.6)

where $P(q_k^n | X^n)$ is the posterior probability of being in state q_k for feature vector X^n , M is the number of phonemes in the current word, and n_s and n_e are the beginning and ending time index of the current phoneme in the word.

Applied to other confidence measures, we obtain

$$PPCM_{PN}(W) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{1}{n_s - n_e} \sum_{n=n_s}^{n_e} \log\left(\frac{P(q_k^n | X^n)}{\bar{P}(q_k)}\right),$$
(3.7)

$$\operatorname{RPCM}_{PN}(W) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{1}{n_s - n_e} \sum_{n=n_s}^{n_e} \log \left(\frac{P(q_k^n | X^n)}{P(q_{best}^n | X^n)} \right),$$
(3.8)

$$\text{ECM}_{PN}(W) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \frac{1}{n_s - n_e} \sum_{n=n_s}^{n_e} \sum_{k=1}^{K} p(q_k^n | X^n) \log(p(q_k^n | X^n)).$$
(3.9)

4. Experiments

Experiments have been carried out on the PHONEBOOK database,¹³ an American English, telephone speech, isolated word database. To evaluate the efficiency of the confidence measures described above, we plot the classification error rate (CER) as a function of the word rejection rate (WRR).¹² The word rejection rate is of course directly dependent on the decision threshold applied to confidence level.

Three tests were defined in such a way that the initial recognition accuracy was 50%.

- (1) Test for noise effect: 794 correctly recognized words selected from test set, noise is added to half of the utterances. Recognition error is caused by noise only. All noisy utterances lead to recognition errors. The noise is white Gaussian noise with a signal-tonoise ratio of 13 dB.
- (2) Test for OOV words: 2000 correctly recognized words are selected from test set. Confidence measures for first and second hypotheses in the *N*-best list are calculated. All the scores (for first and second hypotheses) are used to plot the performance curve. This test can be considered an OOV test, because in the case of absence of the best word hypothesis in the vocabulary, the recognizer will choose the second word as output. Confidence scores for the second word of an *N*-best list is calculated after realignement of phones for the acoustic data.
- (3) Test on all of the PHONEBOOK test sets: eight test sets from the PHONEBOOK database are combined as one test set of 6599 utterances. The number of incorrectly recognized words is 480. To obtain 50% accuracy, only 480 of correct word hypotheses were selected.

Figure 1 displays the results for the confidence measures introduced in Sec. 3 on the three test sets with world level normalization. Figure 2 displays the results with the phone-based normalization. As can be seen from the two figures, PPCM outperforms all the other methods in the case of test for noise effect. In OOV case, RPPCM, which is the mixed version of RPCM and PPCM, is the best, which means normalization of the decoded phone probability by the best phone probability improves the efficiency of the confidence measure in OOV cases. Indeed, this normalization comes to give the value zero as an upper bound to the confidence score, so we can expect that correctly recognized words will have confidence scores very close to zero while OOV words will have lower scores leading to better discrimination between correct and incorrect hypotheses. Unfortunately, this normalization degrades the performance in the case of ad-

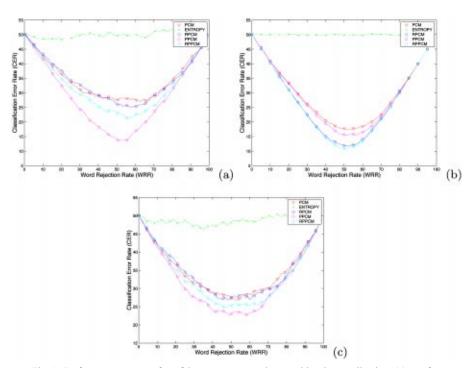


Fig. 1. Performance curves of confidence measures using word level normalization. (a) test for noise effect, (b) test for OOV cases, and (c) test for PHONEBOOK database test sets.

ditive noise. Indeed, in this case, we can expect smoothed posteriors so that every hypothesis will have a confidence score close to zero with no more discrimination. For the normal test set it is PPCM which is still the best. Figure 2 shows that the use of phone-based normalization systematically improves the efficiency of confidence measures. This normalization is very efficient but requires to keep phone level backtracking information during the decoding.

5. Decision threshold

The confidence scores computed as above must be used to take the final decision of accepting or rejecting a hypothesis. Of course, we would like to have a value that can be directly interpretable so that the decision threshold can be easily fixed. A smart interpretation of such a value could be the probability of a word to be correct. Indeed, in such a case, a confidence score of 0.8 would mean that the word is statistically correctly recognized with 80% chance. During the training phase, we can build the histogram of word recognition rate according to their confidence score. We propose to match a sigmoid on this histogram. This sigmoid can be interpreted as a mapping function from the raw confidence score to probabilitylike values.

The procedure can be described as follows:

• For each confidence score, compute the word recognition rate as the ratio of the number of correct words on the total number of words, that is, for each score *i*,

$$score(i) = \frac{h_{correct}(i)}{h_{correct}(i) + h_{incorrect}(i)}.$$
(5.1)

• The sigmoid to be matched is as follows:

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta(x-\alpha)}}.$$
 (5.2)

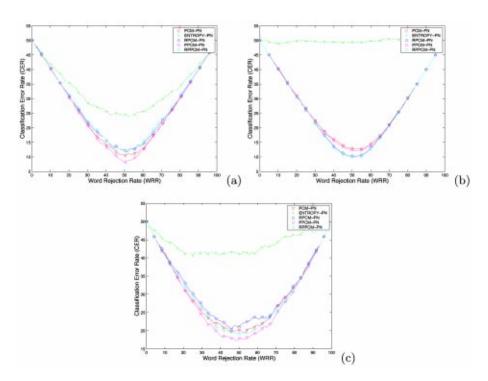


Fig. 2. Performance curves of confidence measures using phone based normalization. (a) test for noise effect, (b) test for OOV cases, and (c) test for PHONEBOOK database test sets.

• For $(x-\alpha)=0$ we find y=0.5. This point can either be immediately taken from the histogram or preferably computed from the distributions of correct and incorrect words. Indeed, if we assume these distributions can be approximated by Gaussians, we can find α as the point where the probability of a word to be correct is equal to the probability to it being incorrect:

$$\alpha = \frac{\mu_{correct} * \sigma_{incorrect} + \mu_{incorrect} * \sigma_{correct}}{\sigma_{correct} + \sigma_{incorrect}},$$
(5.3)

where μ and σ are the mean and standard deviation of the Gaussian distributions.

• The last unknown parameter is β , which can be approximated by the *golden section search*, algorithm.¹⁴ This algorithm finds a polynomial interpolation for a function that minimizes criteria. In our case, we want to minimize the distance between the histogram points and the sigmoid as shown in Fig. 3.

6. Conclusion

We can conlude that, if there is a presence of additive noise in test data, use of accoustic prior information obtained from training data improves the efficiency of confidence measure. For OOV tests the best confidence measure was obtained after normalizing the decoded phone posterior probabilities by the best posterior probability of each frame. It was seen that using phone based normalization improved the efficiency for all methods. It is therefore interesting to note that ideally different confidence measure should be used for different types of error. Note also that while the entropy could not be used as a confidence measure (totally inefficient in case of OOV words), it could possibly be used to identify portions of the signal where the model mismatches the acoustic data and therefore predict which kind of error we can expect and eventually which kind of confidence measure should be used.

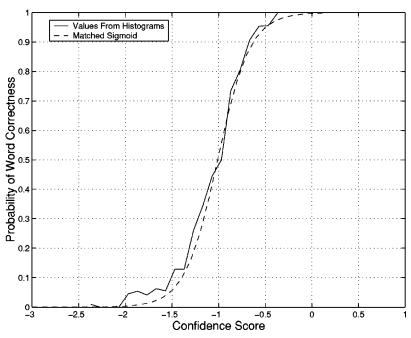


Fig. 3. Mapping function (sigmoid) for the confidence measure RPPCM_{PN} calculated over the test set prepared for OOV test.

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