Aiming for best fit T-norms in speech recognition

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Abstract—Here we generalize the model of automatic speech recognition (ASR) based on the maximization of products of probability likelihoods of each corresponding speech frame and phoneme by applying strict t-norms. We formulate it as a minimization problem in terms of the logarithmic generator of strict t-norms and investigate the experimental solutions for piecewise linear logarithmic generators. The performance of the best fit t-norms found in this manner for a database used earlier proved to be superior than that of classical t-norms.

I. INTRODUCTION

Most speech recognition systems rely on assigning a sequence of parameters with values between 0 and 1 to short speech segments that represent the probability likelihood of a given segment being a particular phoneme. On the other hand, we are given a dictionary of strings of phonemes (words or complete sentences) which should be compared with the matrix consisting of the above-mentioned probability likelihoods of the speech signal chunk in order to determine which sequence of items in our dictionary should be taken as the best guess for the whole speech signal. The traditional strategies try to identify parts of the speech signal which may correspond to a given dictionary item. Given a sequence of shorter consecutive speech segments which are viewed as likely occurrences of phonemes, one can determine fitness parameters for dictionary words consisting of as many phonemes as the number of given speech segments. (This procedure can be easily extended to words having fewer phonemes than the number of segments by stretching some phonemes.) This fitness parameter determination is mostly done on the basis of the above-mentioned speech-phoneme probability likelihood values, namely we calculate it by taking their product.

In this paper we shall be primarily interested in improving the seemingly arbitrary step of replacing the simple products of speech-phoneme probability likelihood values by their T-norms. It is well known that any continuous Archimedean T-norm is of equivalent order topologically either to the product norm or to the Lukasiewicz norm [7]. Here we shall be concerned with finding the best fit T-norm. Taking into account the fact that the classical Lukasiewicz norm produces a very low performance in this situation, it can be expected that even its order topological equivalents would be less suitable for this kind of application, hence this is why we shall just focus on product-equivalent T-norms.

II. THE SPEECH RECOGNITION PROCESS

In the speech recognition problem the task is to assign the correct word from a dictionary to a given speech signal. But without a priori knowledge it is not possible to tell for sure whether a given word is the correct one or not, so in practice we look for the word which is the “best fitting” one. This should be done strictly without human interaction, but the procedure of course should result in the correct word in as many cases as possible. There is a common way of doing it, which we will describe in the following, and then we shall define a way of improving it (i.e. making it supply the correct words in more cases than previously).

With a frame-based description [13], the speech signal, after several signal processing steps, is defined as a series of equal-sized vectors that describe significant information for short time, equal-sized speech segments called frames. For an example, see Figure 1. Now we will consider the set of possible phonemes \( o_1, o_2, \ldots, o_N \), and use a standard procedure to calculate the frame-phoneme probability matrix.
of guesses we investigate should be drastically reduced using
This step is usually done by some machine learning method
stretched so that one phoneme is assigned to each frame. E.g.
can be treated simply as a sequence of phonemes already
transcribed manually or by some algorithm, hence we can treat
such as the Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) [4] or Artificial
Neural Networks (ANNs) [1]. As an illustration, let us take the
pronounced word "negyven" (forty in Hungarian) with \( t = 100 \)
and \( N = 49 \). As a starting step with the GMM procedure
we get the matrix \( P \) as in Table I with \( p_{1,1} = 0.3, p_{1,2} = 0.2, \ldots, p_{49,100} = 0.5 \).

Next we turn to the word set. For this we have a dictionary
which contains all the possible words which are to be matched
against the speech signal. Each word (or even word sequences)
can be treated simply as a sequence of phonemes already
transcribed manually or by some algorithm, hence we can treat
them as phoneme-sequences. A sample dictionary would be
one like this:

\[
\begin{array}{c|cccccccc}
\text{Frames} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & \cdots & t \\
\hline
\phi_1 = a & 0.3 & 0.2 & 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.4 & 0.4 & 0.3 & \cdots & 0.1 \\
\phi_2 = b & 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.1 & \cdots & 0.2 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\
\phi_{25} = n & 0.2 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.4 & 0.3 & 0.5 & \cdots & 0.1 \\
\phi_{48} = z & 0.1 & 0.1 & 0.2 & 0.1 & 0.0 & 0.2 & 0.1 & \cdots & 0.1 \\
\phi_{49} = \sim & 0.6 & 0.6 & 0.5 & 0.6 & 0.4 & 0.4 & 0.2 & \cdots & 0.5 \\
\end{array}
\]

TABLE I
EXAMPLE OF PROBABILITY ESTIMATES FOR PHONEMES.

\[
P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{i\tau} : 1 \leq i \leq N, 1 \leq \tau \leq t \end{bmatrix},
\]

\[
p_{i\tau} = \text{prob. likelihood of phoneme } i \text{ corresponding to frame } \tau.
\]

This step is usually done by some machine learning method
such as the Gaussian Mixture Model (GMM) [4] or Artificial
Neural Networks (ANNs) [1]. As an illustration, let us take the
pronounced word "negyven" (forty in Hungarian) with \( t = 100 \)
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one like this:

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\begin{array}{c|c}
\text{Frames} & 1 \leq i \leq N, 1 \leq \tau \leq t \\
\hline
\phi_1 = a & 0.3 \ 0.2 \ 0.2 \ 0.3 \ 0.4 \ 0.4 \ 0.3 \ \cdots \ 0.1 \\
\phi_2 = b & 0.1 \ 0.3 \ 0.2 \ 0.1 \ 0.2 \ 0.1 \ 0.1 \ \cdots \ 0.2 \\
\vdots & \vdots \ \vdots \ \vdots \ \vdots \ \vdots \ \vdots \ \cdots \ \vdots \\
\phi_{25} = n & 0.2 \ 0.2 \ 0.1 \ 0.3 \ 0.4 \ 0.3 \ 0.5 \ \cdots \ 0.1 \\
\phi_{48} = z & 0.1 \ 0.1 \ 0.2 \ 0.1 \ 0.0 \ 0.2 \ 0.1 \ \cdots \ 0.1 \\
\phi_{49} = \sim & 0.6 \ 0.6 \ 0.5 \ 0.6 \ 0.4 \ 0.4 \ 0.2 \ \cdots \ 0.5 \\
\end{array}
\]

TABLE II
THE \( p_{\nu,\tau} \) VALUES FOR A GUESS OF THE WORD "NEGYVEN". IT HAS
SILENT FRAMES FROM 1 TO 5, THEN A PHONEME "N" STARTING AT FRAME
6, AND A SILENT FRAME AT THE END.

\[
\nu(n, \tau) := \left[ \text{the index of the } \tau\text{-th phoneme in guess } n \right].
\]

In our example \( \nu(1, 1) = \nu(1, 2) = \nu(1, 3) = 49, \nu(1, 4) =
\nu(1, 5) = \cdots = \nu(1, 10) = 1, \nu(1, 11) = \cdots = \nu(1, 21) = 2,
\nu(1, 22) = \cdots = \nu(1, 28) = 1, \nu(1, 29) = \cdots = \nu(1, 100) =
49 \) because our first guess begins with 3 consecutive silent
frames ("\( \sim \)" = \( o_{49} \)) followed by 7 "a" frames (\( = o_1 \)) etc.
For an example of "negyven" with the corresponding \( \nu \) values, see
Table II above.

During the classical procedure the fitness value \( F_n \) for guess
\( n \) is simply calculated by taking the product of the probability
likelihood values of its phonemes like so

\[
F_n = \prod_{\tau=1}^{t} p_{\nu(n,\tau)\tau} ,
\]

and our final guess should be the one where \( \max_n F_n \) is
taken. Heuristically, taking the product of probability likeli-
hoods for the fitness value corresponds to assuming high scale
independence between the consecutive frames in the speech
signal. Though even this standard approach has proved to be
quite successful, it is natural to expect that it can be improved
further by replacing the product in the formula of \( F_n \) with a
more general binary operation on the interval \([0,1]\) which is
commutative, associative and increasing with unit 1 and sink
0. These operations are just the so-called T-norms of fuzzy
logic and they are used to calculate the certainties (probability
likelihood) of an element belonging to the intersection of two
fuzzy sets based on the certainties of its belonging to the
intersecting sets. Thus we will now give a brief outline of
T-norms.

III. STRICT TRIANGULAR NORMS

A strict triangular norm is a binary operation \( T : [0,1]^2 \rightarrow
[0,1] \) such that

(a) \( T(x, y) = T(y, x), T(T(x, y), z) = T(x, T(y, z)) \),
(b) \( T(0, x) = 0, T(1, x) = x \),
(c) \( T(x_1, y) < T(x_2, y) \) for all \( x_1 < x_2, y \neq 0 \).
Recall [3], [10] that all strict continuous t-norms admit the representation
\[ T(x, y) = f^{-1}(f(x) + f(y)) \]
with some suitable strictly decreasing continuous function \( f : [0, 1] \to [0, \infty) \) such that \( f(0) = \infty \) and \( f(1) = 0 \). The function \( f \) above is said to be an additive generator of \( T \). Any strictly decreasing surjective function \( f : [0, 1] \to [0, \infty) \) is the additive generator of some strict t-norm, and two additive generators \( f_1 \) and \( f_2 \) give rise to the same t-norm if and only if they are positive multiples of each other.

In the classical approach (see Eq. (1)) the fitness values are calculated with a strict t-norm \( T(x, y) = xy \) corresponding to the additive generator \( f(x) = -\log x \). For numerical reasons we consider the equivalent minimization problem
\[ \tilde{F}_n = \sum_{\tau=1}^t (-\log p_{\nu(n,\tau)}) \to \text{MIN in } n \]
instead of \( F_n = \prod_{\tau=1}^t p_{\nu(n,\tau)} \to \text{MAX in } n \). Thus, in general, when we replace \( xy \) by an arbitrary strict t-norm with generator \( f \), it is also convenient to introduce the logarithmic generator function \( \phi(x) = f(e^{-x}) \) and replace the general maximization problem
\[ F_n = f^{-1}\left( \frac{1}{t} \sum_{\tau=1}^t f(p_{\nu(n,\tau)}) \right) \to \text{MAX in } n \]
by the equivalent minimization
\[ \tilde{F}_n = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{\tau=1}^t \phi(-\log p_{\nu(n,\tau)}) \to \text{MIN in } n. \]

It should be recalled that the family of all strict t-norms with a piecewise linear logarithmic generator \( \phi : [0, \infty] \to [0, \infty] \) with finitely many breakpoints, such that \( \lim_{x \to -\infty} \phi'(x) = 1 \), is dense in the family of all strict t-norms with respect to the topology of uniform convergence. A proof of this is just based on a standard compactness argument.

### IV. Choice Strategy for Logarithmic Generators

Henceforth let \( \phi = \phi^{m_1,\ldots,m_n} : [0, \infty] \to [0, \infty] \) be the piecewise linear, strictly increasing function with break points \( 0 = a_0 < a_1 < a_2, \ldots, a_n < a_{n+1} = \infty \) and with steepness values \( m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n > 0 \) respectively \( m_{n+1} = \lim_{x \to -\infty} \phi'(x) = 1 \). That is,
\[ \phi(x) = (x - a_j)m_{j+1} + \sum_{i=1}^j (a_j - a_{j-1})m_j, \ a_j \leq x < a_{j+1}. \]

This representation actually has several advantages. If the control points are fixed, a function \( \phi \) can be described by the vector of the \( n \) steepness values, making it easy to optimize. On the other hand, the function \( \phi \) is unique up to a positive multiplicative constant; now, by setting \( m_{n+1} \) to 1, we fix exactly one of these equivalent representations. Furthermore, we have the possibility of positioning these control point \( a_j \)'s at values where they represent the problem we are currently modelling, as accurately as possible.

This way, by keeping all the \( a_j \) values constant, and also every other possible setting of the speech recognition environment, this problem can be simplified to that of a maximization one in an \( n \)-dimensional space. That is, given a vector \( m = (m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n) \), we seek to maximize the accuracy of the speech recognition system as a function of this \( m \) vector (i.e. \( \text{Acc}(m) \)).

#### A. The Choice of Control Points

The only remaining task now is to accurately position the control points. For this we suggest a simple test: let us perform an ordinary speech recognition process with the default operator, i.e. with \( T(x, y) = xy \), \( f(x) = -\log x \). During this test let us note which \( x \) and \( y \) values are passed to the operator (and thus to the generator function \( f \)). Owing to the commutativity property we do not need to distinguish between the two arguments, i.e. \( x \) and \( y \). Next, calculate a histogram of the \(-\log\) of recorded values, i.e. for each value note how many times it appears. Finally, to assign the \( n \) control points, divide this histogram into \( n+1 \) equal-sized parts; then the control points will be the borders between these regions.
This way, during a typical run, roughly the same number of evaluations will fall into each part of the function \( \phi \) between two adjacent control points, so that each steepness value will have about the same importance as the others.

In our case it means a speech recognition test using multiplication, i.e. \( f \) is \( -\log x \). The resulting histogram of occurring \( -\log x \) values and a sample list of control points can be seen in Figure 2, while some possible logarithmic generator \( \phi \) functions are shown in Figure 3.

Finally, the actual function \( f \) (and thus, the triangular norm \( T \)) can be easily calculated from \( \phi \). Of course it will not be piecewise linear, but a piecewise exponential function with \( n+1 \) negative exponents. It will be continuous, but not smooth, i.e. its derivative will be a discontinuous function (except, of course, for the case where each \( m_i \) steepness value equals 1, which is just the product case).

V. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

Having defined our problem and means of getting a solution, we now turn to testing. We will describe the speech recognition environment, the actual definition of the function to be optimized, and the software package we used for the optimization process. Finally we will present our results and draw some relevant conclusions.

A. THE SPEECH RECOGNITION ENVIRONMENT

First let us describe the environment this method of \( t \)-norm modelling was tested in. All testing was done in our OASIS speech recognition framework, which, due to its module-based structure and script-based execution, was quite suitable for this kind of experimental testing [11].

The probability estimates for a frame being a particular phoneme were supplied by an Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) method [1] with a classic structure of one hidden layer. The feature vectors (the \( a_i \) values) were also ones commonly used for speech recognition: the 13 Mel-frequency Cepstral Coefficients (or MFCC) were calculated, along with their derivatives, and the derivatives of the derivatives (MFCC + \( \Delta + \Delta \Delta \) for short), making 39 features in total [8].

The ANNs were trained on a large, general database. 332 people of various ages spoke 12 sentences and 12 words each, which were recorded with different microphones on different computers and sound cards [14]. This way a speaker-independent classifier was created, which can be used in practically any situation.

The tests were done not on simple words, but on whole sentences taken from the field of medical reports. In similar cases it is common to have some sort of language model; in our case a simple word 2-gram was used, i.e. the likeliness of a word was only decided by considering it and the previous word (based on a statistical investigation of similar texts). The tests were finally run on 150 randomly selected sentences, one after the other.

B. MEASUREMENTS OF PERFORMANCE

The performance of a speech recognition system can be easily measured on word recognition tasks: we only have to compute the ratio of the correctly recognized words over the tested words. However, we cannot use this method on sentence recognition because just one badly identified word would ruin the whole sentence. We cannot compare the two sentences word for word either, because one incorrectly inserted or omitted word would also corrupt the calculated performance ratio. For this reason, usually the edit distance of the two sentences (the original and the resultant) is calculated on words; that is, we construct the resulting sentence from the original by using the following operations: inserting and deleting words, and replacing one word with another one. These operations have some cost (in our case the common values of 3, 3 and 4, respectively), and then we pick an operation set with the lowest cost. Now we can calculate the following measures:

\[
Correctness = \frac{N - S - D}{N},
\]

and

\[
Accuracy = \frac{N - S - D - I}{N},
\]

where \( N \) is the total number of words in all the original sentences, \( S \) is the number of substitutions, \( D \) is the number of deletions and \( I \) is the number of insertions. Under these circumstances, the baseline values were 96.76\% and 98.38\% (accuracy and correctness, respectively), which is probably due to the large number of words and the simple nature of the language model. Besides the word-level correctness and accuracy scores, we calculated the number of correctly recognized whole sentences, which appeared to be 92.66\% (i.e. 139 correct sentences out of a total of 150).

C. SETTING THE LOGARITHMIC GENERATOR FUNCTION

As mentioned earlier, we set the control points of the logarithmic generator function by running a standard speech recognition test, and then plotted the histogram of the values we observed. The points were then positioned at the values between \( n+1 \) equal-sized regions. We carried out experiments with \( n = 8 \) and \( n = 16 \). For the steepness values, because \( \phi \) is a strictly monotonously increasing function, we can say that \( m_j > 0 \). On the other hand, there is no sure upper bound; but since \( m_{n+1} = 1 \), we thought that \( m_j \leq 10 \) would be sufficient. Thus we looked for a point in an \( n \)-dimensional hypercube, namely \((0, 10)^n\), which results in a maximal function value.

D. THE SNOBIT PACKAGE

Since we are modelling the generator function as a multi-parameter function, we definitely need a global optimization method. We chose the Snobit (Stable Noisy Optimization by Branch and FIT) [9] package for this task. It is available as a Matlab 6 [12] package, and it is an optimization system designed for noisy functions which have parameters that vary between fixed bounds. The ranges of the steepness parameters were fixed between 0 and 10, and the function value was
calculated from the accuracy value. Since Snobfit seeks to minimize this function value, we calculated the reciprocal rate of accuracy. Another reason for choosing Snobfit is that the calculation of this function involves the execution of another application (i.e., our OASIS speech recognition system), and this operation is also supported.

E. Results

Table III shows the best performances of each method used. Besides the baseline values of the product operator and the results of our new modelling approach, the performance of two other t-norms are shown for reference: that of the Dombi triangular norm family, and that of the generalized Dombi operator family [2]. The parameter value of the former one was determined via a simple sequence of tests, whereas the latter one, having two parameters, had to be optimized with Snobfit as well [6], [5].

As can be seen, beyond the baseline scores (which involves the use of the product operator), significant improvements can be attained. Even by using the somewhat simple Dombi operator, the error rates can be reduced quite significantly. Using the generalized Dombi operator leads to even better results, but its application is more complicated because it has two parameters instead of just one. However, with the logarithmic generator function no further difficulties arise, and it can lead to a better performance (i.e. higher accuracy and correctness scores). In addition, the ratio of correct sentences can be increased. To get this result, however, there should be a sufficient number of control points in order to provide the t-norm with enough freedom to fit the problem it is applied to. This could be the reason why our proposed method with \( n = 8 \) could not attain the performance of the generalized Dombi operator. (It still performed much better than the product case, however, especially for the accuracy score, which it was optimized for.)

But with \( n = 16 \), it was able to outperform all the methods tested in all measurements. Quite clearly, when we have enough freedom to optimize the generator function (and thus, the behaviour of the triangular norm it generates), it can fit the particular task even better than the well-performing classical t-norm families we tested. The use of too many control points, however, may lead to a case where the search space is so high dimensional that finding an optimum can be hard or almost impossible. Fortunately with \( n = 16 \) this was not the case, so this choice of \( n \) seems to be a good compromise between easy optimization and robustness in our case.

Lastly, we would like to stress that the use of the logarithmic generator function to model t-norms is not restricted to the field of speech recognition. Although our tests were limited to this field, we see no reason why this idea should not work in any field that makes use of triangular norms. Its application may require, of course, some small modifications to find the right value of \( n \).

VI. Conclusions

As we have seen, one area where triangular norms can be applied is in calculating word probability estimates based on probability estimates of phonemes for small speech segments. By finding an appropriate operator for this problem, we can significantly improve the performance of the speech recognition system. Many triangular norm families have one or more parameters for fine-tuning them in this task, but the question which naturally arises is whether they are flexible enough to adequately fit the given problem. To answer this we introduced the logarithmic generator function, and by optimizing it for piecewise linear terms with 16 break points on a sample of 150 sentences, we could indeed significantly improve the performance of this speech recognition procedure compared to those achieved by using classical t-norms. The positive outcome of our experiments makes us think that our best fit t-norm should be tested with a much bigger database. It is also worth remarking that our optimization method is not limited to just speech recognition; it could also be applied in other areas where fuzzy control algorithms are employed.

References


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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
<th>Correctness</th>
<th>Sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Product (baseline)</td>
<td>90.76%</td>
<td>98.38%</td>
<td>92.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dombi t-norm</td>
<td>97.57%</td>
<td>98.84%</td>
<td>93.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalized Dombi operator</td>
<td>98.49%</td>
<td>98.95%</td>
<td>94.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modelled t-norm, ( n = 8 )</td>
<td>98.27%</td>
<td>98.84%</td>
<td>94.00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modelled t-norm, ( n = 16 )</td>
<td>98.84%</td>
<td>99.19%</td>
<td>96.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE III

The best accuracy and correctness values obtained for the methods we tested, and the ratio of correct sentences.