Improving Deep Neural Networks Based Speaker Verification Using Unlabeled Data

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Abstract

Recently, deep neural networks (DNNs) trained to predict senones have been incorporated into the conventional i-vector based speaker verification systems to provide soft frame alignments and show promising results. However, the data mismatching problem may degrade the performance since the DNN requires transcribed data (out-domain data) while the data sets (in-domain data) used for i-vector training and extraction are mostly untranscribed. In this paper, we try to address this problem by exploiting the unlabeled in-domain data during the training of the DNN, hoping the DNN can provide a more robust basis for the in-domain data. In our work, we explore the affection of the usage of in-domain data during the unsupervised DNN pre-training process. In addition, we decode the in-domain data using a hybrid DNN-HMM system to get its transcription, and then we retrain the DNN model with the "labeled" in-domain data. Experimental results on the NIST SRE 2008 and the NIST SRE 2010 databases demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed methods.

Index Terms: deep neural networks, speaker verification, unlabeled data

1. Introduction

Over recent years, the Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) has laid the foundation of many speaker verification systems \([1, 2, 3]\), among which i-vector has become a dominant approach for speaker verification and has brought significant performance improvement. In i-vector paradigm, each utterance is represented as a low-dimensional vector called i-vector and then probabilistic linear discriminant analysis (PLDA) could be performed to get the final verification scores \([4, 5, 6]\).

More recently, deep neural networks (DNNs) have become the state-of-the-art in automatic speech recognition (ASR) systems, bringing an about 30% relative improvement in word error rate (WER) \([7, 8]\). DNN approaches have also been evaluated in speaker verification area in the last few years and many of them try to use the DNN as a direct replacement for the classical GMM approach \([9, 10, 11]\). Recently, however, a hybrid framework proposed in \([12]\) and \([13]\) has shown promising results in speaker verification tasks where the DNN trained to discriminant between senones is used as a replacement of the GMM to provide frame posterior probabilities during the extraction of sufficient statistics. Their work actually demonstrate that more accurate content (senones) frame alignments could benefit speaker verification tasks. This framework has also been successfully applied in spoken language recognition \([14]\).

Generally, speech recognition and speaker verification are two individual tasks and it is usually very difficult to have sufficient transcribed in-domain data that matches speaker verification task. The DNN model trained with the out-domain data only might not fully reflect the phonetic characteristics of the target acoustic space. Finding a way to effectively narrow the gap caused by data mismatch is thus a meaningful issue. In our previous work \([15]\), we try to address this problem by using a GMM trained with bottleneck features of in-domain data as a replacement of the DNN trained with out-domain data to provide frame posterior probabilities. In this paper, however, we try to adapt the DNN model to the target acoustic space directly using the unlabeled (untranscribed) in-domain data. In our work, we firstly explore the effects of using in-domain data for DNN initialization during the unsupervised DNN pre-training process. In this way, we hope the region of space covered by the solution associated with this initialization could shrink to an area that is suitable both for out-domain data and in-domain data. In addition, we try to obtain the transcription of in-domain data automatically using a hybrid DNN-HMM system, and then retrain the DNN model with the “transcribed” in-domain data. Even though these machine-labeled transcriptions are not accurate enough, it can be inferred that the frames of in-domain data that have been grouped to the same senone are more phonetically correlated to each other and the DNN model trained with these data can provide more accurate content frame alignments to some extent during test stage. We also evaluate the performance of using bottleneck features extracted from our adapted DNNs for sufficient statistics extraction to see if additional improvement could be obtained. Experiments on the NIST SRE 2008 female short2-short3 English telephone task and the NIST SRE 2010 female core-extended English telephone task verify the effectiveness of the proposed methods.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the DNN based i-vector framework. Section 3 introduces our proposed strategies of using unlabeled in-domain data during the training of DNNs. Experimental setup and results are given in Section 4. Finally, conclusions are presented in Section 5.

2. The DNN based i-vector framework

The conventional i-vector model is based on the GMM-UBM and each utterance is represented by its sufficient statistics
Statistics component of UBM. \( \gamma \) statistics of an utterance corresponding to the \( c \)-th Gaussian component. The BN feature contains rich phonetic features. The BN feature extractor. Then a GMM is trained in the traditional senone-based DNN trained with out-domain data is used as a strategy to address the data mismatch problem [15]. Specifically, the GMM trained with BN features to provide frame alignments to some extent. The target acoustic space, thus providing more accurate content be more effective in reflecting the phonetic characteristics of the data. It can be inferred that the frames of the in-domain data generated by ASR system may not be accurate enough, it can be expected that the frames of the in-domain data to provide frame posteriors. Even thought the transcripts of the in-domain data generated by ASR system may not be accurate enough, it can be inferred that the frames of the in-domain data that have been grouped to the same senone are less effective for the lower layer parameters. The fine-tuning may be more effective for both in-domain and out-domain data if the parameters of lower layer are robustly learned. In other words, the DNN may therefore provide more accurate frame alignments for in-domain data.

4. Utilizing unlabeled in-domain data

The training of DNN is a two stage process: unsupervised pre-training and supervised fine-tuning [19]. The pre-training can make a very important difference because of the non-convexity of the training criterion. The idea of pre-training the DNN is to regard it as a generative Deep Belief Network (DBN) which is a stack of Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs) [20]. Since the pre-training plays an important role and is implemented in an unsupervised way, it is interesting to investigate the effects of reinforcing pre-training by utilizing unlabeled in-domain data. The pre-training actually can be viewed as an unsupervised learning process of feature representation. More abstract feature representation could be learned as the neural network becomes deeper. By utilizing the unlabeled in-domain data together with out-domain data is expected to make the neural network a more robust feature detector. On the other hand, back-propagation algorithm used during fine-tuning step is actually more effective for the lower layer parameters and less effective for the lower layer parameters. The fine-tuning may be more effective for both in-domain and out-domain data if the parameters of lower layer are robustly learned. In other words, the DNN may therefore provide more accurate frame alignments for in-domain data.

4.2. supervised re-training with in-domain data

The current state-of-the-art DNN based ASR systems usually require a relatively large transcribed training data to be trained on to make full use of DNN’s discriminative ability. However, the data preparation costs too much time and human efforts, which can be prohibitive especially for languages with few speakers. A practical way in ASR to address this problem is using self re-training methods [21, 22, 23]. In these methods, the transcribed data are firstly used to build a seed model. Then this model is used to decode the untranscribed data to generate transcriptions, which are regarded as ground-truth transcripts in further training.

In this paper, we investigate using the self re-training strategy to address the data mismatch problem. In our work, we first train a hybrid DNN-HMM system using the transcribed out-domain data to decode the untranscribed in-domain data. Then we retrain the DNN model with the “transcribed” in-domain data to provide frame posteriors. Even thought the transcripts of the in-domain data generated by ASR system may not be accurate enough, it can be inferred that the frames of in-domain data that have been grouped to the same senone are more phonetically correlated to each other. As a result, it can be expected that the DNN model trained with these data might be more effective in reflecting the phonetic characteristics of the target acoustic space, thus providing more accurate content frame alignments to some extent.

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Figure 1: The flow diagrams of (a) DNN based (b) bottleneck features based i-vector framework.

(Baum-Welch statistics) extracted with the UBM as follows

\[
N_c = \sum_t \gamma_{c,t} \tag{1}
\]

\[
F_c = \sum_t \gamma_{c,t} o_t \tag{2}
\]

\[
S_c = \sum_t \gamma_{c,t} o_t o_t^T \tag{3}
\]

where \( N_c \), \( F_c \) and \( S_c \) are the zero-order, first-order and second statistics of an utterance corresponding to the \( c \)-th Gaussian component of UBM. \( \gamma_{c,t} \) is the posterior probability of feature vector \( o_t \) generated by the \( c \)-th Gaussian component.

In [12] and [13], the DNN trained to predict senones is used as a replacement of the GMM-UBM in extracting sufficient statistics. Specifically, by treating each senone outputs of the DNN as a single-Gaussian like units in the UBM, the sufficient statistics could be extracted by replacing the Gaussian posterior with senone posterior. This could be regarded as phonetically-dependent (senone-dependent) frame alignments where content based comparison is able to be made between different speakers afterwards.

3. The bottleneck features based i-vector framework

The DNN based bottleneck (BN) features are being widely used in various speech related applications to improve system’s performance [16, 17, 18]. In our previous work, we propose using a GMM trained with BN features to provide frame alignments to address the data mismatch problem [15]. Specifically, the senone-based DNN trained with out-domain data is used as a BN feature extractor. Then a GMM is trained in the traditional unsupervised way with BN features of in-domain data and is used to calculate frame posterior probabilities while collecting sufficient statistics. The BN feature contains rich phonetic information since the DNN is trained to discriminant between senones. As a result, each component of the GMM is more connected to phonetic content. In addition, the GMM alignment model can be more accurate than the DNN alignment model in modeling the target acoustic space to some extent by utilizing the in-domain data. The flow diagrams of DNN based and BN features based i-vector framework are presented in Figure 1.
5. Experiments

5.1. Experimental setup

5.1.1. dataset

Experiments are carried out on the NIST SRE2008 female short2-short3 telephone-telephone English task (Condition 7) and the NIST SRE2010 female core-extended telephone-telephone English task (Condition 5) [24, 25]. The training data for senone-based DNNs are 300 hours English telephone speeches from Switchboard-I (out-domain data). The training data for DNN unsupervised pre-training, DNN supervised re-training, UBM, T matrix and PLDA are selected from NIST SRE 04, 05, 06 telephone data (in-domain data).

5.1.2. models

- **GMM-HMM**: A GMM-HMM system is firstly trained to generate transcriptions for senones. It uses 52-dimensional PLP features (13 basic + first-order + second-order + third-order) with speaker-based mean-covariance normalization. Then the features are further reduced to 39 dimension by HLDA. The GMM-HMM uses 2227 senones tied by a phonetic decision tree.

- **DNN**: The DNN used to provide the posterior probability is pre-trained as Deep Belief Network (DBN) and then is fine-tuned with cross-entropy criterion. 11 frames where each frame consists of 120 log Mel-filterbank coefficients (40 basic + first-order + second order) are concatenated as the input of the network. The DNN has five hidden layers and each hidden layer has 1200 nodes. The output of the DNN with respect to senones has 2227 nodes. The configurations of the DNN with BN layer are the same except that the number of the fifth hidden layer is changed to 39.

- **DNN-HMM**: The DNN-HMM system with 2227 senones is used for the decoding of the unlabeled in-domain data. A trigram language model is trained using the transcriptions of the 2000-hour English Fisher corpus with modified Kneser-Ney smoothing and is interpolated with a more general trigram.

- **UBM-i-vector model**: 39-dimensional (13 basic + first order + second order) PLP is extracted as the raw acoustic feature. Then a gender-dependent diagonal covariance UBM with 2048 mixtures is trained. The dimensionality of i-vectors is 400. Simplified Gaussian PLDA is used to generate verification scores and the dimensionality of speaker subspace in PLDA model is 200.

- **DNN-i-vector model**: The DNN with senone outputs are used to provide frame posteriors. Then these frame posteriors are combined with 39-dimensional PLP features for sufficient statistics extraction. The number of mixtures is confined by the number of senones. Other model configurations are the same with the UBM-i-vector model.

- **BN-i-vector model**: the DNN with senone outputs are used to extract 39-dimensional BN features. Then a UBM is trained with these BN features and is used to provide frame posteriors. These frame posteriors are combined with 39-dimensional PLP features for sufficient statistics extraction. The number of mixtures is set to 2048 for all systems. Other model configurations are the same with the UBM-i-vector model.

Equal error rate (EER) and minimum decision cost function (minDCF) are adopted for evaluation [24].

5.2. Experimental results

We first evaluate the effects of using different data for DNN pre-training. Table 1 presents the results of UBM-i-vector and DNN-i-vector with different pre-training data. The SRE data used for pre-training are 300 hours randomly selected speeches from NIST SRE 04, 05, 06 and all DNN models are fine-tuned with SWB data. It can be seen that all the DNN based systems outperform the UBM approach. However, the DNNSRE system is slightly worse compared with the other two DNN systems since the data for pre-training and fine-tuning are completely different and the fine-tuning of the DNN might be less effective. In addition, the DNNSWB,SRE based system can provide further performance improvements over the DNNSWB system, and the relative improvements are 4.97% in EER, 5.62% in minDCF on SRE08 trial, 4.58% in EER, 2.13% in minDCF on SRE10 trial. We also evaluate the performance of different DNN based ASR systems on Hub5’00-SWB speech recognition data set. The results are presented in Table 1 as well. The performance of DNNSWB,SRE and DNNSWB based ASR systems are the same while the DNNSRE is slightly worse. From the above speech recognition and speaker verification results, it can be concluded that DNN pre-trained with both in-domain data and out-domain data is robust and effective for both tasks.

Table 1: Performance (EER(/%)/minDCF08×10) of UBM-i-vector and DNN-i-vector with different DNN pre-training data on the NIST SRE08 short2-short3 condition7 and the NIST SRE10 core-extended condition5. The last column gives the word error rate (WER(%)) of corresponding DNN-HMM systems on Hub5’00-SWB.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>system</th>
<th>SRE08</th>
<th>SRE10</th>
<th>ASR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UBM-i-vector</td>
<td>2.02/0.106</td>
<td>3.12/0.156</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNNSWB-i-vector</td>
<td>1.81/0.089</td>
<td>2.84/0.141</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNNSRE-i-vector</td>
<td>1.90/0.088</td>
<td>3.05/0.147</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DNNSWBSWB,i-vector</td>
<td>1.72/0.084</td>
<td>2.71/0.138</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 presents the results of UBM-i-vector, DNN-i-vector and BN-i-vector with different pre-training data. From the results we can see the DNNSRE,SWB-i-vector is competitive to BN-i-vector. Additional performance improvements could be obtained with BN features extracted from DNNSRE,SWB, and the relative improvements are 8.14% in EER, 5.95% in minDCF on SRE08 trial, 3.32% in EER, 4.35% in minDCF on SRE10 trial. Since the bottleneck layer in our DNN is the last hidden layer, the pre-training can be viewed as an adaptation of parameters below the bottleneck layer and the BN based approach can be viewed as an adaptation of parameters above

\begin{table}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
system                  & SRE08 | SRE10 | ASR  \\
\hline
UBM-i-vector            & 2.02/0.106 | 3.12/0.156 |      \\
\hline
DNNSWB,i-vector         & 1.81/0.089 | 2.84/0.141 | 18.8 \\
BNSWB,i-vector          & 1.69/0.083 | 2.70/0.136 |      \\
\hline
DNNSRE,SWB,i-vector     & 1.72/0.084 | 2.71/0.138 | 18.8 \\
BNSRE,SWB,i-vector      & 1.58/0.079 | 2.62/0.132 |      \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}
the bottleneck layer. Thus combining these two complementary methods will lead to more accurate frame alignments for the in-domain data, which explains the additional performance improvement of $SRE_{SWB}$-i-vector over $DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector.

Table 3: Performance (EER(%)/minDCF08×10) of UBM-i-vector and $DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector with different DNN fine-tuning data on the NIST SRE08 short2-short3 condition7 and the NIST SRE10 core-extended condition5. The last column gives the Word Error Rate (WER(%)) of corresponding DNN-HMM systems on Hub5 00-SWB.

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<td>1.72/0.084</td>
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<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.47/0.076</td>
<td>2.43/0.125</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.64/0.079</td>
<td>2.50/0.129</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Next, we evaluate the effects of using “transcribed” in-domain data for DNN fine-tuning. Table 3 presents the results of DNN-i-vector with different fine-tuning data. The SRE data that have been decoded for fine-tuning are the same as the data used in unsupervised pre-training experiments. The DNN-HMM system used for decoding the SRE data is trained with SWB data. The DNNs in Table 3 are all pre-trained with both SWB and SRE data. From the results we can see that $DNN_{SRE}$-based systems perform significantly better than $DNN_{SWB}$ based approach, the relative improvements are 14.5% in EER, 9.52% in minDCF on SRE08 trial, 10.3% in EER, 9.42% in minDCF on SRE10 trial. However, the performance of $DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector is not as good as $DNN_{SRE}$-i-vector though it outperforms $DNN_{SWB}$-i-vector. From the results it can be concluded that DNN fine-tuned with SRE data do reflect the phonetic characteristics of the target acoustic space better than DNN fine-tuned with SWB data. In addition, the results of different DNN based ASR systems on Hub5'00-SWB speech recognition data set are presented in Table 3. From the results we can see that for ASR task, the DNN based systems perform much worse when the SRE data are included for fine-tuning. Actually, it can be inferred that the frames of SRE data that have been grouped to the same senone are more phonetically correlated to each other, but they may not strictly match the senone labels that have been assigned to them. As a result, the DNN trained with these “transcribed” SRE data are more relevant and reliable for speech recognition task while the inclusion of them will be harmful to speech recognition.

Table 4: Performance (EER(%)/minDCF08×10) of DNN-i-vector and $BN_{SRE}$-i-vector with different DNN fine-tuning data on the NIST SRE08 short2-short3 condition7 and the NIST SRE10 core-extended condition5.

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<td>2.62/0.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$DNN_{SRE}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.47/0.076</td>
<td>2.43/0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$BN_{SRE}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.88/0.089</td>
<td>2.90/0.143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.64/0.079</td>
<td>2.50/0.129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$BN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.56/0.077</td>
<td>2.52/0.128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 presents the results of DNN-i-vector and $BN_{SRE}$-i-vector with different fine-tuning data. The BN feature based systems outperform the DNN based approaches when SWB data are included for DNN fine-tuning. However, the BN features based system performs much worse when only SRE data are used for DNN fine-tuning. A reasonable explanation might be that BN features extracted from SRE data related DNNs are less phonetically discriminative compared with BN features extracted from DNN trained with SWB data since the transcripts of SRE data are not accurate enough. As a result, the GMM trained with these BN features might be less effective for acoustic space modeling. Besides, since the difference between $DNN_{SRE}$ and $BN_{SRE}$ based approaches is that the softmax layer has been replaced with GMM, it can be inferred that the softmax layer of $DNN_{SRE}$ plays important role for frame alignments and contains much phonetic information with respect to the target acoustic space.

Table 5: Performance (EER(%)/minDCF08×10) of $DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector fine-tuned with randomly selected SRE data and sentence-level confidence based SRE data on the NIST SRE08 short2-short3 condition7 and the NIST SRE10 core-extended condition5.

<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-i-vector</td>
<td>1.47/0.076</td>
<td>2.43/0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-confidence-i-vector</td>
<td>1.42/0.073</td>
<td>2.35/0.120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Generally, it is necessary to take confidence measure into consideration when choosing in-domain data for model re-training. We first decode all the SRE training data and then select 300 hours speeches with highest sentence confidence for model re-training for comparison. The sentence confidence is calculated as the average word confidence in a sentence. The results are presented in Table 5. It can be seen that data selection could bring additional performance improvements. The $DNN_{SRE, SWB}$-confidence-i-vector performs best among all systems evaluated in this paper, and the relative improvements are 29.7% in EER, 31.1% in minDCF on SRE08, 24.7% in EER, 23.1% in minDCF on SRE10 compared with UBM-i-vector.

6. Conclusions

In this paper we try to address the data mismatching problem arose in the hybrid DNN-i-vector framework by using unlabeled in-domain data. Experiments on the NIST SRE 2008 and the NIST SRE 2010 female English telephone tasks show that DNN pre-trained with both in-domain and out-domain data is more effective for speaker verification, and using BN features extracted from this DNN to calculate frame posteriors can provide further improvements. In addition, significant performance improvements can be obtained when the DNN fine-tuned with decoded in-domain data is used for frame alignments. However, the BN feature extracted from DNNs in this situation is less effective. In the future, we’ll analyze the effects of using different number of decoded data and evaluate systems’ performance on multilingual speaker verification tasks.

7. Acknowledgements

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8. References


